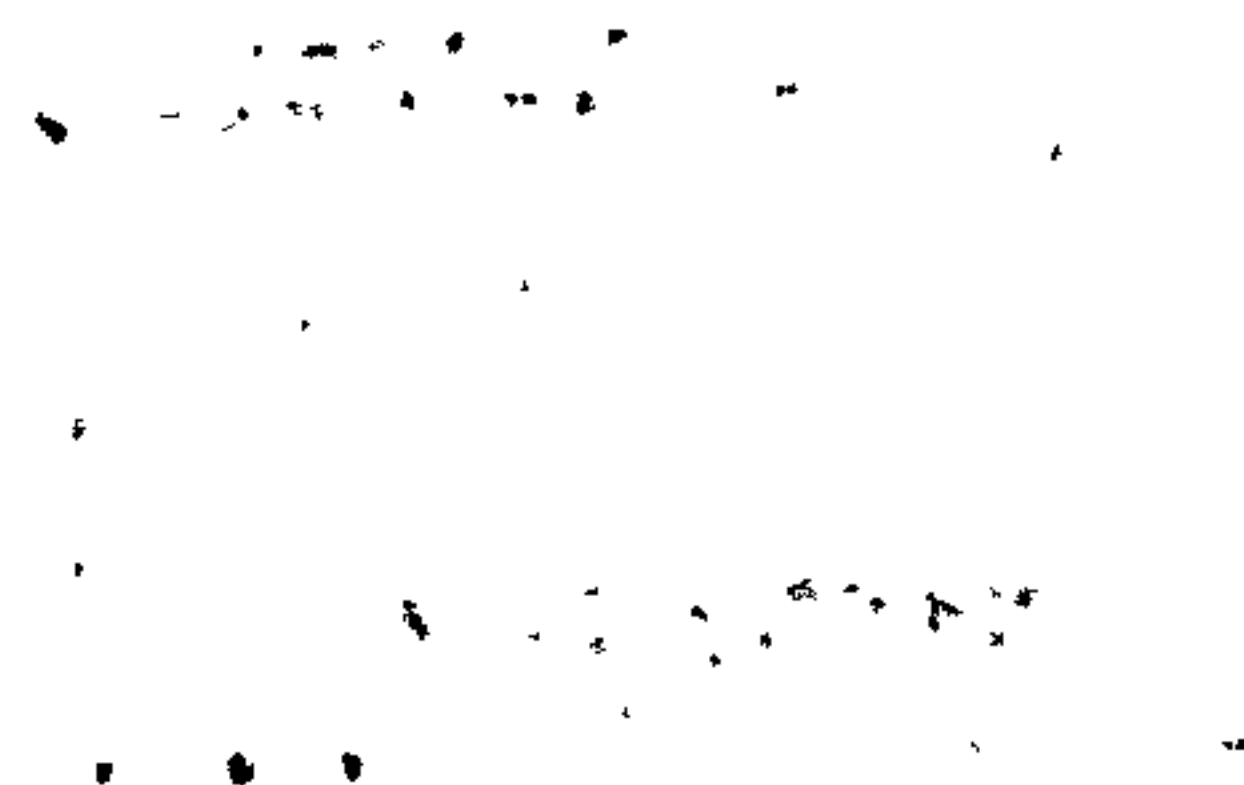


BOURNEMOUTH UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF SERVICES INDUSTRIES

**Ecotourism: characteristics and involvement patterns of its consumers
in the United Kingdom**



**A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
award of Doctor of Philosophy**

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ABSTRACT

Over the last ten years the increased demand for ecotourism has represented not only a growing trend in the tourism industry, but also one of the most significant challenges to the sector. It became evident over this period of time that the demands of a particular type of consumer had shifted away from *mass tourism* towards experiences perceived to be more individualistic and enhancing. In part, this trend was stimulated by the increased global awareness of environmental issues which in turn, encouraged a growth in visits to natural areas and placed ecotourism at the centre of the re-orientation of tourism. This growth of demand for ecotourism initially ran ahead of the supply of ecotourism products, and created a new challenge for researchers and scholars in tourism. In particular, the consumer-driven demand for ecotourism created a disequilibrium in academic circles. For example, there are uncertainties and confusions both in terms of the definition of ecotourism and also in the enumeration of its fundamental principles; confusions which in part are derived from a lack of understanding of the behaviour of ecotourists. Indeed, it can be suggested that until the behaviour of ecotourists is fully explored it will continue to be difficult to clarify the concept of ecotourism.

Having said this, there are a number of studies in the supply environments of North America and Australia which provide evidence that ecotourists are consumers with strong motivations to be in and protect rather than profligate the natural environment.

However, such studies have not been carried out in Europe and it is therefore the aim of this doctoral research to remedy this gap by examining the consumer behaviour of British ecotourists by using the *involvement* concept and techniques. In particular, this research concentrated on the assessment of the so-called *occasional and frequent ecotourists*, derived from their presence in the natural areas. These types of individuals provided the basis for the research analysis in which both qualitative and quantitative procedures were used to outline their characteristics and involvement patterns. The occasional ecotourists were subject to a quantitative assessment, where their involvement and ecotourism

knowledge confirmed the existence of this type of ecotourist as well as their primary characteristics and values. With the intention to explore the product knowledge of frequent ecotourists the so-called laddering interviews were conducted which presented ecotourists knowledge structures, as well as providing a back bone for the quantitative assessment. In turn, this enabled both their profiles and involvement elements to emerge as well as highlighted their value domains. Overall, this study underlined the behavioural and involvement patterns of these two types of ecotourists and indicated the elements of an ecotourism holiday experience which are not usually associated with this form of travel.

LIST OF CONTENTS	<u>Page No</u>
Abstract	i
List of Tables	xiii
List of Figures	xviii
List of Abbreviations	xx
List of Appendices	xxi
Acknowledgments	xxii
The Structure of the Thesis	xxiv
CHAPTER 1.0 SUSTAINABILITY	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Sustainability: overview and events	3
1.3 The concept of sustainability	5
1.3.1 The concept of development	6
1.3.2 The concept of needs	8
1.3.3 The concept of future generations	11
1.4 Types of sustainability	12
1.4.1 Alternative conceptual approaches and evaluation	15
1.5 The concept of sustainability within the field of tourism	20
1.6 The concept of sustainable tourism development	24
1.6.1 Issues of sustainable tourism development	29
1.7 Sustainable tourism	36
1.8 Summary	42

CHAPTER 2.0	THE CONCEPT OF ECOTOURISM	43
2.1	Introduction	43
2.2	Scope and definitional perspective of ecotourism	45
2.2.1	Definitions of ecotourism	50
2.3	Linkages and position of ecotourism	56
2.4	Natural-based component	63
2.4.1	Activities and the natural-based component	66
2.5	Sustainable management component	68
2.5.1	Environmental impacts	69
2.5.2	Economic impacts	74
2.5.3	Social/cultural impacts	79
2.6	Education/interpretation component	83
2.7	Alternative conceptual approaches and evaluation	87
2.8	Ecotourist behavioural perspective	93
2.8.1	Types of ecotourists	93
2.8.2	Ecotourist profile studies	98
2.9	Summary	107
CHAPTER 3.0	THE CONCEPT OF CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT	108
3.1	Introduction	108
3.2	An overview of different approaches to the concept of involvement	110
3.2.1	Approaches to involvement from a social psychological perspective	112
3.2.2	Approaches to involvement from a low involvement perspective	113
3.2.3	Approaches to involvement from a consumer behaviour perspective	114

3.3	Cognitively-based approach	118
3.4	Products	119
3.5	Means-end chain structure-value hierarchy	121
3.5.1	Values	123
3.5.1.1	Means-end chain and values	125
3.5.2	The operationalizational aspects of the means-end chain	129
3.5.3	Methodological procedures of the means-end chain and alternative approaches	134
3.6	Means-end chain structure: goals hierarchy	136
3.7	Felt involvement	137
3.8	Attitude structure, purchasing activities and other elements	139
3.9	The pot-pourri conceptualization of involvement	140
3.10	The Involvement Profile	141
3.10.1	Limitations of the Involvement Profile	143
3.11	The Personal Involvement Inventory	144
3.11.1	Limitations of the Personal Involvement Inventory	146
3.11.2	The new version of the Personal Involvement Inventory	147
3.12	Summary	148
CHAPTER 4.0	METHODOLOGY	149
4.1	Introduction	149
4.2	Issues emerging from the secondary data review	152
4.3	Research question and objectives	155
4.4	The quantitative and qualitative research perspectives	155
4.4.1	Quantitative and/or qualitative research dilemmas within the field of tourism and ecotourism	157

4.5	Sampling criteria in selecting ecotourists	159
4.5.1	Selection procedures of the current sample	162
4.5.2	The actual sampling process	163
4.6	Research instrument selection	166
4.6.1	Questionnaire design and postal questionnaire	166
4.6.2	The laddering interview process	168
4.6.3	Analysis of the laddering data	171
4.7	Occasional ecotourists-pilot analysis	173
4.7.1	An analysis of the socio-demographic elements of occasional ecotourists	174
4.7.2	Philosophies of an overseas trip (question one)	176
4.7.3	Continents of travel (question two)	178
4.7.4	Elements of the ecotourism holiday (question three)	179
4.7.5	Personal involvement inventory (question four)	182
4.7.6	Values of an ecotourism holiday (question five)	183
4.8	Occasional ecotourist profile (I)	186
4.9	Frequent ecotourists- laddering interviews	186
4.10	Frequent ecotourists profile (II)	190
4.11	Data analysis	191
4.12	The empirical qualitative data analysis	191
4.13	The quantitative data analysis	194
4.13.1	Descriptive statistics	194
4.13.2	Crosstabulations: chi-square analysis	195
4.13.3	Reliability analysis	196
4.13.4	Factor analysis	197

4.13.5	Cluster analysis	202
4.13.6	One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)	206
4.13.7	Regression analysis	207
4.13.8	Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)	208
4.14	Evaluation and limitations	210
4.15	Summary	212
CHAPTER 5.0	THE PROFILES OF OCCASIONAL ECOTOURISTS: A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS (I)	213
5.1	Introduction	213
5.2	An analysis of the socio-demographic characteristics of occasional ecotourists	214
5.2.1	Age and income levels	214
5.2.2	Gender	215
5.2.3	Marital status and education	217
5.2.4	Activities undertaken on an ecotourism holiday	217
5.2.5	Continents of travel	218
5.2.6	Type and grade of accommodation	218
5.2.7	Preference of traveling with companions	219
5.2.8	Membership of an environmental group	219
5.2.9	Levels of involvement	220
5.3	Motives of an overseas trip (question one, section a)	222
5.3.1	Mean scores at the agree level	222
5.3.2	Mean scores at the neutral level	224
5.3.3	Mean scores at the disagreement level	224
5.4	The relationship between motives of an overseas trip and sociodemographics	225

5.5	Regression analysis of motives for overseas travel and involvement	225
5.5.1	Regression analysis of motives for overseas travel, involvement and education	227
5.6	Elements of an ecotourism holiday (question two, section a)	229
5.6.1	Mean scores at the agree level	229
5.6.2	Mean scores at the neutral level	231
5.7	The relationship between elements of an ecotourism holiday and sociodemographics	233
5.8	Factor analysis of the elements of ecotourism holidays	234
5.8.1	Factor scores of ecotourism holidays	236
5.9	Regression analysis of factor scores and involvement	237
5.10	Cluster analysis of the elements of ecotourism holidays	239
5.10.1	Clusters of ecotourism holidays	241
5.11	The relationship between clusters of occasional ecotourists and socio-demographics	242
5.12	An analysis of the personal involvement inventory scale in relation to ecotourism (question three, section b)	251
5.12.1	Mean scores of PII	252
5.13	Values of an ecotourism holiday (question four, section b)	253
5.13.1	Mean scores at the agree level	254
5.13.2	Mean scores at the neutral level	255
5.14	The relationship between values and socio-demographics	256
5.15	Factor analysis and values	256
5.15.1	Factor value scores of the occasional ecotourists	257
5.16	Regression analysis of values and involvement	259
5.16.1	Regression analysis of values, involvement and education	260

5.17	Cluster analysis of the values of the ecotourism holidays	261
5.17.1	Value clusters of the occasional ecotourists	262
5.18	The relationship between values clusters and socio-demographics	263
5.19	Comparison between elements of an ecotourism holiday and values	268
5.20	Summary	270
CHAPTER 6.0	THE FREQUENT ECOTOURIST'S INVOLVEMENT PROFILE: A QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS	272
6.1	Introduction	272
6.2	An overview of the scope and criteria for the interviews	273
6.3	An analysis of male and female frequent ecotourists	276
6.3.1	The content elements structure of male and female frequent ecotourists	276
6.3.2	Attributes	278
6.3.3	Consequences	281
6.3.4	Values	282
6.3.5	The product knowledge structure of male and female frequent ecotourists	284
6.3.5.1	An analysis of the hierarchical value maps	285
6.3.6	Comparison for female and male frequent ecotourists	289
6.4	An analysis of the low, medium and high involved frequent ecotourists	292
6.4.1	The content elements structure of low, medium and high involvement frequent ecotourists	293
6.4.2	Attributes	298
6.4.3	Consequences	299
6.4.4	Values	301

6.4.5	The structure elements of medium and high involvement groups	302
6.4.5.1	An analysis of the hierarchical value maps	303
6.4.6	Comparison of medium and high involvement frequent ecotourists	308
6.5	An analysis of male and female medium and high involved frequent ecotourists	311
6.6	Summary	311
CHAPTER 7.0	THE PROFILES OF FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS: A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS (II)	313
7.1	Introduction	313
7.2	An analysis of the socio-demographic characteristics of frequent ecotourists	314
7.2.1	Age and income levels	314
7.2.2	Gender	316
7.2.3	Marital status and education	317
7.2.4	Activities undertaken on an ecotourism holiday	318
7.2.5	Continents of travel	318
7.2.6	Type and grade of accommodation	318
7.2.7	Preference of traveling with companions	319
7.2.8	Membership of an environmental group	319
7.2.9	Levels of involvement	320
7.3	Attributes of the ecotourism product (question one, section a)	321
7.3.1	Mean scores at the agree level	321
7.3.2	Mean scores at the neutral level	323
7.3.3	Mean scores at the disagreement level	324
7.4	The relationship between attributes and socio-demographics	324

7.5	Factor analysis and attributes	324
7.5.1	Factor scores of ecotourism attributes	326
7.6	Regression analysis of attribute factor scores and involvement	328
7.7	Consequences of the ecotourism product (question two, section a)	329
7.7.1	Mean scores at the agree level	330
7.7.2	Mean scores at the neutral level	332
7.7.3	Mean scores at the disagreement level	333
7.8	The relationship between consequences and socio-demographics	333
7.9	Factor analysis of the consequences	334
7.9.1	Factor scores of ecotourism consequences	335
7.10	Regression analysis of consequences factor scores and involvement	337
7.11	Cluster analysis of the consequences of the ecotourism holiday	338
7.11.1	Clusters of ecotourism consequences	340
7.12	The relationship between clusters of frequent ecotourists and socio-demographics	342
7.13	Comparison between attributes of an ecotourism holiday and consequences	348
7.14	An analysis of the involvement contrast in relation to ecotourism (question three, section b)	351
7.14.1	Mean scores of PII	352
7.15	Values of an ecotourism (question four, section b)	353
7.15.1	Mean scores at the agree level	355
7.15.2	Mean scores at the neutral level	356
7.15.3	Mean scores at the disagreement level	356
7.16	The relationship between values and socio-demographics	357

7.17	Factor analysis of the values	357
7.17.1	Factor scores of ecotourism values	359
7.18	Regression analysis of values and involvement	360
7.19	Cluster analysis of the values of the ecotourism holidays	361
7.19.1	Values clusters of the frequent ecotourists	362
7.20	The relationship between value-clusters and socio-demographics	364
7.21	Comparison between consequences of an ecotourism holiday and values	370
7.22	Summary	372
CHAPTER 8.0	COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF OCCASIONAL AND FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS	374
8.1	Introduction	374
8.2	Occasional ecotourists	375
8.2.1	The meaning of ecotourism for occasional ecotourists	376
8.2.2	Elements influencing involvement	377
8.2.3	The occasional ecotourists profiles and characteristics	379
8.2.4	The involvement levels, value and profiles of occasional ecotourists	381
8.3	The frequent ecotourists	382
8.4	The qualitative profiles of frequent ecotourists	382
8.4.1	The meaning of ecotourism for frequent ecotourists during the interviews	383
8.4.2	Elements influencing involvement during the interviews	384
8.4.3	The involvement levels, values and profiles of frequent ecotourists during the interviews	387
8.5	The quantitative profile of frequent ecotourists	387

8.5.1	The meaning of ecotourism for frequent ecotourists	388
8.5.2	Elements influencing involvement	390
8.5.3	The frequent ecotourists profiles and characteristics	393
8.5.4	The involvement levels, values and profiles of frequent ecotourists	395
8.6	Summary	396
CHAPTER 9.0	CONCLUSION	397
9.1	Introduction	397
9.2	Significance of the results	398
9.3	Contribution of the thesis	403
9.4	Implications	405
9.5	Issues of future research	407
9.6	Summary	409
REFERENCES		410
APPENDICES		474

List of Tables	<u>Page No</u>
1.1 Issues affecting the concept of sustainability	7
1.2 The guiding principles for tourism-Agenda 21	23
1.3 Types of sustainability within tourism	35
1.4 Characteristics of mass tourism and alternative tourism	38
2.1 Definitions of ecotourism	51
2.2 Experiential dimensions of ecotourism and mass tourism	62
2.3 Hypothetical costs and benefits of ecotourism	70
2.4 The nature of antagonistic environmental impacts of ecotourism	72
2.5 General characteristics of ecotourists among selected studies	99
3.1 Classifications of involvement	115
3.2 The levels of abstraction concept	132
4.1 Differences between qualitative and quantitative research	156
4.2 Advantages and disadvantages of the postal questionnaires	168
4.3 The pros and cons of the laddering interviews	172
4.4 The socio-demographics elements of the pilot sample	175
4.5 Type and luxury of accommodation	176
4.6 Frequency scores of the philosophies of the overseas trip	177
4.7 Correlation scores of deleted items of the question one	178
4.8 Elements considered for an ecotourism holiday	180
4.9 PII elements perceived towards the concept of ecotourism	183
4.10 Values of an ecotourism holiday	184
4.11a The means-end chain's attributes of ecotourism	188

4.11b	The means-end chain's consequences of ecotourism	189
4.11c	The means-end chain's values of ecotourism	189
4.12	Results of the -2 Log likelihood probability of the laddering interviews	193
5.1	The socio-demographics elements of the sample	216
5.2	Motives of an overseas trip	223
5.3	Regression analysis for levels of involvement and motives for overseas travel	276
5.4	Regression analysis for levels of involvement/overseas motives and education	228
5.5	Elements considered for an ecotourism holiday	230
5.6	Factor correlation matrix	235
5.7	Factor loading matrix for the elements considered for an ecotourism holiday	235
5.8	Regression analysis for levels of involvement and elements of ecotourism	239
5.9	Ecotourism clusters comparison of mean scores	240
5.10a	Crosstabulation of clusters and level of involvement	243
5.10b	Crosstabulation of clusters and age of occasional ecotourists	244
5.10c	Crosstabulation of clusters and income of occasional ecotourists	244
5.10d	Crosstabulation of clusters and marital status of occasional ecotourists	245
5.10e	Crosstabulation of clusters and gender of occasional ecotourists	246
5.11a	Crosstabulation of males, age, and clusters	247
5.11b	Crosstabulation of females, age, and clusters	247
5.12	PII elements perceived towards the concept of ecotourism	251
5.13	Values of ecotourism holidays	254
5.14a	Factor correlation matrix	256

5.14b	Factor loading matrix for the values for an ecotourism holiday	257
5.15a	Regression analysis for levels of involvement and values	259
5.15b	Regression analysis for levels of involvement, values and education	260
5.16	Ecotourism segments based on values	261
5.17a	Crosstabulation of clusters and level of involvement	263
5.17b	Crosstabulation of clusters and income of occasional ecotourists	264
5.17c	Crosstabulation of clusters and age of occasional ecotourists	265
5.18	One way Anova analysis between the mean of value components and ecotourism clusters	269
6.1a	The means-end chain's attributes of ecotourism	274
6.1b	The means-end chain's consequences of ecotourism	275
6.1c	The means-end chain's values of ecotourism	275
6.2	The socio-demographics elements of the sample	277
6.3	The elements of ecotourism cognitive structure for males and females	284
6.4	Elements of the ecotourism cognitive structure for low, medium and high involvement groups	302
7.1	The socio-demographics characteristics of the sample	315
7.2	Attributes of ecotourism product	322
7.3a	Factor correlation matrix	325
7.3b	Factor loading matrix for the attributes for an ecotourism holiday	326
7.4	Regression analysis for levels of involvement and attributes	328
7.5	Consequences of ecotourism product	330
7.6a	Factor correlation matrix	334

7.6b	Factor loading matrix for the consequences for an ecotourism holiday	335
7.7	Regression analysis for levels of involvement and attributes	337
7.8	Ecotourism consequences clusters comparison of mean scores	339
7.9a	Crosstabulation of clusters and level of involvement	343
7.9b	Crosstabulation of clusters and income of frequent ecotourists	344
7.9c	Crosstabulation of clusters and gender of frequent ecotourists	344
7.10	One way Anova analysis between the mean scores of ecotourism attributes and consequences clusters	349
7.11	PII elements perceived towards the concept of ecotourism	351
7.12	Values of ecotourism holidays	354
7.13a	Factor correlation matrix	358
7.13b	Factor loading matrix for the values for an ecotourism holiday	358
7.14	Regression analysis for levels of involvement and values	360
7.15	Ecotourism value segments	362
7.16a	Crosstabulation of value-clusters and level of involvement	365
7.16b	Crosstabulation of value-clusters and income of frequent ecotourists	366
7.16c	Crosstabulation of value-clusters and marital status of frequent ecotourists	366
7.17	One way Anova analysis between the means of ecotourism values and the consequences clusters	371

List of Figures	<u>Page No</u>
1.1 Capital stocks and human well being	14
1.2 Model of sustainability and the role of indicators	19
2.1 The continuum of ecotourism paradigms	47
2.2 The interrelationship between ecotourism and different forms of tourism	58
2.3 Sustainable ecotourism from an ethical perspective	59
2.4 The position of ecotourism within tourism products spectrum	61
2.5 An integrated conceptual framework of ecotourism phenomena	90
3.1 The different theoretical approaches of involvement	111
3.2 The cognitive basis for involvement	128
3.3 The determinants of the means-end chain	134
3.4 Involvement as a characteristic of product-knowledge structure	140
3.5 The profile view of involvement	142
3.6 The unidimensional view of involvement	144
4.1 General stages of the research process	150
4.2 Methodological steps of this research study	152
5.1 Levels of involvement	220
5.2 Mean values of motives of an overseas holiday	223
5.3 Mean values of elements considered for an ecotourism holiday	231
5.4 PII mean values perceived towards the concept of ecotourism	252
5.5 Mean scores of values of ecotourism holidays	255
6.1a The hierarchical value map of female frequent ecotourists	279

6.1b	The hierarchical value map of male frequent ecotourists	280
6.2a	The hierarchical value map of low involvement frequent ecotourists	295
6.2b	The hierarchical value map of medium involvement frequent ecotourists	296
6.2c	The hierarchical value map of high involvement frequent ecotourists	297
7.1	Levels of involvement	320
7.2	Ecotourism attributes mean scores	322
7.3	Ecotourism consequences mean scores	331
7.4	PII mean scores perceived towards the concept of ecotourism	352
7.5	Mean scores of values of ecotourism holidays	355
8.1	Occasional ecotourists and involvement	378
8.2	Frequent ecotourists and involvement: means-end perspective	385
8.3	Frequent ecotourists and involvement	391

List of Abbreviations

Association of Independent Tour Operators	AITO
Barlett’s Test for Sphericity	BTS
Hierarchical Value Map	HVM
Enduring Involvement	EI
Involvement Profile	IP
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin	KMO
List of Values	LOV
Mean	M
Opinion Leadership	OL
Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development	OECD
Personal Involvement Inventory	PII
Response-Response	R-R
Situational Involvement	SI
Standard Deviation	SD
Statistical Package for Social Sciences	SPSS
Stimulus-Organism-Response	S-O-R
United Kingdom	UK
United Nations Environmental Programme	UNEP
World Conservation Strategy	WCS
World Tourism Organisation	WTO
Word of Mouth	WOM
World Wildlife Fund	WWF

List of Appendices

474

Appendix One	Pilot questionnaire and letter
Appendix Two	Means-end chain structure: cues and goals
Appendix Three	Pilot cluster analysis results
Appendix Four	Questionnaire for occasional ecotourists
Appendix Five	Laddering items selection
Appendix Six	Questionnaire for frequent ecotourists
Appendix Seven	Laddering interviews
Appendix Eight	Occasional ecotourists: statistical tests frequent ecotourists
Appendix Nine	The frequent ecotourist's involvement profile: a qualitative analysis
Appendix Ten	Frequent ecotourists: statistical tests frequent ecotourists
Appendix Eleven:	Results of the comparative analysis of occasional and frequent ecotourists

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THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The development of the body of knowledge in tourism has been characterized as comprising four key stages (Jafari, 1990). These are:

- The advocacy platform - which takes an uncritical stance to tourism;
- The cautionary platform - a recognition that tourism brings negative impacts to a destination;
- The adaptancy platform - a response to the cautionary platform, recognising the need to evolve low impact forms of tourism; and
- The knowledge-based platform - which recognises that tourism decisions need a sound research underpinning.

The rise of ecotourism mirrors the development of Jafari's platforms, emerging as it did from the adaptancy platform and developing rapidly as both a commercial product and as a focus for academic research. However, in order to ensure that the concept of ecotourism is true to its values and original aim of providing a low impact form of tourism, the knowledge-based approach is needed. In particular, there has been little research into the behavior of ecotourists, nor of their motivations, values and preferences. The research studies that are available present contradictory findings across the globe, and in particular suggest that 'primary purpose' ecotourists are few and far between, as they tend to spend much of their experience on other forms of tourism such as farm and rural tourism (Blamey and Braithwaite, 1997; Twyman and Robinson, 1997). In an attempt to address this key shortcoming in ecotourism research, this study aims to:

Explore the different types and/or profiles of ecotourists in the UK, by using the concept of consumer involvement.

In this respect, the objectives of the research are to:

- Identify occasional and frequent types of ecotourists;
- Illustrate the profiles of occasional ecotourists based on their knowledge of ecotourism and values;
- Illustrate the involvement levels of occasional ecotourists;
- Identify the knowledge structure of frequent ecotourists;

- Assess the knowledge structure of the frequent ecotourists in a larger sample;
- Illustrate the profiles of frequent ecotourists based on their knowledge of ecotourism (attributes, consequences) and values;
- Illustrate the involvement levels of frequent ecotourists;
- Identify the various influences upon the nature of involvement; and
- Compare the effectiveness of the cognitive and unidimensional view of involvement.

This introductory section to the thesis identifies and briefly outlines the key elements of the research as the literature review, methodology, analysis and conclusions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review falls into three key areas:

- Sustainability;
- Ecotourism; and
- Consumer involvement.

Chapter 1 outlines the concept of sustainability from both the environmental and tourism perspectives. Whilst commentators argue that the incorporation of environmental concerns has evolved from idealism to realism, there is considerable evidence that any attempt to incorporate environmental concerns in tourism is fraught with limitations. The most important limitation stems from views stating that an emphasis should be placed on the treatment of sustainability as a concept, rather than concentrating on definitions of sustainability. Examinations of the concept of sustainability focus on its associated areas of development, needs, and future generations. In particular:

- The concept of development mainly deals with concerns relating to economic growth and/or development issues of sustainability. Concerns still exist with respect to the achievement of equitable growth, minimization of uneven development and the associated issues of inequality;
- The concept of needs and the issues of intra- and inter-generational equity and resource usage and utilisation are questioned. There is compelling evidence

highlighting the imbalances of the 'North-South' rule as well as that standards of living within the industrial countries have to be minimised in order to meet global sustainable consumption patterns; and

- The concept of future generations highlights certain limitations with respect to the management of income and capital bequests. In such cases, the concept of future generations suggests that both capital bequests and income concepts require flexibility and a diversity of scenarios. If this is not achieved, then the search for sustainable development will be passed onto future generations instead of any equitable capital transfers from the current generation.

Examination of sustainability within the field of tourism also revealed shortcomings. In particular these stem from the common utilisation of the term, and the lack of clarification over the concepts of sustainable tourism development and sustainable tourism. Here, there is an initial difficulty in distinguishing whether there are two concepts, or just one that encompasses the other. Adopting the view that there are two concepts, the sustainable tourism development review criticises the literature's over-reliance on the 'tourism-centric' approach. Further, sustainable tourism has been traditionally compared to mass tourism as a 'polar opposite' concept. These days it seems that there is a convergence stage where all forms of tourism appear to be heading towards the concept of sustainability. Although this position is desirable, the shortcomings of convergence lie in the interpretation of a variety of tourism products and terms which appear to describe similar activities (i.e. alternative, responsible tourism). Inevitably, comparisons are made with the concept of ecotourism, which proclaims to represent the most desirable form of sustainability.

Chapter 2 examines the definitions of ecotourism, its linkages with other forms of sustainable tourism, and the behavioral patterns of its clientele base. The majority of the ecotourism definitions that are reviewed contain three common elements: natural-based, educational and sustainable. The definitions range along a spectrum from passive to active, depending upon the setting. In addition, these definitions of ecotourism mainly attest to the characteristics of the destination and the trip, and there is a lack of emphasis on definitions that reflect the desires of ecotourists. A further

constraint of the definitional perspective of ecotourism originates from the vast array of linkages with other forms of sustainable tourism. This study treats ecotourism as a sub-component of natural-based tourism, being a subset of the concept of sustainability. There is also certain evidence stating that ecotourism delivers more than just the benefits of a sustainable approach and therefore should also re-position its products outside the principles of sustainability.

The chapter assesses the three sub-components of ecotourism - natural-based, sustainable and educational in the light of a number of direct and indirect benefits and costs:

- Within the natural-based component the review of literature determined that ecotourism takes place in both protected and non-protected areas, and that it has certain similarities with natural-based tourism.
- Within the sustainable management component, evidence suggests that ecotourism should abolish the 'tourism-centered' syndrome and adopt the 'nature-centered' approach in order to reflect sustainability rather than tourism principles. This also arises from the different direct and indirect costs and benefits associated with the environmental, economic, and socio-cultural impacts.
- The third aspect of ecotourism describes the educational/interpretation component. Different types of environmental education/training programs are reviewed in an effort to highlight the pros and cons associated with this component. Currently, neither interpretation nor training programs are widely used within the sector. They remain however important determinants of ecotourism given that visitors and locals can be involved in the management of ecotourism.

It is clear that the concept of ecotourism needs to discover its customer base in order for management procedures to become more effective. It follows that there are numerous types of ecotourists ranging from passive to active (or hard to soft dimensions), mainly categorized by their engagement in certain activities. In particular, there is evidence to illustrate that ecotourists are not 'primary purpose' visitors, as while they are at the destination they also tend to engage in other forms of tourism. Further, the socio-demographic characteristics of ecotourists elicited in these studies suggest that age, gender, education and the accommodation preference of

ecotourists vary in such a way that no generalization can be made with respect to their profiles. In most of these studies there are no attempts to incorporate other marketing concepts or to build scales specifically tailored to ecotourism demand. The only study which appears to adopt this perspective utilised the concept of consumer involvement. This study revealed the great potential contribution of the concept of involvement in natural-based tourism, as it reveals the elements which consumers are involved in.

In *Chapter 3* the concept of consumer involvement is examined and found to share similarities both with the sustainability and ecotourism reviews with regards to the debate over its definitions. The majority of definitions within Chapter 3 tend to suggest that involvement deals with the overall personal relevance of an object to an individual.

Initially, involvement research is briefly examined from two perspectives:

- the social psychology perspective; and
- the low-involvement behavior perspective.

Both perspectives provide the origins of involvement research in consumer behavior. The primary focus in consumer behavior concerns the different classifications of involvement. Here four distinct themes are discussed:

- the cognitively-based approach;
- the pot-pourri approach;
- the individual state approach; and
- the response based approach.

For the purpose of this research, only the first two approaches are examined.

The **Cognitively-based Approach** examines the treatment of involvement in relation to products, attitudes and other activities. The assessment of product involvement, which represents the first main area under investigation in this study, is related to the content characteristics of product knowledge. Elements of product knowledge can be assessed through different types of involvement (i.e. enduring, opinion leadership), with the most proclaimed relationship relating to the connections between attributes (which are the characteristics of a product), consequences (which are the consumer's

responses to using a product) and values (which are the beliefs of an individual) or the so called 'means-end chain'.

Here, attributes are the characteristics of a product, consequences are the consumers' responses of using a product, and values are the beliefs of an individual. The structural characteristics of the means-end chain are based on the abstraction concept that outlines the intricate relationships within the chains representing the structure of consumers' product knowledge.

An assessment of these linkages can be carried out by using the 'laddering interview technique', which explains why the product is important to the individual. In contrast to the traditional components of using the means-end chain to assess product knowledge, recent attempts include the utilisation of cues and goals covering the area of consumer decision making procedure, rather than the actual assessment of product knowledge. In a similar vein, a variety of other researchers focused on the cognitively-based assessment of involvement based on attitude, purchasing activities, and advertising.

The **Pot-Pourri Approach** initially examines a set of different studies in relation to the agenda of the measurement of the involvement profile. The section concludes with the unidimensional view of involvement which represents the second major theme under investigation in this research. This view suggests that different motives or goals or values are connected to a product and combined to affect the degree of involvement. Here, the Personal Involvement Inventory is an indicator of this view of involvement, as it is a single-measure scale that classifies consumers into the low, medium, and high involvement groups. In all cases, both the unidimensional and the cognitively- based approach to involvement have never been applied simultaneously in tourism research, and as such represent one of the objectives which will assist in examining the main aim of this research.

METHODOLOGY

Chapter 4 examines the different techniques used to achieve the aim and objectives of the research. The starting point is an analysis of the strengths and weakness of the quantitative and qualitative research approaches, as these are the main instruments used in this study.

Issues relating to sampling ecotourists are then discussed, demonstrating that previous studies fail to address the post-trip ecotourism characteristics of individuals. The sampling procedures in this study pre-selected ecotourists based on their frequent or non-frequent presence in natural area. This allowed two distinct samples to emerge, that of occasional and frequent ecotourists.

Chapter 4 then moves on to illustrate the pros and cons of the questionnaires and laddering interviews and the various criteria of these two research tools. Further, a pilot analysis of the questionnaire to occasional ecotourists is presented which highlights the effectiveness of this instrument, as well as the performance of its items. The questionnaire results show that certain items are not effective, so they are replaced with new items in order to increase the reliability of the overall sample. Finally, the methodology discusses the specific techniques used for the qualitative and quantitative data analysis:

- The qualitative analysis demonstrates the methodological procedures of the laddering interviews; whereas
- The quantitative analysis discusses the role of its techniques, such as descriptive statistics, chi-square analysis, reliability analysis, factor analysis, cluster analysis, one-way Anova, regression analysis, and Manova.

ANALYSIS

The analysis falls into four key areas:

- a quantitative assessment of occasional ecotourists;
- a qualitative assessment of frequent ecotourists;
- a quantitative assessment of frequent ecotourists; and
- a comparison of occasional and frequent ecotourists.

Chapter 5 examines the characteristics of the occasional ecotourists from a quantitative perspective. The result show that these individuals express a unique profile in terms of their overseas travel motives, elements of ecotourism, values and levels of involvement. The majority of occasional ecotourists are young, educated to at least degree level and with low levels of income. Most of the people are high-involved individuals, and to a lesser degree medium-involved. Their overseas travel motives express an intention to obtain value for money, and flexibility in their holiday, all of which vary according to their levels of involvement. It follows that the high involvement group favor educational-orientated overseas motives more, and the medium involvement group are more concerned with the affordability of the holiday.

In a similar vein, the elements of an ecotourism holiday reveal distinct differences. Here, occasional ecotourists indicate that their favorite interests are in relation to social experiences and educational components. Further, it appears that occasional ecotourists emphasise social experiences that include both lifestyle and people. Consequently, such result give rise to a natural-based experience with strong social and educational components. In addition, factor analysis demonstrates their understanding of the concept of ecotourism. The results suggests that as a concept, ecotourism seems to contain a multiple base of natural attractions, educational, cultural, social, relaxation and outdoors elements.

Regression analysis shows that the high-involved ecotourists are more interested in the educational and natural attraction elements of the concept, whereas the medium-involved group is concerned with the relaxation component. Chapter 5, then presents the results of the cluster analysis, where the profiles of occasional ecotourists based on the ecotourism elements are formed. The last section of Chapter 5 discusses the results

of the involvement scale and the values of this group of ecotourists. Here, occasional ecotourists emphasise that the internal-orientated values are the force driving their knowledge structures, suggesting that these values are the standard of conduct for ecotourism holidays. This finding is supported by the results of the factor, regression and cluster analysis. In particular, high-involved occasional ecotourists highlight that the 'pleasure and achievement internal domain' influences them. Finally, this chapter concludes with a comparison between elements of ecotourism holidays and values, and illustrates the different variations between them. In short, the chapter presents the profiles of occasional ecotourists and highlights the different elements that influence their nature.

Chapter 6 presents the profiles of frequent ecotourists from a qualitative perspective. Here, the laddering interviews present an assessment of the product knowledge structures of frequent ecotourists. The results outline certain variations of their knowledge as a result of their gender and involvement levels. Initially, female frequent ecotourists tended to have a richer product knowledge structure as opposed to their male counterparts. The understanding of their ecotourism holidays detail distinct differences. The evidence demonstrates that visits to natural environments and protected areas is the most important attribute for the two groups. However, females tend to emphasise the educational and conservation aspects, whereas males highlight the outdoor component of the concept. In a similar vein, the comparison of involvement levels shows that this group falls into the high involvement category. In turn, this allows distinct profiles to emerge - for example, the female high-involved group of ecotourists are the main group of ecotourists with deeper product knowledge structures, all influenced by two values which reflect their maturity and knowledge domain.

Chapter 7 presents the profiles of the frequent ecotourists from a quantitative perspective. The results show that these individuals express a unique profile in terms of the attributes, consequences, and values of ecotourism holidays. Their socio-demographic backgrounds show that the majority of them are middle aged females with mid-range incomes. In addition, the analysis of attributes, consequences, and

values indicate that natural attractions, educational, and conservational components attract frequent ecotourists. The attributes results reveal that natural elements are their primary concern, which in turn affects their knowledge of ecotourism as four components: cultural/social; natural attractions; price/outdoors; and educational. Regression analysis indicates that the natural attractions and educational attributes attract high-involved ecotourists, whereas not a single attribute-factor influenced the nature of the medium-involvement group. At the consequences level, the most popular elements are related to respecting local people and environmental issues. This affects the results of the factor analysis where the latter elements are the first factors in their choice, highlighting that frequent ecotourists are primarily motivated by these elements. It follows that the results of the regression analysis favor high involvement ecotourists, in terms of environmental and social awareness consequences, educational/conservation consequences, and energetic/memorable consequences. The medium involvement group, on the other hand show no relationships with any consequences.

The second part of the chapter presents the results of the involvement scale and the values. In terms of values, the majority of frequent ecotourists indicate that they are motivated by values that increase their knowledge and reveal their appreciation of the world. This affects their profiles, in terms of the factor and cluster analysis. The factor analysis shows that the latter mentioned values are the primary forces in both their choices and values, which influence their internal nature. In turn, these values are more likely to appear in the high involvement group as opposed to the medium one. The cluster analysis demonstrates four unique profiles, all supported by a number of distinct socio-demographic characteristics. Finally, a comparison between consequences and values indicate their relationships and differences. In short, the results for the frequent ecotourists illustrate that this group have a high degree of product knowledge and expertise towards ecotourism.

Chapter 8 presents a comparative analysis between the occasional and frequent ecotourists. The chapter presents the similarities and differences of these two groups based on three criteria: meaning of ecotourism; items which influence involvement levels; and profiles of ecotourists in terms of their ecotourism and value elements. In

this respect, similarities exist in terms of the meaning of ecotourism and the elements that influence involvement levels. Differences are elicited in terms of ecotourists' profiles and values domains. In all the cases, this chapter outlines that the high involvement group of occasional and frequent ecotourists is the leading group with rich product knowledge and expertise towards ecotourism.

CONCLUSION

Chapter 9 provides an assessment of the objectives of this research. Here, the objectives are evaluated in accordance with the findings of the thesis, in order to explore if the objectives are successfully achieved. This is followed by a discussion on the contribution of the thesis in terms of the concept of sustainability, ecotourism and involvement. Additionally, the implications of the research results to the areas of consumer behavior, marketing of ecotourism and policy issues are discussed in order to ascertain the benefits of utilising these research results. Finally, certain issues for future research are presented both in terms of ecotourism and sustainability.

**To my parents Ioannis and Georgia, to my sisters Eleni and Penelopi and
to Amira for all their love, support and patience.**

CHAPTER ONE

SUSTAINABILITY

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1.0 Sustainability

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The theme of sustainable development has one upheld agreement among all the researchers examining this concept. This refers to its initial treatment, that of the Brundtland report, by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED). Prior to this popularity the role of the environment shifted from a state of idealism to a realism stage (Dowling, 1992). Initially, during the decades of 1950's and early 1970's a handful of studies were conducted regarding the effects of negative practices of development, such as the Silent Spring Study and Tragedy of Commons (Dowling, 1992). A landmark of this period was the introduction of the United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP), which acknowledged the resource based environmental fragility. During these years, tourism was seeing a surge towards the concept of 'mass development' throughout the world, with its environmental practices manifesting suggestions for an inventory of natural resources, zoning, and development guidelines (Dowling, 1992), and as a result the first workshops on environmental impacts was organized by the Pacific Asia Travel Association (Farrell and Runyan, 1991). In the late 1970's studies on the impacts of tourism were introduced, concentrating on the nature of the relationships between tourism and the environment as documented by Krippendorf and Haulot (Dowling, 1992:35). Specific studies also enhanced the symbiosis between tourism and the environment (Budowski, 1976; Bosselman, 1978), followed by attempts of assessing the environmental impacts (Cohen, 1978).

During the first half of the 1980's, environmental concerns started to enjoy wider attention throughout the world by both environmental agencies and tourism-led bodies. Initially, the World Conservation Strategy was published by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN, 1980), then the Worldwatch Institute published a report called 'Sustainable Society' in 1981 (Kidd, 1992), followed by the establishment of the World Resources Institute in 1982, and the creation of the Environmental Department in the World Bank.

In terms of tourism, the co-operation between environmental and tourism issues were highlighted by the Manila Declaration, stating that tourism resources must be under the control of the countries (Edgell, 1990). The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), highlighted four types of environmental resources (OECD, 1980): the aquatic milieu; the natural milieu; architectural milieu; and the human milieu. Next, two non-government organisations stated the view that resources include the biosphere, the ecosystem which is used, as well as the human created environment and socio-economic aspects, these were also underlined in a variety of research studies (Dowling, 1992: 38-39).

During the second half of the 1980's, the transformation occurred from idealism to realism (Dowling, 1992), where the environment agenda attracted wider attention in Europe through its inclusion in the Single European Act, and worldwide acknowledgment came through the much published report 'Our Common Future' by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987). The end of this decade brought the first studies on sustainable development, sustainable tourism development, and alternative forms of tourism all reflecting three states of the tourism/environment relationship, that of the coexistence, conflict and symbiosis (Dowling, 1992: 40). It was during these years that sustainable tourism products emerged, such as ecotourism, placing this concept at the center of the re-orientation of tourism. In the decade of the 1990's, environmental issues became a much researched area throughout the globe, reflecting the integration of tourism and the environment (Dowling, 1992), with the terms sustainability, sustainable tourism development and eco-tourism being included as keywords in a vast array of research studies. This relationship between tourism and the environment is still at the equipoise state, meaning a conflict still exists between these two actors of the relationship (Dowling, 1992: 41).

With this in mind, the purpose of this review is to examine the concept of sustainability both from the environmental and tourism perspectives, and to assess the different policies and structures enveloping the debate within this concept. The review begins with the issues surrounding sustainability, followed by the initiatives of tourism's non-government led bodies, and it concludes with the issues of sustainable tourism development and sustainable tourism.

1.2 SUSTAINABILITY: OVERVIEW AND EVENTS

The roots of sustainable development branched out into six different perspectives which assisted with the transformation from the early idealism view, to the current realism stance of the importance of sustainability (Kidd, 1992; Pezzey, 1992; Mitlin, 1992):

- a) *Ecological/carrying capacity root*: deals with the physical phenomena such as population growth, land resources, socio-cultural resources and issues such as equity of economic cycles;
- b) *Resources/environmental root*: concerns the research instruments of the adequacy of resources and environmental quality;
- c) *Biosphere root*: focuses on the concerns over human activity and its impacts on the biosphere;
- d) *Technological root*: access to the technological movement, and its dehumanized and disorganized effects;
- e) *No-growth slow growth root*: concerns the era of growth theories, especially in terms of economics, and 'no-growth' philosophies in terms of resources used;
- f) *Ecodevelopment root*: refers to the research in the late 1970's, outlining the theories of ecodevelopment, especially in terms of harmonizing social and economic objectives in line with ecological management principles and the needs of future generations.

These roots primarily outlined the socio-environmental effects of the non-sustainable development era since the industrial revolution, and assessed the unsustainable practices which stemmed from the two-tier world system [rich versus poor countries] (Strong, 1997). These effects were captured in the early 1980's by the World Conservation Strategy (WCS), which illustrated that sustainability is a strategic approach to the integration of conservation and development, highlighting the following objectives (IUCN, 1980; Smith, 1993):

- a) Ecosystem management;
- b) Preservation of generic diversity;
- c) Utilization of resources.

Although certain critics protested that the WCS referred only to ecological resources rather than to sustainable development (Lele, 1991), it serves as a platform to the popularization of the concept at the latter stage. This was initially seen in the establishment of WCED in 1982 (Glasbergen and Gorvers, 1995; Smith, 1993), and its study on the assessment of environmental problems, known as the Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987). Here, sustainable development was defined as ‘a development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs’ (WCED, 1987: 43).

The Brundtland, or ‘Our Common Future’ report aimed to interrelate two main concepts: economic growth which is both forceful as well as socially and environmentally sustainable (WCED, 1987: 8). The study concluded that it is impossible to separate the issues of economic growth and the environment, as well as introducing the notion of widening the perspective of economic systems in an attempt to deal with environmental problems (WCED, 1987; Glasbergen and Gorvers, 1995; Welford, 1995: 6-7; Selman, 1996; Pearce et al, 1989; Pearce et al, 1990; 1993; Pezzey, 1992; Khan, 1995).

The major strength of sustainable development derived from the WCED ‘short definition’, is the development of a set of objectives demonstrating that sustainability is a powerful tool for consensus (Lele, 1991). More specifically, the premise of sustainable development incorporates an environmental-society link, which is based upon (Lele, 1991): environmental degradation, traditional development objectives; and a successful process of development.

However, others have claimed that the Brundtland Commission supported the idea of sustainability from more of a resource base, but not in terms of society, culture, and people (Strong, 1997). Although the *review on weaknesses of sustainability in terms of its implementation will be incorporated into the next section of this analysis*, one important point that surfaced was that although the Brundtland Commission’s proposals were practical, they were difficult to implement in the foreseeable future (Redclift, 1987; Davis, 1991). In particular, Redclift argued that sustainable development can only be achieved through political boundaries, and that environmental management is needed as a way to monitor social movement dedicated to environmental ends (Redclift, 1987). Davis suggested that there is a consensus of the

term 'sustainable development', as it allows the international community to debate modern development goals in a new and radical way (Davis, 1991).

Regardless of these weakness, sustainable development received wide acceptance during the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, in Brazil. Five core outcomes were a result of this conference (UN, 1992; 1993): a framework for the convention on climate change; the convention on biological diversity; forest principles; the Rio declaration on the environment and development; and Agenda 21. The latter action plan (Agenda 21) introduced more than 100 programs in the field of sustainable development, such as the Climate, Biodiversity and Forest issues (UN, 1992, 1993).

In overall terms, both the Brundtland Report and Agenda 21, provided the basic tenets for the debate on issues regarding sustainability. There was the inevitable debate on the nature of sustainability, in addition to the fact that its application took the form of a variety of Agendas in a variety of industrial sectors (i.e. Local, Global, Agenda 21 for Travel and Tourism etc.). In order to examine these issues, an overview of the general nature of sustainability is primarily considered followed by the effects of its application on tourism.

1.3 THE CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABILITY

An examination of the meaning and implications of the Brundtland Report's definition exposes certain constraints. Here, the dilemma arises as to whether to focus on the definitions of sustainability or to illustrate the issues implied by sustainability.

On this point, sustainability's elastic nature has been confirmed with the viewpoint that this theme has been engaged in a 'transcendent tenet' subject to frequent but imprecise usage (Brown et al, 1987). In contrast, Shearman (1990) suggested that the theme does not necessarily require clarification on the definitional perspective but rather on the operational one, which is the implication for any given context to which it is applied. He concluded that it is more appropriate to treat sustainability as a *concept and illustrate the issues implied by sustainability rather than the issues of sustainability* (p.3).

Further, the discussion of the different perceptions of sustainability (Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995; Mitlin, 1992; Khan, 1995; Pezzey, 1992; Clayton and Redcliffe,

1996), and its conceptual treatment are based on the issues of sustainability (Wilbanks, 1994; Jacobs, 1991; Peattie, 1992; Hunter, 1997). These issues have been independently debated (Dovers, 1995), but have also been interwoven with the 'core-meaning' (see table 1.1). However, in treating sustainability as a concept and aligned with its central idea in the Brundtland report, three main components can be detailed: *development, needs and future generations* (Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995; Brown et al, 1987; Rees, 1988, 1990; Daly, 1990; Dovers, 1990; Charter, 1992; Pearce et al, 1990, 1993).

1.3.1 The concept of development

Part of the debate within this concept has been its similarities with economic growth (Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995: 167-168; Dovers, 1990; Charter, 1992; Turner, 1988; Jacobs, 1991; Smith, 1993; Clayton and Redcliffe, 1996). The concept of economic growth has been treated as a procedure from which environmental protection can be achieved, and the latter should also be based on a balance of other human goals in order to achieve sustainable growth (ICC, 1990). It seems that environmental protection and economic growth are mutually compatible (Turner, 1988), as economic growth alone is insufficient for the purposes of development (Shearman, 1990), and development can be addressed only through the distribution of scarce resources (Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995).

The issue which surfaced at this stage is that, the compatibility of sustainable development with economic growth (Hunter, 1997: 852) may enhance human suffering (Shearman, 1990; Smith, 1993; Redclift, 1987). As growth has been treated synonymously with wealth, it was proposed that growth addressed more the cost, rather than the margin issues of the physical dimensions of the human economy (Daly, 1990; Smith, 1993). Perhaps the commitment to economic development, as opposed to the economic growth/welfare syndrome could be more appropriate (Jacobs, 1991; Healy and Shaw, 1993), as those who reject limitless economic growth mainly advocate a strong interpretation of sustainable development (Daly 1990; Hunter, 1997; Jacobs, 1991).

Table 1.1 Issues affecting the concept of sustainability

Issues
<p><u>Nature:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The preservation of resources used, ecological process, and biological diversity (land, water, energy, mineral, wild species, flora, fauna, domesticated species, etc.);• The distinct interpretation and the substitution efforts of the various components of the natural resource base and issues of pollution (marine, solid waste, air, climate change, land, soil etc.);• The meaning of the value attributed to the natural world and the needs/wants of non-human species, sentient or otherwise;• The application and the degree of co-operation in applied environmental monitoring programs, (environmental auditing etc.) in an attempt to achieve environmental protection;• The degree to which a system's (ecosystems) perspective should be adopted, and the importance of maintaining the functional integrity of ecosystems;• The effective existence of environmental limits to growth. <p><u>Society and Economy:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The use of the term economic growth or development in promoting human well-being;• The impact and significance of human population growth;• The degree of information provision on the environmental effects of economic activity;• The level of debt, trade, and poverty of the nations;• The state of human conditions in terms of security, food security, health, urbanization, and in terms of skills, and educational status.

Source: Peattie, 1992; Dovers, 1995; Hunter, 1997; Khan, 1995; Pezzey, 1992.

Even if the acceptance of economic development is taken into account, there is compelling evidence that economic development did not assist the majority of the less-wealthier Third World countries (Turner, 1988; Hunter, 1997; Smith, 1993). According to the Brundtland Report, the idea is that economic development should take place in Third World countries in order to meet basic needs (WCED, 1987). In all the cases however, the issue which remains unsolved in terms of the development perspective is related to achieving equitable growth, handling uneven development and the inseparable issue of inequality in order to meet both development and basic needs and wants (Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995).

1.3.2 The concept of needs

On examining the concept of needs, part of the debate is based on the issues of equity and distribution of resources (Fox, 1994; Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995; Clayton and Redcliffe, 1996). Theoretically equity highlights an attempt to meet 'basic needs' for the present otherwise known as intra-generational equity, and for the future which is inter-generational equity (Hunter, 1997; Healy and Shaw, 1993). Central to the debate at this stage is the exact procedure of achieving equity, distribution of human well-being (wealth), and conservation of resources both locally and globally and from the inter-generational equity perspective (Hunter, 1997; Healy and Shaw, 1993; Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995).

Although, inevitably there is commitment to the latter principles, the debate takes an alternative view that this should also take into account the distribution of the costs/benefits of the social/economic/environmental triangle which stem from the usage of resources (Fox, 1994; Hunter, 1997; Charter, 1992; Jacobs, 1991; Smith, 1993; Clayton and Redcliffe, 1996). Within all this content, the commitment to equity should also incorporate the invisible needs/wants of non-human species, all assisting in their long term existence (Hunter, 1997).

Moreover, based on the Brundtland's Report principles, 'sustainable development requires meeting the basic needs of all, and extending to all the opportunity to satisfy their aspirations for a better life' (WCED, 1987: 44). On this point it was claimed that the term "basic needs" is a relative concept, since in the industrialized or First World countries products once regarded as 'luxuries' are now seen as 'necessities' (Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995: 168). It follows that as material standards have improved, capital consumption and pollution levels have risen. On the other hand, in poorer countries meeting basic needs exerts pressure on the environment and degrades resources (Lele, 1991; Smith, 1993; Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995; Hunter, 1997). This imbalance was termed as a 'prevailing pattern of world inequality' indicated by measures of poverty, debt starvation and out-migration (Smith, 1993: 3; Lele, 1991; Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995). Although this pattern is commonly known as the 'North-South' rule (Smith, 1993; Lele, 1991), it not only includes issues of short-term development and prosperity versus poverty, but involves deeper issues of distribution

and allocation of resources, all of which are necessary to accomplish intra-generational equity and sustainable development (Smith, 1993: 4; Hunter, 1997: 854).

For example, the International Academy on the Environment, conducted a survey in Africa, South Pacific, Central America, and Asia (Barberis, 1993a, b). In particular in India, Bangladesh and Myanmar, the negative environmental impacts were a ramification of high population density (Barberis, 1993a, b). In Central America the pressures of a growing population and the need for economic expansion led to unsustainable exploitation of forest resources (Barberis, 1993a, b). In the South Pacific the problems facing resources are outlined by risks such as a rise in sea level, fragility of fresh water lenses, and strong reliance on the natural environment for economic growth (Barberis, 1993a, b). Finally, in Africa the problems primarily stem from desertification, where the population places significant pressures on resources, and inappropriate land use causes soil erosion (Barberis, 1993a, b).

The study concluded that there is a need to: re-examine the population/growth resources balance; correct the wasteful use of resources; and seek optimal population growth and distribution patterns in an integrated approach towards sustainability (Barberis, 1993a, b).

However, the side-effect of this aim, is that for poor countries it can only be achieved by 'adherence to the constant natural assets rule' (Pearce et al, 1989; Hunter, 1997), as distribution of resources and productivity is essential to such populations. In addition, the associated environmental degradation creates a more direct impact on well-being in poor countries than in industrialised or rich areas of the world (Smith, 1993: 4; Lele, 1991; Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995; Hunter, 1997).

In overall terms, the core argument within the concept of needs is that both extreme resource exploitation and resource preservation positions ignore principles of intra-generational equity (Hunter, 1997). Here the exploitation of resources and distribution of socio-economics, in addition to development costs and benefits is mainly unessential, benefiting the First rather than the Third World countries (Turner, 1988; 1991; Shiva, 1989; Hunter, 1997). Resources preservation is associated with low-patterns of economic growth which affects Third world countries who meet their needs through economic growth (Turner, 1988; 1991; Hunter, 1997). Here, both views have been criticized on the basis that they do not carry enough ecological and socially

equitable criteria, and that these criteria are dictated by a number of external factors such as political or personal preference (Lele, 1991). In addition, irrespective to the recognition that Third World countries should search for economic growth in order to meet their equity standards (WCED, 1987), the way to handle these issues in industrialized countries still remains a mystery.

The question which generally exists is: Is economic growth a necessity in industrialized countries, as their basic needs are already met? Here, the current view is that in order to meet the sustainable criteria, the standards of living in First World countries have to be minimized, in order to position global consumption at a sustainable level (Brundtland, 1994: 244).

Alternatively, the industrialised nations have to reduce their environmental resource usage and simultaneously assist the poor nations to meet sustainable patterns of growth (Lele, 1991; Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995). Conversely, the First World nations endeavor to promote the idea of shared responsibility (Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995: 168), so that all contribute to ensure equitable resource usage and preservation. Although this raises the issue of responsibility, the actual implementation of this principle in order to meet equity requirements remains debatable. This is based on concrete evidence that the total aid from the First World to Third World countries declined in 1995 (People and Planet, 1997: 4). The figures showed that in 1995 (total aid: \$59 billion), there was a decrease of 9%, as fourteen out of the twenty-one countries reduced their aid below the agreed level of 0.7 per cent of their gross domestic product (People and Planet, 1997).

Instead of commitment, the new term which exists at the World Bank is that of 'participation' (Narayan, 1996). Within this context, participation is defined as a 'process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affect them' (Narayan, 1996: 17). The World Bank have proclaimed the pitfalls of their approach in the past, and have outlined 'three lessons' to change its operation: new values and behavior; new tools and capacities; and new ways of doing business (Narayan, 1996: 17-19). In all the cases, the effectiveness of this new word is to be tested in the forthcoming years, by outlining if the equity meets both present and future generations needs and wants.

1.3.3 The concept of future generations

The concept of future generations deals with the issues of income and capital bequests (Pearce et al, 1989; 1990; 1993; Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995; Clayton and Redcliffe, 1996). The first theme suggests that the income of future generations should not be made less than that of present generations, through actions taken by present generations (Pearce et al, 1989; 1990; 1993; Bartelmus, 1994; Bayliss and Walker, 1996). It is believed that the latter group have economic obligations and raises certain issues of inequality, all highlighted in the previously examined concepts of development and needs. The current conclusion of this theme attests the requirement of equality to occur between individual's of the current generation, unless inequality disadvantages no one (Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995; Brown et al, 1987; Dovers, 1990; Charter, 1992; Pearce et al, 1989; 1990; 1993, Bartelmus, 1994; Bayliss and Walker, 1996).

Capital bequests involves two interpretations of the resources capital (Hunter, 1995a). Firstly, that of the mechanism to which the current generation transfer to their future counterparts a stock of resources capital, no less than its existing capacity of stock (Pearce et al, 1989, 1990, 1993; Bartelmus, 1994; Bayliss and Walker, 1996). The debate in the ground of this theme is not resolved through the definitional description of capital (the man-made, natural, and human types), or the so-called 'aggregate capital stock of a nation', but through the handling procedures of such capital (Pearce et al, 1993: 15). Basically, this approach values the natural resources in monetary terms (Pearce et al, 1989), where a form of development which damages the natural environment follows the principles of sustainable development only 'if the wealth created resultant built assets are of greater 'value' than the pre-existing natural environment' (Hunter, 1995a: 61). At this point, although the argument has mainly focused on the role of the natural environment and the relationships between the natural and human types, in terms of capital assets given to future generations (Pearce et al, 1993; Bartelmus, 1994; Bayliss and Walker, 1996), in practice this interpretation does not follow the principles of sustainable development (Hunter, 1995a).

The second interpretation concerns only the theme of the so-called '*constant natural assets rule*' based on the principles of: no-substitutability; uncertainty; irreversibility;

and equity (Pearce et al, 1989; 1990; 1993; Hunter, 1995a). Here, the broad rule focused on the issue that the present generation does not 'own' the natural resource base, and as such they do not have the right to pollute or limit the resources (Pearce et al, 1989; Hunter, 1995a; Bayliss and Walker, 1996). Next, this issue raised the view that if one natural area is polluted in some part of the world, this should be imminently replaced or compensated with another area (Hunter, 1995a). Although this has been criticized on the basis that it is more appropriate to preserve rather than compensate a given area, simultaneously it raised issues of the methodology of monitoring in the form of environmental impact assessment, cost-benefit analysis (Pearce et al, 1989; Hunter, 1995a) and environmental auditing (Diamantis and Westlake, 1997; Goodall, 1992; 1994; Stabler and Goodall, 1993). In addition it implies a meaningful management of stocks, flows and balances of environmental assets, where there are a lot of limitations in the methodology and management models (Bayliss and Walker, 1996: 90).

Based on these limitations, certain sustainability conditions have emerged to illustrate the suitable bequests to future generations for the purpose of maintaining incomes, that of *weak and strong sustainable conditions* (Hunter, 1995a; 1997; Pearce et al, 1993; Bartelmus, 1994; Healy and Shaw, 1993; Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995; Collins, 1996).

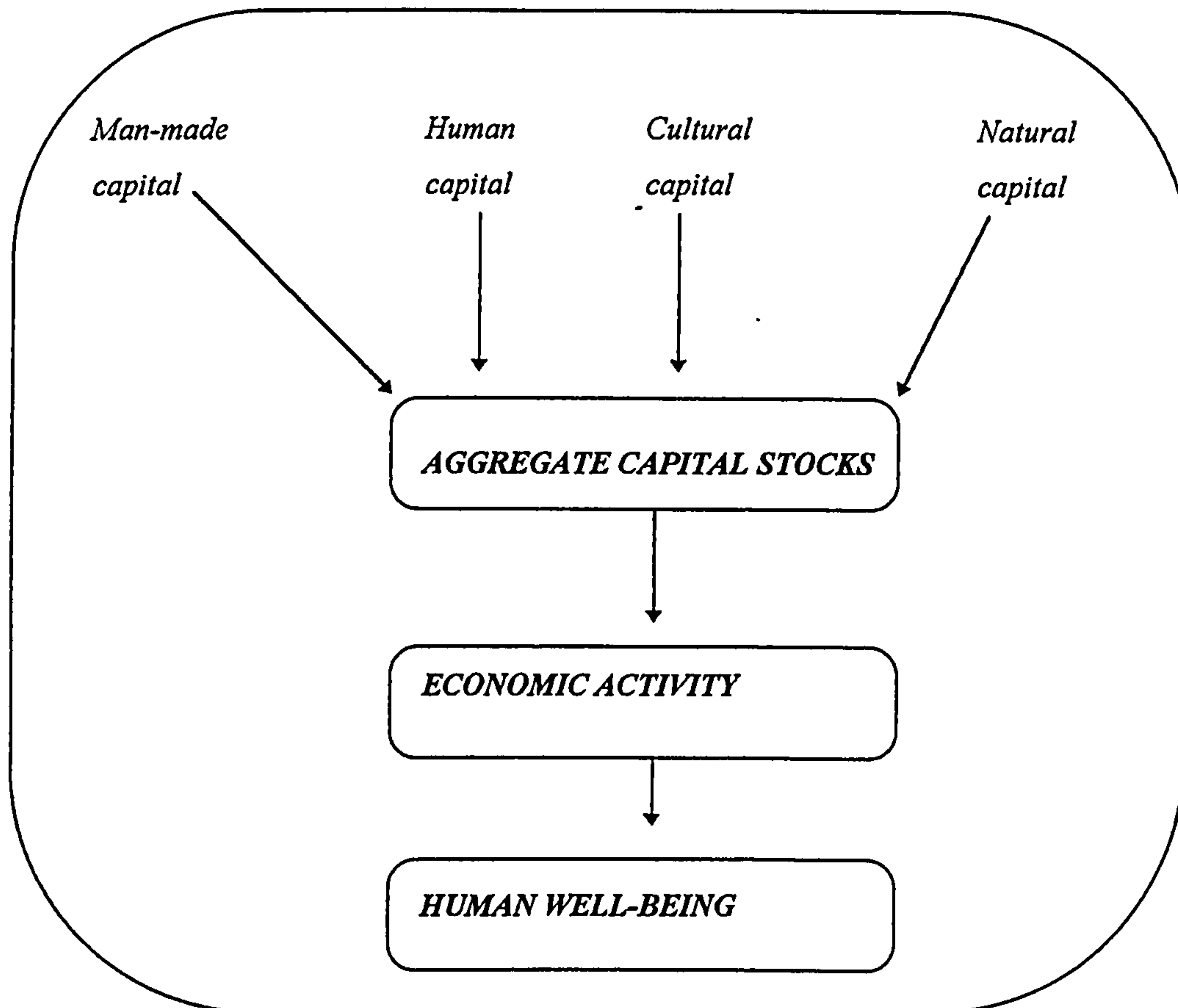
1.4 TYPES OF SUSTAINABILITY

Advocates of weak sustainability conditions are optimistic for the future, as they suggest that substitution of man-made capital for natural resources and for environmental quality is acceptable (Hunter, 1995a; 1997; Pearce et al, 1993). On a similar vein, the accumulation of man-made capital, especially if combined with efforts to sustain technological progress and improve human capital through education (Bartelmus, 1994), is a suitable bequest for maintaining the income of future generations (Pearce et al, 1993). It represents a *resource exploitative rule* in that 'provided that the net quantity of the capital stock is conveyed from one generation to the next, the conditions of sustainable development are satisfied' (Selman, 1996: 12). In other words, the situation where one form of capital can be substituted by another

form without any loss of human well-being, hence meeting the ‘constant capital rule’ (Pearce et al, 1989; Fyall and Garrod, 1997). Next, from the view of strong sustainability conditions, considerable effort should be made to maintain the existing natural resources and environmental stock (Pearce et al 1993; Selman, 1996; Hunter, 1995a; 1997; Collins, 1996). This does not necessarily imply that no economic change is permitted which utilises the natural environment, rather it suggests that environmental policies should be instituted (Pearce et al 1993; Selman, 1996; Hunter, 1995a; 1997). Here, it is noted that traditional receipts of economic growth ultimately lead to economic disaster, which stems from the view that man-made capital is always a suitable substitute for natural environmental capital (Pearce et al 1993; Selman, 1996; Hunter, 1997). The strong sustainability principle is that of a cautious approach in reducing the stock of natural environmental capital, otherwise known as the *resource preservationist rule* (Pearce et al, 1993). In other words, the situation where natural capital can not be substituted by any other form of capital, except by a form of natural capital. Here, both the aggregate and natural capital stock must be at least constant as they are transferred from one generation to the next (Pearce et al, 1993; Fyall and Garrod, 1997) [see figure 1.1]. At this stage, although there is an agreement between these two types, certain limitations were highlighted on the spectrum of its practical implementation, especially on issues regarding the willingness of the incremental loss of natural capital, and of the application of the ‘environmentally unconstrained patterns of growth’ (Selman, 1996: 13).

Furthermore, alongside the principle of the strong/weak sustainability view, Turner et al (1994) expanded into four main types: very weak sustainability position; weak sustainability position; strong sustainability position; and very strong sustainability position. In this case both weak and strong sustainability conditions were kept intact, and the new terms were defined based on an extreme rule (Turner et al, 1994; Hunter, 1997: 852-853). The very weak sustainability was seen as ‘extreme traditional resource exploitative’, and the very strong sustainability was termed as ‘extreme preservationist’ (Turner et al, 1994; Hunter, 1997: 852).

Figure 1.1 Capital stocks and human well being



Source: Fyall and Garrod, 1997: 56

On this point Hunter suggested, that due to the lack of implementation at the extreme levels of the sustainability's condition, this gives rise to the widespread agreement in defining sustainable development (1997: 852). He further criticized that the rejection of the extreme paradigms, due to the lack of definition given in attempting to become more environmentally conscious, and the lack of vision to become more extreme resource preservationist (Hunter, 1997: 852). He concluded, that it is advisable to treat sustainability as a concept with a variety of scenarios, (*in his case in sustainable tourism development*), rather than to attempt to define the concept from a restrictive perspective (Hunter, 1997).

In sum, the concept of future generations suggested that both the capital bequests and income concepts require flexibility and a diversity of scenarios, otherwise the search for sustainable development will be passed on to future generations instead of any equitable capital transfers from the current generation.

Finally, the examination of sustainability suggested that its treatment is based on the implications of sustainability as a concept rather than focusing on the definitional perspective. Although the adoption of treating sustainability as a concept has been claimed as more appropriate (Shearman, 1990; Smith, 1993; Wilbanks, 1994; Jacobs, 1991; Peattie, 1992; Hunter, 1997), the next stage of the debate focuses on the attempts made to develop a conceptual framework of sustainability and its policy issues (Barbier, 1987; Shearman, 1990; Court, 1990; Macnaghten et al , 1997; Dovers, 1990; 1995; Blowers and Glasbergen, 1995).

1.4.1 Alternative conceptual approaches and evaluation

There were a number of attempts since sustainability articulation to develop a sound conceptual approach based on a framework of goals for its development (Cocklin, 1989). In particular, Barbier (1987: 103) identified three systems within the overall objective of maximizing goal achievement across the system simultaneously through trade-offs:

- a) · The biological or ecological resources system;
- b) The economic system;
- c) Social system.

The biological or ecological resources system goals, include attempts to minimize the effects of generic diversity, resilience, and biological productivity whereas the economic goals focus on the increased production of goods and services, minimizing poverty and improving equity (Barbier, 1987). On the other hand, the social system goals involved the theme of cultural diversity, social justice, and gender equality. In addition, Barbier suggested that tradeoffs among goals must be adaptive due to the changing notion of individual preferences, social norms and ecological conditions (1987). He further proposed that goals have a changing nature as the scale of the systems is extended from local to regional to national, and even to global levels. Consequently, sustainable development goals pursued at national level may be different from those advocated at a local level (Barbier, 1987: 105-110).

In contrast, Court (1990) argues that the goals of sustainable development should be recast in a more discerning theoretical framework and offered six principles of sustainability.

These principles should be taken into account in the event of determining the exact nature of development projects into the environmental, economic and cultural sustainability spectrum (Court, 1990: 135-136):

- a) Development growth should be within the locality and not be forced from the outside;
- b) Development should be compatible with and restore environmental, economic, cultural diversity and rely on the sustainable use of resources;
- c) Development should provide the basic necessities of life, security, equity, and avoid-unequal exchange;
- d) Development should foster self-reliance, empowerment, and local control over resources;
- e) Development should be peaceful both in terms of non-use of physical violence (direct type) and violence as embodied in the society's institutions (structural type); and
- f) Development must allow for limitations without endangering the integrity of the immediate ecosystems and resource base.

In comparing the latter two cases of development, Court's approach is based on an assessment of development, but it lacks coherent support especially regarding the future generations concept of sustainability. These guidelines were very vague and raised more issues of how to achieve these goals, rather than offering conclusive remarks. Barbier's system is appropriate as far as development issues are concerned, what it fails to show is that in real terms this approach cannot possibly be implemented on the basis of maximizing all the goals simultaneously. Inevitably, this raises certain issues of potential conflict between inter-and intra-system goals and the need of choices among the goals which are more valuable and which should receive higher priority (Redclift and Sage, 1994; Cocklin, 1989). In addition, emphasis was also placed on the distinction between sustainability goals and societal objectives, and the

compatibility of sustainability goals with other managerial goals and objectives (Cocklin, 1989: 349).

Based on these limitations, recent issues on sustainability measurement incorporated the use of *environmental indicators* (OECD; 1991a, b; 1994; Keddy et al, 1993). The environmental indicators are the instrumental tools for measuring environmental performance, and provide an essential component for an assessment of the progress towards sustainability (OECD, 1991a, b; 1994; Moldan et al, 1997; Keddy et al, 1993; Diamantis and Westlake, 1997; Diamantis, 1997). Although the definition of environmental indicators is at its infancy stage (Keddy et al, 1993; Moldan et al 1997; Callopin, 1997; Hardi, 1997), there is evidence where indicators are used as a core element in the conceptual foundation of sustainability (Macnaghten et al, 1997). In particular Macnaghten et al (1997: 152) suggested that the current state of the research into sustainability illustrates that the desired state of the concept can be achieved through a three stage process (see figure 1.2):

- a) the present unsustainable situation;
- b) the new mechanism and relations based on the utilization of environmental indicators are used to maintain the current position; and
- c) the sustainable state can be achieved through the mechanism cited within the latter category.

Although the model is based on very broad principles, it summarizes effectively the implications of sustainability. Here, the limitation that exists concerns the effectiveness and credibility of the model's mechanism and relationship for action (Macnaghten, 1997). The limitations of this model are based on issues surrounding the usage of environmental indicators, as there is not a uniform methodology for environmental indicators selection (Bayliss and Walker, 1996; Brugman, 1997: 59; Moldan et al, 1997; Diamantis, 1997).

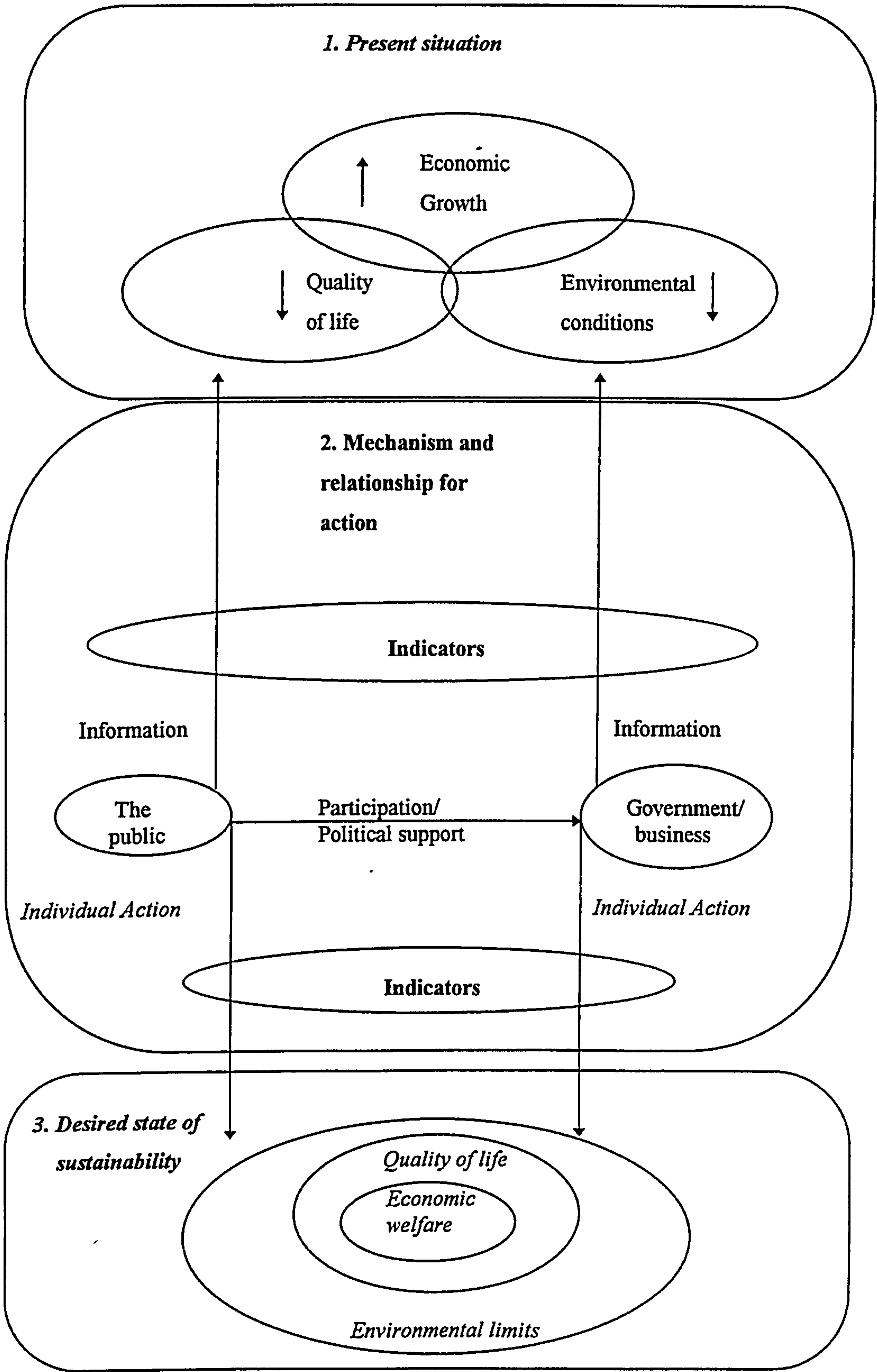
Despite the fact that this confusion exists, on the contradictory objectives in some case studies (Brugman, 1997; Copus and Crabtree, 1996), the examined model of sustainability (see figure 1.2) introduces the concept of assessment with the assistance of indicators. In contrast to the latter approach (the utilization of indicators), other

studies comprise the usage of several attributes (Smith, 1993; Dovers, 1990; 1995). Here, the incorporation of attributes were seen mainly in solving policy problems, rather than conceptualizing any model of sustainability (Dovers, 1995).

Nevertheless, they represent the current trend of quantifying the limitations of sustainability at the concrete level, rather than focusing on very broad concepts. In this case, the attributes were divided into the so-called: problem-framing attributes; and response-framing attributes (Dovers, 1990, 1995). The former type includes six different sets of scientific attributes and the latter type outlines five attributes which serve to inform the nature of the appropriate policy response (Dovers, 1995). Overall, the operationalization of attributes to tackle the constraints of sustainability offers an alternative scenario to that of indicators. This alternative pathway or flexibility of strategies is at the center ground of understanding the concept of sustainability (Hunter, 1997). This is the notion of a more focused and scoping approach in order to advance the knowledge of selecting the most appropriate alternative, based on the different social, economic and ecological settings (Dovers 1995; Hunter, 1997).

Within this approach, the concept of sustainability becomes more an adaptive paradigm, rather than focusing explicitly on its issues and definitions, and improves the debate on the methodologies for forming the desired state of sustainability.

Figure 1.2 Model of sustainability and the role for indicators



Source: Macnaghten et al, 1997: 152

1.5 THE CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABILITY WITHIN THE FIELD OF TOURISM

The articulation of the concept of sustainability in the tourism agenda contains both the theoretical contradiction over certain terms, as well as the realism of the importance of this concept. Its application within tourism spans all over the globe, a clear indication that the concept attracted wide attention within non-government industry led- bodies over the recent years (WTO, 1996, 1997; EC, 1995).

Before the actual debate scenarios will be illustrated, one of the widely-used definitions within this spectrum of the debate is that sustainable tourism development focused on 'leading to management of all resources in such a way that we can fulfill economic, social, and aesthetic needs, while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems' (Tourism Canada cited in Murphy, 1994: 279).

The effective adoption of sustainable development in general, according to the World Tourism Organisation (WTO), is to upgrade the quality of life of the local population and the experience which tourists determine should be on the quality element, as well as to support the environmental resources which the tourism system consumes (WTO, 1993, 1997). As a result, the sustainable implementation of sustainable development necessitates the duties of the tourism industry, environmental supporters and community or the three 'cycles' to be interrelated (WTO, 1993). The latter should also be based on three main principles of sustainable development (WTO, 1993: 10; Mowforth and Munt, 1998: 105-111):

- a) Ecological sustainability demonstrates that development is compatible with the maintenance of essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and biological resources;
- b) Social and cultural sustainability suggests that development increases people's control over their lives, is compatible with the culture and values of people affected by it, and maintains and strengthens community identity; and
- c) Economic sustainability ensures that development is economically efficient and that resources are managed so that they can support future generations.

In addition, research has been initiated into the concept of indicators of sustainable tourism as an early warning system for the generation of impacts from tourism. Although this research represents initial attempts to select appropriate indicators, two main themes of indicators were introduced for tourism practitioners (WTO, 1995a, b):

- a) *Core indicators*: tourism demand driven indicators such as site protection, waste management, social impacts, development control, use intensity; and
- b) *Destination specific indicators*: indicators related to the different ecosystems and site-specific management issues.

Another framework appeared in the form of Agenda 21 for travel and tourism (WTTC/WTO/EC, 1995). Agenda 21 outlines 12 guiding principles for sustainable tourism development (see table 1.2), nine action steps for the public sector and ten priority areas for the private sector. Its general principles suggested that: tourism products must contain sustainable elements; and the public sector has to ensure the progress of achieving sustainable development.

Next, at the European Community level, the Fifth Action Program 'Towards sustainability' targets five main sectors, one of which is tourism (Richards, 1996; McGregor, 1996; Bromley, 1997). Very briefly the idea of the Community's program is that of '*shared responsibility*' based on three strategies (EC, 1995):

- a) the reporting on the pressures and effects on the environment of tourism practices;
- b) the emphasis to the awareness-led campaigns in order to promote an environmentally-friendly use of tourism resources, including the means of transport to and from tourist resorts; and
- c) the promotion of the implementation of innovative good practices in the field of sustainable tourism development.

The latter principles have also been recognized in the 'Green Paper on Tourism' (EC, 1995). This paper focused explicitly on the creation of the positive relationship between economy and ecology. Here, the focus is that the attractiveness of tourism destinations or the economic basis of tourism, depends on the conservation and

management of natural and cultural resources. The broad strategies capture the themes of (EC, 1995): tourism well-being; protection of resources; the impulse for the growth and more competitive organizations; and assessment of the costs surrounding the resources usage in terms of tourism.

These initiatives, which are only a sample of a vast array of frameworks around the globe, highlight the extent to which there is an awareness among non-government bodies to issues of sustainability. The transformation of the issues of sustainability within tourism, however, created a situation where most of the approaches became *extremely 'tourism-centric'* partially divorced from the main principles of the concept of sustainability (Hunter, 1995a, b; 1997; Collins, 1996). In particular the utilization of the concept of sustainable development in tourism captures the following issues (Hunter, 1995b):

- a) *the issue of equity of the local community in terms of living standards and quality of life;*
- b) *satisfy the tourists and tourism industry demands;*
- c) *a pot-pourri approach based on the latter two aims in an attempt to safeguard the environmental resource base of tourism (natural, built, and cultural aspects);*
- d) *maintenance or enhancement of the competitiveness of the tourism industry;*
- e) *strong and/or weak sustainability positions; and*
- f) *sustainable development and/or sustainable tourism*

The grassroots of this emphasis within tourism arose from the focus which to some practitioners concerned the sustainability of products and/or segments, while to others it was a process of development, and to some others it was a principle which should be adopted by all tourism (Godfrey, 1996). Alternatively, the concept of sustainability seems to be a mediate term, bridging the gap between the developer and the environmentalist (McKercher, 1993; Fyall and Garrod, 1997: 53). The former practitioners are searching for resource exploitation and growth, while the latter practitioners are only looking for resource preservation (Fyall and Garrod, 1997). In addition, the application of sustainability within tourism takes the form of either a tool used for its long term survival in attempt to enhance the profitability performance of

its operations, or a tool used to maintain the resource base of the tourism enterprises in order to generate more tourism demand (Stabler, 1997). In general terms however, the consensus which generally exists is that there are two approaches within the application of the concept of sustainability in tourism, that *of sustainable development and of sustainable tourism* (Butler, 1993; 1997; Wall, 1997; Hunter, 1997).

Table 1.2 *The guiding principles for tourism- Agenda 21*

<i>No</i>	<i>Principles</i>
1.	Travel and tourism assists people in leading healthy and productive lives in harmony with nature
2.	Tourism should contribute to the conservation, protection and restoration of the Earth's ecosystem
3.	Travel and tourism should be based upon sustainable patterns of production and consumption
4.	Nations should cooperate to promote an open economic system in which international trade in travel and tourism services can take place on a sustainable basis
5.	Protectionism in trade and tourism services should be halted or reversed
6.	Tourism, peace, development and environmental protection are interdependent
7.	In order to achieve sustainable development, environmental protection shall constitute an integral part of the tourism development process
8.	Tourism development issues should be handled with the participation of concerned citizens, with planning decisions adopted at local level
9.	Nations shall warn one another of natural disasters that could affect tourists or tourist areas
10.	Since the full participation of women is necessary to achieve sustainable development, advantage should be taken of travel and tourism's capacity to create employment for women
11.	Tourism development should recognize and support the identity, culture and interests of indigenous peoples
12.	International laws protecting the environment should be respected by the worldwide travel and tourism industry

Source: WTTC/WTO/EC, 1995

1.6 THE CONCEPT OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The concept of sustainable tourism development is mainly divided into two general schools of thought, the *product* and *the industry approaches* (Godfrey, 1996: 61). The former school represents the literature on sustainable tourism development or sustainable tourism, where sustainability is seen as an alternative to mass tourism. For example, a supporter of the product approach is Lane (1994) where his concept of rural tourism includes:

- a) embedding of tourism in a wider functioning economy;
- b) respect for local cultural traditions;
- c) usage of local products which enhances a sense of place;
- d) employment of local people which enhances their self-esteem;
- e) operation at an acceptable environmental level; and
- f) the empowerment of local people.

Generally speaking the *product approach* mainly illustrates three general themes: research on the general concepts; research on the development strategies; and research on tourism behavior (Godfrey, 1996: 62). To elaborate further, research on general concepts outlines the issues where: mass rapid development is replaced with slow development; uncontrolled mass development is replaced with controlled development; and mass short term development is replaced with long term development (Godfrey, 1996: 62). Further, examples of the changing attitude on development strategies outlines that firstly, mass development without planning is replaced with planning, and secondly that mass development by outsiders is replaced with local development. An example of the changing manner of consumer behavior illustrates that: mass tourism high volume trips were replaced with low-volume travel; and that mass tourists propensity not to undertake repeat visits to destinations changed with repeat visits (Godfrey, 1996: 62). The industry approach represents the literature in which its practitioners argue that mass tourism is inevitable, and as such the attempts should be made to make all tourism more sustainable (Godfrey, 1996). For example, a supporter of the industry approach is Inskip (1991), who used tourism planning as a tool for national and local resources management, in which:

- a) sustainable development can be utilized at any scale of tourism development;
- b) applied in different resort types (i.e. large and limited size resorts);
- c) the successful implementation and effectiveness of planning is based on the area's specific characteristics (i.e. environment, economy, society); and
- d) both demand and supply tourism components are balanced in order to maintain the social and environmental objectives (xviii).

Generally speaking the *industry's approach* aims to reform the tourism enterprises, and issues of mass tourism development through: a comprehensive, systematic, integrative, community-orientated, renewable, and goal implemented attitude (Godfrey, 1996: 63). The major constraint with both these schools of thought is that they represent illusive statements rather than actual cases of meeting sustainability's specifications. The product approach has been criticized on the basis of misleading comparisons between mass versus alternative tourism, and rural tourism versus sustainable tourism (Godfrey, 1996; Slee et al, 1997). The same holds true with the industry approach based on the views expressed on the issue of needs, type of resources, clarity of the term conservation and feasibility of destinations to apply sustainable development (Butler, 1997; Wall, 1997; Hunter, 1995a, b; 1997).

More specifically, sustainable development is concerned with the issues of quality, both from the locals and the tourists perspectives through economic development (Hunter, 1995a, b; Hunter 1997; Pigram and Wahab, 1997). The latter form of development should also take into account the conservation/preservation of resources (Hunter, 1995a, b; Hunter 1997). Although sustainable development constitutes the old principle of conservation and stewardship, it details a more pro-active stance (Murphy, 1994: 275). Alternatively, sustainable development has been seen as a component of tourism asset management, where development *guarantees* the integrity of resources and economic viability (Godfrey, 1996: 62-63). Further, sustainable development has been defined as 'tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community, environment) in such a manner, and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period, and does not degrade or alter the environment (human and physical)

in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of other activities and process' (Butler, 1993: 29).

Butler is the main critic of sustainable development, stating that it is necessary to define and manage the base of sustainability (1993; 1991; 1997; Wall, 1997). In particular, any movement towards sustainable development of tourism should include the coordination of policies, proactive planning, acceptance of limitations, education of all groups, and a commitment to long range planning (Butler, 1991). He identified four possible solutions to reduce the pressure and associated impacts of tourism on destinations, especially with regard to sustainable development. These solutions included: reducing the number of tourists at overused sites and limiting visitations to sites before they reach critical levels; changing the type of tourists from 'mass' to 'alternative'; changing the resource to be a more resilient resource; and educating all the actors responsible for tourism (Butler, 1991). However, he states that these tasks face certain limitations due to the following reasons (1996a, 1997: 120-121):

- a) the lack of understanding of the needs of the present and future generations;
- b) 'old' destinations face difficulties in becoming sustainable due to their pre-existing structure;
- c) the form of development is not to make 'new' development sustainable but to attempt to make existing development and destinations sustainable;
- d) the exceeded carrying capacities of tourism destinations have placed them in a situation where they are unable to meet the equity standards without any re-development; and
- e) redevelopment and regeneration of development is more appropriate than small scale sustainable development strategies.

On a similar vein, Wall (1997) suggested that the concept of sustainable development is based on the criticism of identification of a responsible body who decides if the development is sustainable. He particularly expanded on Butler's definition, by suggesting that tourism is not the only activity which consumes resources, and a balance must be formed within the other sectors, hence the *trade-off scenario* must be implemented (Wall, 1997: 45) or *trade-off tourism* (Collins, 1996), or the *view to reflect its multidimensional characteristics* (Wahab, 1997: 137).

Furthermore, Wall addressed the concern of re-conceptualizing the concept of development on the basis that sustainable development is an adaptive paradigm among the tourism destinations, capturing the issues of economic viability; environmental sensitivity; and cultural orientation (1997: 46). Similarly, sustainable development has also been seen as a process of balances or the development triangle between economy, environment and society (Farrell, 1992: 116). He added that, although the goal of sustainability is concrete, there are elements which make the concept elusive (Farrell, 1992: 119). This idea of geometrical figures capturing the concept of sustainable tourism development has been enhanced by the 'magic pentagon', in which a balance must exist between (Muller, 1994: 132-133): economic health; subjective well-being of locals; unspoiled nature, protection of resources; healthy culture; and optimum satisfaction of guest requirements.

However, in the context of illustrating the confusion in sustainable development literature, consider for example the case where researchers have only expanded in one aspect of Muller's pentagon (consumers), as opposed to a 'balance among five factors' and raised the issue of consumption, based on the notion that 'tourists are consumers and not anthropologists' (Sharpley and Sharpley, 1997: 233). These author's argument that sustainable development is based on the protection of both the physical and social-cultural environment, and the reliance on the ability to change tourists' needs and behavior (Sharpley and Sharpley, 1997: 241), clearly reinforces the view of the '*tourism centric*' approach within the application of sustainability to tourism (Hunter, 1995a, b; Hunter, 1997). The latter example is much more appropriate in the 'green tourism marketing agenda' than it is in sustainable development, and this highlights the confusion which exists in tourism sustainable development literature.

In returning to Muller's and Farrell's approaches, their views have not been criticized on the issue of balanced development (Hunter, 1997: 857). Here, the argument that exists is that there is not a clear interpretation of the issues regarding protection of the environment, as the terms 'protection', 'conservation' and 'preservation' are advocated in the literature simultaneously (Hunter, 1997). In addition, Godfrey's definition of sustainable development raises the issue of the type of resources used (natural, capital, renewable or non-renewable) and the lack of detail and clarity (Hunter, 1997).

Similarly, as with Farrell's and Muller's approaches to sustainable development, Cronin is also a supporter of the balance development (1990). Cronin's approach, however, focused explicitly on the concepts of equity from the intra-generational aspect and balance and integrative planning, in that 'sustainable tourism development consists of finding the balance between a degree or type of development that will bring economic and other benefits to a community, and the point at which that development starts to feed on rather than sustain the very elements at its basis' (1990: 15).

Cronin advocates that sustainable tourism development must follow ethical principles that respect the culture and the environment of the host area, the economy, the traditional way of life, the indigenous people, and the leadership of political parties (1990: 12-13). It follows that the concept of equity should recognize the contribution that people, communities, customs and lifestyles make to the tourism experience (Cronin, 1990). This implies that people must share in both the benefits and costs for the present and future, through a committed partnership between the local population and government bodies, in turn this lays the grounds for the search of 'true sustainable development and use' (Cronin, 1990). This can be achieved via a ten-step action plan, as follows (1990: 16-17):

- Designation of a coordinating individual or agency;
- Development of an information/awareness program;
- Development and use of integrated planning models to deal properly with new tourism projects;
- Design new tourism products or programs that are environmentally sensitive;
- Assessment of existing tourism development from a sustainable development perspective with a view to identify problems and analyze causes in order to devise appropriate solutions;
- Broadening and strengthening the information base for decision-making purposes;
- Development of a code of ethics by the tourism industry;
- Development, where necessary, and dissemination of guidelines among memberships of international organisations;
- Development of an educational program for tourism; and

- Creation of a tourism program with each nation, aimed at achieving international cooperation.

These issues raised by Cronin, especially over the needs of the present and future generations (equity), are essentially important to the concept of sustainable tourism development (Hunter, 1995a; Nepal, 1997; Pigram and Wahab, 1997). Although meeting equity has been dealt with from a variety of perspectives, even from the travel distribution technologies (Milne and Nowosielski, 1997), at this stage the concern is to outline the appropriate balance between the creation of benefits for the present generation and the protection of resources for the future generation, without disadvantaging the poor (Hunter, 1995a: 71).

1.6.1 Issues of sustainable tourism development

A number of limitations have arisen concerning the general search for sustainable development within tourism. Firstly, the issue of *geographical equity*, in that whether the focus is specifically on the destinations or on a particular tourist resort, it has to take into consideration the implication of such equity issues in a general geographical context (Hunter, 1995b). The danger which exists is that sustainable tourism development is a supporter of passing on the constraints of development to other provinces of the region, as opposed to dealing with the problems 'in situ' and addressing them in a wider or sub-national context (Hunter, 1995a: 75; Hunter, 1995b: 159; McGregor, 1996). Although this is primarily emphasized on the platform that sustainable development literature is deficient on the issue of scale (Hunter, 1995b), it further outlines that sustainable tourism development should contribute to sustainable development of the region rather than divorce itself (Hunter, 1995a, b; 1997; Butler, 1996a, b; 1997; Wall, 1997; Cronin, 1990). This can be achieved through 'a strategic co-ordination and enforcement on a spatially extensive basis, whether community or government led' (Collins, 1996).

Secondly, sustainable tourism development also has to abort the notion of '*single-sector tourism development planning*' (Hunter, 1995b:162; Wall, 1997). Here, the concern is that this development is extremely tourism-centric rather than mutual

sustainability-centric (Hunter, 1995b; Collins, 1996; Wall, 1997; Butler, 1991, 1993; 1996a, b; 1997). At this stage, the general concept of sustainability and its sub-components of development, needs, and future generations have to be viewed from the broad sectorial perspective rather than from the single tourism stance. On this point, Collins (1996) argues that although the latter principles should be considered, it is more advisable to focus on tourism-free development strategies as an *option* to the environmental/economic sustainability evaluation. This is because the nature of international tourism does not tally with the long term objectives of the concept of sustainability, due to the changing usage and nature of tourism destinations, and as such the focus on all sectoral sustainability planning could only initially assist with tourism capital and the preservation of resources (Collins, 1996).

Thirdly, the issue of *resources utilization and usage*. This issue initially entails views that sustainable tourism development should 'preserve the tourism's future seed corn' (Lane, 1994: 104; Hunter, 1995b). Ironically, this raises the concern that although the general concept of sustainability encourages the stewardship of all the natural resources, sustainable tourism development advocates only resources critical to its development and the exclusion of other resources which are not that critical to its development or survival (Hunter, 1995b: 157; Lane, 1994). Again, the issue which arises is that sustainable tourism development should aim to contribute to preserving all the resources, and not only the one's used by tourism development (Hunter, 1995b; Collins, 1996). Here, this attempt could examine the issues of carrying capacity (Butler, 1996b; Collins, 1996; Inskeep, 1991; Williams, 1991, 1994; O'Reilly, 1986), environmental control (Butler, 1996b), environmental impact assessment (Williams, 1994; Hunter, 1995a) and environmental auditing (Goodall, 1992, 1994; Stabler and Goodall, 1993; Diamantis and Westlake, 1997). All these much criticized techniques, endeavor to create a safe minimum standard based on the synthesis of three values (Pigram, 1990: 3-4), encouraging the stewardship of all the resources used:

- a) *the value of existence of a resource*, which is the satisfaction gained when that resource is preserved;
- b) *the option value*, which is the choice of considering the preserved area in the future;

- c) *the quest value*, which is the satisfaction derived from minimum resource usage, in the light of benefiting future generations.

Fourthly, the issue of *type of sustainability*. This issue outlines that sustainable tourism development should focus on the strong type of sustainability as a demanding guiding principle rather than the weak type of sustainability (Collins, 1996; Hunter, 1997; Stabler and Goodall, 1993; Goodall and Stabler, 1997; Stabler, 1997). The strong sustainability type implies the scenario where natural capital cannot be substituted by any other form of capital, except by a form of natural capital or the *resource preservationist rule* (Pearce et al, 1993; Fyall and Garrod, 1997; Collins, 1996; Hunter, 1997; Stabler and Goodall, 1993; Goodall and Stabler, 1997). On the other hand, the weak sustainability principle outlines the *resource exploitative rule* in which one form of capital can be substituted by another form without any loss of human well-being, hence meeting the 'constant capital rule' (Pearce et al, 1993; Fyall and Garrod, 1997; Collins, 1996; Hunter, 1995a, 1997; Stabler and Goodall, 1993; Goodall and Stabler, 1997).

At this stage, critics of these forms of sustainability suggest that it is irrelevant for the tourism industry to support a particular form, as generally attempts made to measure the capital stocks of the destinations have been done so via *an appropriate accounting framework such as environmental balance sheets and measurement techniques of the capital flows, such as the travel cost method and the maximum sustainable yield method* (Fyall and Garrod, 1997; Goodall and Stabler, 1997). These views are mainly based on the following limitations (Fyall and Garrod, 1997: 57):

- a) determining whether the industry's efforts in achieving sustainable development are paying off;
- b) judging whether the industry's efforts are concerned with the most pressing environmental concerns or with the most environmentally-damaging activities; and
- c) assessing the industry's progress towards, or potentially away from, the goal of achieving sustainable development.

These concerns are absolutely fundamental in the search for sustainable development as there is a lack of understanding of the 'magic' recipe to achieve sustainability. It is quite clear among the literature that there is a *search* for sustainable development at present, which should be addressed through the abolition of the 'tourism-centric' sustainable development paradigm.

What seems to be clear is that trade off scenarios and/or an adaptive paradigm of types of sustainability and/or a holistic approach could greatly assist for such a search (Wall, 1997; Collins, 1996; Wahab, 1997; Goodall and Stabler, 1997; Butler, 1997; Hunter, 1995a, b; 1997; Stabler, 1997; McGregor, 1996).

Trade off scenarios could be based on the link between development and the environment, or the environment and market goals, by minimizing all the antagonistic relationships between these two elements (Cater, 1995; Stabler, 1997). For instance, Cater suggested four different scenarios with regard to tourism, that of (1995: 22-25):

- *win/win scenario* (both development and the environment benefit);
- *win/lose scenario* (the situation in which only the environment benefits);
- *lose/win scenario* (the situation where the environment may be downgraded and other interests benefit); and
- *lose/lose scenario* (the situation where both the environment and development can not benefit due to the existing degradation of the resources).

Although Cater's approach is slightly tourist-centric, overall it suggests that in order to obtain sustainable outcomes there is a need for compromise based on the trade-off strategy between income and environmental quality, as well as the necessity to introduce environmental accounting frameworks and monitoring tools such as environmental auditing (Cater, 1995). On a similar vein, Hunter introduced four different approaches to sustainable development based on the four types of sustainability, which are also in themselves trade-off scenarios and not tourist centric (1997: 860-863) [see table 1.3]:

a) *Very weak sustainability type or tourism imperative scenario:*

With an emphasis on satisfying both tourists and tour operators, this approach is applied in situations where tourism is at its infancy or not developed. It seeks to introduce tourism only in areas where pre-existing economic activities generate more

degradation of resources than tourism. Three areas were given in which the very weak type could take place: areas with a strong link with poverty and environmental degradation; areas where tourism could be an alternative to other economic activities, based on the principle that tourism development generates a greater involvement of people than the other pre-existing activities; and areas where tourism development could utilize an area or its resources better than activities which could be degrading. The application of tourism in the three mentioned cases would be a catalyst for environmental protection and education. However, the antagonistic impacts of tourism development could be created, but are justified on the principle that tourism development does not generate more loss than would otherwise occur in these areas (see table 1.3).

b) Weak sustainability type or product-led tourism scenario:

This scenario outlines the attempt to sustain existing and create new tourism products in destinations where tourism is dominant in the local economy. The maintenance of the environment in these tourism destinations receives a secondary priority only as a way to sustain the existing tourism infrastructure and its products. Areas which could utilize this scenario are those where economic growth is necessary, as the opposite rule would create poverty and a loss of economic wealth of the local population (i.e. English seaside resorts, Majorca). This approach includes improving the local environment through cost-effective actions (i.e. recycling measures, sewage treatment plans) in attempts to generate more economic growth. In addition, the continuation of economic growth in such resorts is important as the environmental protection within the wider geographical region may depend on the economic growth of such destinations. Although this includes the application of the principles of zoning (Inskeep, 1991), the scenario allows the government to decouple the local economy and to diversify its tourism activities in the medium to long term (see table 1.3).

c) Strong sustainability type or environment-led tourism scenario:

This approach suggests that environmental management is at the heart of every destination planning framework. Here, the areas include those destinations at the beginning of their lifecycle, where the emphasis should be placed on the strong link between tourism development and environmental quality. This scenario includes the creation of new products (i.e. ecotourism), and the search for niche markets with the

authority to solely stress the environmental consequences of the products consumption rather than their marketing strategies. In addition, other measures include a variety of regulatory strategies, market based techniques and environmental technologies (i.e. waste-free and low-waste technologies), all assisting in the reduction of environmental impacts (see table 1.3).

d) Very strong sustainability type or neoteneous tourism scenario:

This approach advocates that tourism activity should be small-based or even excluded or discouraged in circumstances where it generates environmental damage. It includes mainly the exploitation and involvement stage of the destination lifecycle, with the aim of absolute preservation of the resources. The term neoteneous 'implies that tourism activities would be limited to the very early, juvenile, stages of tourism development' (Hunter, 1997: 862). Here, the aim is to minimize the usage of both renewable and non-renewable resources through the usage of environmental management instruments and techniques. This scenario also illustrates that tourism growth could be sacrificed in areas where another economic activity would better protect the environment, and in circumstances where there is a definite rise in environmental impacts as a result of tourism development (see table 1.3).

Hunter's four types of sustainability are essential in broadening the horizon's of sustainable development as an *adaptive paradigm and non-tourism centric*. Although the very weak and weak types of sustainability are not ideal for absolute preservation of the destinations resources, they provide alternative scenarios in circumstances where preservation can not be implemented. A critical weakness of these four types is that they should include environmental management techniques (i.e. environmental auditing), not just in the neoteneous tourism or strong sustainability approach.

Table 1.3 Types of sustainability within tourism

Types	Characteristics
Very weak <i>tourism imperative scenario</i>	<i>Status:</i> Tourism at its early stages <i>Criteria:</i> Tourism activities do not generate more degradation <i>Benefits:</i> Tourism is an alternative form of development Creates more employment Increase environmental protection <i>Costs:</i> Creates certain antagonistic impacts
Weak <i>product-led tourism scenario</i>	<i>Status:</i> Tourism is developed <i>Criteria:</i> Sustain tourism activities and develop new products <i>Benefits:</i> Improvement of the local economy and employment Assist preservation practices of surrounding destinations Expansion and diversification of tourism planning <i>Costs:</i> Conserve only existing infrastructure and products
Strong <i>environmental-led tourism scenario</i>	<i>Status:</i> Tourism at its early stages <i>Criteria:</i> Environmental management utilization <i>Benefits:</i> Environmental quality Economic and employment growth Specialized tourism destination <i>Costs:</i> Only in circumstances lacking focus and commitment
Very strong <i>neoteneous tourism scenario</i>	<i>Status:</i> Tourism at its exploitation and involvement stages <i>Criteria:</i> Absolute preservation of resources <i>Benefits:</i> Protection of renewable and non-renewable resources Long term environmental attractiveness <i>Costs:</i> Tourism growth is limited Tourism development is abolished to minimize generation of negative environmental impacts Tourism development is sacrificed in cases where other sectors employ better environmental practices

Environmental auditing is a flexible technique which allows a selection towards monitoring environmental impacts to be made in terms of scope and methods (Bailey and Hobbs, 1990; Bailey et al, 1992; Buhr, 1991; CGEF, 1993; Goodall, 1992; Stabler, 1997; Stabler and Goodall, 1993; Goodall, 1994, 1995; Ding and Pigram,

1995; Barton, 1996; Ledgerwood et al, 1992; Diamantis and Westlake, 1997; Diamantis, 1998; Elkington, 1990; LGMB, 1991), hence it could be integrated into the four types of sustainability. In all the four types a critical point is that environmental impacts should be known or at least measured, otherwise certain limitations arise concerning the nature of environmental measures provided in the four types of sustainability. For instance, in the tourism imperative scenario the degree of environmental protection should be defined, in product-led tourism the utilization of the environmental technologies should be determined, in the environmental-led tourism scenario the environmental quality should be measured, and in the case of neoteneous tourism the environmental instruments should be constituted as a core part of the destination's management system.

1.7 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

Sustainable tourism is often regarded as part of sustainable tourism development, or used simultaneously by tourism practitioners without any clarification over the similarities or differences between these concepts (Cater, 1995; Wahab, 1997; Goodall and Stabler, 1997; Stabler and Goodall, 1993; Hunter, 1995a, b; 1997; Fyall and Garrod, 1997; Godfrey, 1996; Lane, 1994; Muller, 1994; Farrell, 1992; Inskeep, 1991; WTO, 1993; 1995; Gilbert et al, 1994; Orams, 1995a; Nepal, 1997).

There is certainly a major difficulty in clarifying if there are two distinct concepts or just one which encompasses the other. On this point Butler argues that there are two distinct concepts where sustainable tourism is defined as 'tourism which is in a form which can maintain its viability in an area for an indefinite period of time' (1993: 29). Similarly, Wall suggested that there is a distinction between these two concepts, as sustainable development enhances the multiple-sector approach to development and sustainable tourism represents a single-sector approach to development (1997: 44-45). As a result sustainable tourism is identified as the sole user of resources in the destination and it neglects the other sectors utilization of resources (Wall, 1997). Although the initial difference between these two concepts derives explicitly from the development perspective, other researchers regarded sustainable tourism as a product and have drawn comparisons with mass forms of tourism (Godfrey, 1996; Lane, 1994; Clarke, 1997; Cater and Goodall,

1997). Here, there are four positions in the sustainable tourism literature deriving from its comparison with mass tourism (Clark, 1997: 225- 230):

- a) **Polar opposites concepts;**
- b) **Continuum concepts;**
- c) **Movement position; and**
- d) **Convergence.**

The *first position* illustrates the theme of alternative tourism as an antithesis of the mass tourism development movement, or the notion of ‘wrong’ versus ‘right’ (Butler, 1990; Pearce, 1992; De Kaft, 1990, 1992; Gilbert et al, 1994; Lane, 1994; Clarke, 1997; Cater and Goodall, 1997; Clarke, 1997; Weaver, 1998). Initially, the term alternative tourism began to enjoy its popularity during the late 1980s, as an optional way to overcome the threat of mass tourism (Romeril, 1994; Butler, 1990; Pearce, 1992; Jarviluoma, 1992; Weaver, 1998).

Alternative tourism is mainly seen as small scale tourism and it relates to destinations which are rich in traditional cultures, together with fragile environments, and in relation to the destinations concern for the impacts derived from the socio-cultural and environmental consequences of mass tourism utilization (Jarviluoma, 1992; Inskip, 1991; Ioannides, 1995). In contrast, alternative tourism was treated as a concept with its own elements and should be developed as a utility, due to the evidence demonstrating certain resort areas to oppose the mass tourism development movement (Butler, 1990). In addition, it is an elitist activity consumed by highly educated and wealthy individuals (Butler 1990), expressing their dissatisfaction for sun-based holidays (Ioannides, 1995; Gilbert et al, 1994). The main principle of this position suggests that alternative tourism aims to replace mass tourism (De Kaft, 1990, 1992) as the small scale developments and enterprises involved enable the destination to enjoy high degrees of local participation and control (Ioannides, 1995). Hence, the polar opposite position mainly advocates that small scale tourism was similar to sustainable tourism (Clarke, 1997: 226) [see table 1.4]

Table 1.4 Characteristics of mass tourism and alternative tourism

Variable	Mass tourism	Alternative tourism
<u>Accommodation</u>		
Spatial pattern	Coastal, high density	Dispersed, low density
Scale	Larger scale, integrated	Smaller scale, homestyle
Ownership	Foreign, multinational	Local, family, small business
<u>Market</u>		
Volume	Higher	Lower
Origin	One dominant market	No dominant market
Segment	Phychocentric - midcentric	Allocentric-midcentric
Activities	Water/beach/nightlife	Nature/culture
Seasonally	Winter high season	No dominant season
<u>Economy</u>		
Status	Dominant sector	Supplementary sector
Impact	High import sector; Repatriated profits	Low impact sector; Retained profits

Source: Mowforth, 1993 (after Weaver)

The *second position*, mainly illustrates the phase of a continuum between sustainable tourism and mass tourism based on the polar opposite position theories (Clarke, 1997). It represents the adjustment of the polar opposite position to the continuum from mass tourism to sustainable tourism, based on the simultaneous utilization of the destinations resources by the two concepts (Clarke, 1997; De Kaft, 1990, 1992; Butler, 1990). In addition, the analytical tools of assessing mass tourism could be modified to assess alternative tourism, accompanied by measures on investment choices between the two concepts (De Kaft, 1990, 1992). At this stage, critics of the polar and continuum positions illustrated that the position of polar opposite 'right' and 'wrong' concepts was misleading and that alternative tourism is an elitist concept (Butler, 1990; Clarke, 1997). Overall certain limitations also arose from whether alternative tourism (Wheeller, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994; Clarke, 1997; Ioannides, 1995; Cater and Goodall, 1997; Gilbert et al, 1994; Romeril, 1994; Butler, 1990; Pearce, 1992; Jarviluoma, 1992; Hunter, 1995b; Weaver, 1995):

- overcomes the generation of the antagonistic impacts of tourism;
- overcomes the resource degradation and safeguards the environment;

- attests the balance of power and equity issues;
- signifies the local needs, participation and control;
- contains the focus and capability principle;
- contains a coherent philosophy per se;
- addresses the long term resources survival; and
- negative effects as a result of the in situ nature of consumption.

The *third position* illustrates the movement to make mass tourism more sustainable, or the goal to minimize large scale tourism with more small scale sustainable tourism (Clarke, 1997). Here, this position suggests that small scale tourism products or development becomes more objective as the whole concept of sustainable tourism becomes a goal for attainment, all supported by the illustration of cases studies which search for such a movement (Clarke, 1997; McGregor, 1996). This approach mainly incorporated the period when certain organizations practiced environmental management techniques, developed environmental management systems, guidelines and codes of conduct and codes of ethics (Clarke, 1997).

Finally, the *fourth position* represents the convergence stage, which is when all forms of tourism aim to become sustainable forms of tourism (Clarke, 1997). On this position, there is recognition that sustainable tourism incorporates both large and small scale interpretations (Clarke, 1997). The former type includes the efforts in the movement position and the latter type offers a 'social slant from a local or destination perspective' (Clarke, 1997: 229). This position tries mainly to combine all the positive elements of the latter three positions and replace the criticism of alternative forms tourism as goals to be achieved towards sustainable tourism. For example the utilization of alternative tourism is seen as a goal to be achieved rather than as a polar opposite concept of mass tourism, and the criticism over the lack of local control as a goal towards local control (Clarke, 1997). In other words, the current search is based on converting all forms of tourism towards a more sustainable orientated approach. Although this represents the current position of sustainable tourism, this is generally criticized as representing the so-called 'marketing gimmick' (Wall, 1997; Nepal, 1997).

To complicate the matters even further, a variety of tourism products have been introduced for achieving sustainability within tourism such as: nature tourism, nature-based, nature-orientated tourism, wilderness tourism, adventure tourism, low-impact tourism, soft tourism, responsible tourism, ethic tourism, green tourism, ecological tourism, and so on (Scace, 1993).

As a result, the concept of sustainable tourism is subject to a major crisis deriving from the lack of focus, scope, and commonly identified principles. The lack of the precise nature or definition of sustainable tourism is based on the lack of knowledge over the linkages between these different forms.

Consider for instance, that alternative tourism is a 'small scale tourism development by local people and based on local culture. Alternative tourism pays special attention to environmental and social carrying capacity' (Jarviluoma, 1992: 118). On the other hand responsible tourism 'should lead to a more awareness of the problem with tourism, more careful development, more concern for the host community and environment and a more enlightened approach by the tourist' (Gilbert et al, 1994: 35). In both instances, limitations arose not only from the inevitable similarities, but in cases where it is considered as a distinct concept, the questions which then surfaced was how to achieve such development, concern for local population, and carrying capacity measures. Similarly, one of the types of sustainable tourism products which attracted considerable attention was the concept of *ecotourism*.

Ecotourism has been proclaimed to conserve the natural areas, enhance small scale development, educate both tourists and locals as well as provide an incentive for long term attractivity of the destinations. The growth of demand of ecotourism holidays however, initially ran ahead of the supply of its products, and created a new challenge for tourism researchers and scholars. In particular the consumer-driven demand for ecotourism created a disequilibrium in academic circles. For instance, there is evidence to illustrate not only the lack of precise definition of ecotourism and its linkages with the other forms of sustainable tourism (Wheeller, 1994; Boyd and Butler, 1993; Butler, 1993; Orams, 1995a, b; McLaren, 1998), but also that its principles contain numerous direct and indirect costs (Weaver, 1998; Lindberg et al, 1998), limitations which in part are derived from a lack of understanding of the behavior of ecotourists.

In general terms what seems to be occurring within the application of sustainability within tourism, is the creation a variety of niches either representing products, forms of development, or consumers. These niche markets are still an elusive goal not only from the development perspective but most importantly from their consumer based characteristics who are searching for these sustainable forms of tourism.

In particular, research in certain industry sectors illustrates that there is a general lack of understanding of the principles or even components of sustainable tourism (Richards, 1996). One definition of sustainable tourism given by an organization which responded to Richards' study, defined sustainable tourism as 'tourism development which had existed for a long time, as in the major Spanish coastal resort areas' (Richards, 1996: 10).

This could possibly illustrate the scenario of a lack of broad understanding of the concept of sustainability within the tourism industry. Alternatively, Richards' survey found that due to the increased awareness of environmental issues, the majority of organisations tend to equate sustainable tourism with environmental issues (1996). Further, Richards research also addressed the need for a clearer understanding of the motivations of the consumer's of such sustainable forms (Richards, 1996), hence pinpointing the overall lack of understanding of the consumer base involved in certain forms of sustainable tourism. In overall terms, the theme of sustainable tourism is still an evolutionary paradigm which is seen as a goal to be achieved for small scale development in the supply environment, and research enhancement on the niche characteristics in the demand side of the tourism system.

1.8 SUMMARY

Implicit in the review of the concept of sustainability is that efforts should be placed on a more clearer understanding of sustainability in tourism. This includes treating sustainability as concept with the absence of the tourism-centric syndrome, and utilizing methods where trade-off scenarios of different types of sustainability are developed and implemented. The concerns about sustainability are not just environmental but also cultural, economic, social, political and managerial. The challenge to convert mass tourism to sustainable tourism lies in the need to identify the limits of such a transformation, accompanied by the limits of new development and control measures within the tourism industry. Hence, this includes the enhancement of the environmental indicators methodology, and with environmental management techniques applied across the demand, supply and transit route levels of the tourism system. This should also be accompanied by the primary goal to determine the characteristics of the consumers searching for sustainable forms of tourism, and to accumulate the consumer's sustainability knowledge for the tourism industry.

CHAPTER TWO

THE CONCEPT OF ECOTOURISM

2.0 The concept of ecotourism

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The term ecotourism emerged in the late 1980's as a direct result of the world's acknowledgment and reaction to sustainable practices and global ecological practices. In these instances, the natural-based element of holiday activities together with the increased awareness to minimize the 'antagonistic' impacts of tourism on the environment (which is the boundless consumption of environmental resources), contributed to the demand for ecotourism holidays. This demand was also boosted by concrete evidence that consumers had shifted away from mass tourism towards experiences that were more individualistic and enriching. In addition, these experiences were claimed to be associated with a general search for the natural component during holidays (Kusler, 1991a: 2-4; 1991b:9-10; Boo, 1990, 1991a,b, 1993; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1991a, b; Hvenegaard, 1994: 25; Orams, 1995a; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Dowling, 1996).

Further, the support of several government bodies in conjunction with the eagerness to achieve sustainable development by any means, and the potential employment opportunities in natural areas, in addition to the shift towards planning in protected areas all enhanced the profile of the concept (Kusler, 1991a: 2-4; 1991b: 9-10; Boo, 1991a: 55; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997). The current positioning of ecotourism is that the concept is at the consolidation stage of its product life cycle, especially in Australia (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997: 66-67; Lindberg et al, 1998). In the late 1980's ecotourism was regarded as a small-based niche product which was a specialized form of nature-based or adventure tourism (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998). This niche concept changed in the early 1990s, and ecotourism became a popular term in terms of its definitions, applications, and evaluation stemming from the viewpoint that ecotourism was a 'politically correct form of mass tourism' (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997: 66). During this period a variety of destinations and/or attractions were labeled as ecotourism resorts, and governments in Australia forecasted large numbers (6 million) of inbound ecotourists to visit these resorts by the end of the 1990's (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997).

By the mid 1990s ecotourism entered a state of maturity as a result of the marketing practices of certain operators, as well as from the results of certain studies centering around ecotourism elements and ecotourists characteristics (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998). In turn, ecotourists became more aware of this form of travel, and as such they became more selective over certain mass tourism destinations which labeled themselves as ecotourism destinations (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998). This enabled the concept to enter into its consolidation stage, where there was an emphasis on redefining the concept based on its exclusive characteristics, emanating from an understanding of certain attributes from the ecotourists experience process (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998).

Despite claims of Australia being at the consolidation stage of its ecotourism lifecycle, in other parts of the world the concept is predominantly at the growth stage. This is either due to the lack of research in other parts of the globe, or the lack of implementation programs which would allow the debate of ecotourism characteristics to occur. Regardless of its position in the product life cycle, to date the concept does not have a commonly accepted definition. The grounds in which ecotourism operates are claimed to be alternative forms of tourism or special interest travel and the associated products generated from these segments (Weaver, 1993; Richins, 1994; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Hvenegaard, 1994; Dowling, 1995 a,b; Hummel, 1994; Hall and Rudkin, 1993). The majority of tourism practitioners consider ecotourism to be a part of natural tourism, which has several other similar interpretations (i.e. naturally orientated, nature tourism).

It was claimed that a large volume of ecotourists represented a significant proportion of international travel (Filion et al, 1994), and in some cases this was visible in certain ecotourism destinations like Thailand (Dearden and Harron, 1992) which suffered from extensive detrimental impacts as a consequence. On this point lies a significant concern with reference to the literature on ecotourism, which is the potential it has to develop into smaller forms of mass tourism. Generally speaking, the literature on ecotourism is divided into two broad schools of thought (Jaakson, 1997).

Firstly, the location case-studies raising issues concerning the impacts of ecotourism, and secondly the thematic studies illustrating issues regarding planning and

development, where case-studies are focused on the methodological issues (Jaakson, 1997). In both instances, there were a few concrete studies evaluating the definitional perspective of ecotourism, (Wheeller, 1994; Jaakson, 1997; Orams, 1995a; Miller and Knaae, 1993; Blamey 1995a, b, 1997) which this part of the analysis aims to discuss.

In examining these issues the process begins with the definitional frameworks of ecotourism, followed by a sample of certain definitions, the grounds of ecotourism operations, the common components of the concept, the alternative conceptual frameworks and the customer profiles.

2.2 SCOPE AND DEFINITIONAL PERSPECTIVE OF ECOTOURISM

Global estimates revealed that in Australia and New Zealand, 32% of visitors search for the scenery, wild plants, and wildlife, as part of their trip (Filion et al, 1994). In Africa, 80% of tourists who visited countries in this continent named wildlife as a primary motivational attribute (Filion, et al, 1994). In North America, 69-88% of the European and Japanese travelers considered wildlife and bird watching to be the most important attributes of their visits (Filion, et al, 1994). In Latin America, 50-79% of visitors advocated that visits to protected areas represented an important factor in choosing such destinations (Filion et al, 1994). In America, it was claimed that over 100 million people participated in wildlife activities, of which 76.5 million were related to viewing wildlife, and 24.7 million were interested in birdwatching (USTC, 1993). This has generated over \$20 billion in economic activity with an estimated growth of 30% per year (USTC, 1993). In all the cases, it was estimated that tourism in the natural and wildlife settings accounted for a total 20-40% of international tourism receipts, with an estimate that it will increase by 20-50% per year (Filion et al, 1994). However, despite the fact that these statistical estimates have not been matched by any commonly acceptable data, there is a growing concern that this segment accounts for a significant proportion of world travel. Herein lies the first major concern about ecotourism, that of measuring the number of visitors participating in ecotourism holidays as there is a breadth of definitions and large scope of activities. Certain limitations also arise from the spectrum within which ecotourism operates. A variety of terms have been introduced to describe the same phenomenon which may be

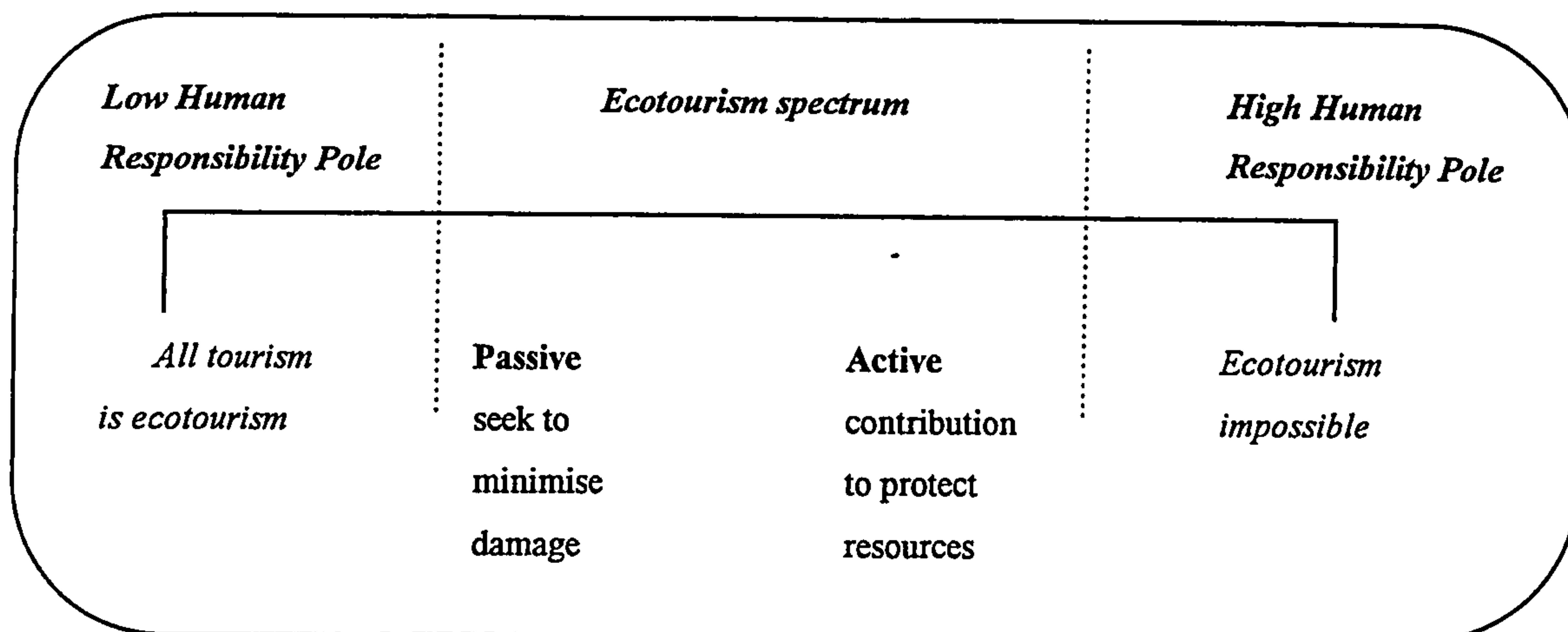
referred to as nature travel (Laarman and Durst, 1987), nature-orientated tourism (Durst and Ingram, 1988), nature tourism (Wilson and Laarman, 1988), nature-based tourism (Valentine, 1992), sustainable tourism (Ioannides, 1995), alternative tourism (Clarke, 1997; Godfrey 1996) and special interest tourism (Hall and Weiler, 1992).

On this point, it has been noted that it is more feasible to treat ecotourism as a spectrum with a variety of products rather than attempting to define ecotourism from a specific stance or product (Wight, 1993a, b). More specifically, it was claimed that the spectrum includes both (Wight, 1993b: 57): *supply factors* (nature and resilience of resources; cultural or local community preferences; types of accommodation) and *demand factors* (types of activities and experiences; degree of interest in natural or cultural resources; degree of physical effort). In this event, however, there is evidence to illustrate that ecotourism is not meeting existing demand, but is driven by a demand, which evolved through the marketing practices of this form of travel by the supply side (Boyd and Butler, 1993). Despite such recognition's, this concept has still not got a common definition, making it the most important tourism buzzword of this decade. However, there are a number of conceptual attempts defining the concept of ecotourism. In particular, it was claimed that the definitional structure of ecotourism is based on two approaches (Steward and Sekartjakrarini, 1994):

- a) The activity-based perspective of ecotourism;
- b) The definition regarding ecotourism as an industry;

Here, the former type is divided into definitions which attest the role of ecotourists or 'what ecotourists actually do', and definitions which detail the value-based component of ecotourism with focus on minimum impact and local culture elements, or 'what ecotourists should do' (Steward and Sekartjakrarini, 1994: 840). The latter type attests the supply characteristics of ecotourism as a tool for conservation and development based on the interrelationship between the local community and the tourism industry (Steward and Sekartjakrarini, 1994: 841). In addition, ecotourism definitions have been treated as a continuum of paradigms based on polar extremes (Orams, 1995a: 4; Miller and Knaae, 1993) [see figure 2.1].

Figure 2.1 The continuum of ecotourism paradigms



Source: Orams, 1995a: 4

Orams (1995a) argues that the majority of ecotourism definitions lie between the passive position and the active position towards the high responsibility pole on the continuum (see figure 2.1). He further suggested that the desired state is to move from the minimum passive position towards a more high or active pole of the continuum (Orams, 1995a). The active pole mainly emphasizes the actions of protecting the environment and the behavioral intentions of ecotourists, whereas the passive position concentrates solely on ecotourism development, not enhancing the antagonistic impacts or the ecotourists need to be satisfied (Orams, 1995a). Ecotourism has also been defined based on three criteria (Wall, 1994: 5): the characteristics of the destinations; the motivations of its participants; and the organisational characteristics of the ecotourism trip.

More specifically, ecotourism was first defined as ‘.. *traveling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas*’ (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987: 14; 1991a; 1991b).

Ceballos-Lascurain’s definition viewed ecotourism in the light of experiential and educational factors of the protected natural areas (1987). He claimed that ecotourism is a multi-dimensional philosophical concept (1991a: 25), which is a

component of ecodevelopment (1993a: 13; 1993b: 220) and it requires planning based on strict guidelines and regulations that will enhance the sustainable operation (1991a, 1991b, 1993a, 1993b). He suggested that ecotourists profile characteristics attest an awareness and knowledge about the natural environment and cultural aspects, in such a way *'that will convert him or her into somebody keenly involved in conservation issues'* (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1991a: 25). Ceballos-Lascurain drew the comparison between mass tourists and ecotourists over the natural-based utilization. Both groups are keen to go to the natural areas but the mass tourist has a more passive role with nature, participating in activities which do not relate to the true concern over nature or ecology such as watersport, jogging, and biking (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1991a, b). On the other hand, ecotourists are attracted to a natural area per se, having a more active role through a non consumptive use of wildlife and natural resources, through activities such as nature photography, botanical studies, and observing wildlife (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1991a, b).

It is evident from his definition of ecotourism that ecotourists activities can only exist in well-preserved or protected areas (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987; 1991a, b; 1993a, b; 1996). Here, it was claimed that although ecotourism association with protected areas is valid as it enhances the conservation element (Norris, 1992:34; Warner, 1991: 44; Wall, 1994: 5), the definition does not mention the responsibility of the ecotourism industry for environmental conservation (Wen and Tisdell, 1995). Neither does it address the economic impacts which this form of tourism can generate, the resource degradation, visitor satisfaction, and positive impacts on the wildlife (Boyd and Butler, 1993: 12; 1996a: 385). On the other hand, it has been proclaimed that it does not ignore the indigenous people who often inhabit such natural settings, who are both part of the environment and their culture enhances the visitors interests (Figgis, 1993: 8). Further, Ceballos-Lascurain's definition was also viewed as being situated in the passive position towards the low responsibility pole (Orams, 1995a: 4) [see figure 2.1], mainly highlighting the characteristics of the destination such as the natural settings (Wall, 1994:5).

In this setting, Ziffer viewed ecotourism from an active stance highlighting *the conservation, natural-based, economic and cultural components* of ecotourism (1989)

[see table 2.1]. The concept not only enhances the increased pattern of visits to the natural environment, but serves as an ethic of how to turn to the natural environment ensuring a minimum impact on its resource base (Ziffer, 1989; Boyd and Butler, 1993: 10). Further, Ziffer highlighted that ecotourism requires planning or a managed approach which balances both economic, social and environmental goals (Ziffer, 1989). However, she distinguished between the concepts of ecotourism and nature tourism. She claimed that ecotourism is a more comprehensive concept based on a planned approach by the destination authorities, whereas nature tourism is more consumer-based and not ecologically sound (Ziffer, 1989: 6).

Further, she suggested that ecotourism requires the destination to establish a program based on a multi-faced conservation and development approach in order for the destination to qualify as an ecotourism destination (Ziffer, 1989: 5-8; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996: 22). The immediate limitation of such proposals however, is which authority or organisation is going to assess the destination program and going to grade the eco-label for the destinations. This is at the center of the debate not only for the concept of ecotourism but this is also applicable to the sustainable development concept [see chapter one]. The difficulty of the implementation of such a program is grounded in the definition of ecotourism. Ziffer (1989:5) points out that perhaps one of the reasons why ecotourism has eluded a firm definition is because of its multi-purpose in that it attempts to describe an activity, set forth a philosophy, while at the same time espouse a model of development. Nevertheless ecotourism claimed to provide economic benefits through natural resources preservation, offering potential benefits for both conservation and development (Boo, 1990; 1991a: 54; 1991b: 4; 1992; 1993).

In particular Boo (1990:10) defined ecotourism similarly to the definition given by Ceballos-Lascurain, emphasizing the natural-based component of the concept [see table 2.1]. Here, ecotourism not only encompasses the natural and conservation components, but also the economic and educational elements. In all the cases, similar to Ziffer's approach, Boo suggested that for ecotourism to reveal its benefits it requires effective planning strategies so that conservation of resources could address the sustainable management of such resources (1991a, b; 1992; 1993; Hummel, 1994).

However, she stressed that the benefits of ecotourism to the destination largely depend on the scale of tourism, the country size and the interconnected parts of their economies (Boo, 1990). Additionally, benefits can be increased if visitors extend their vacation due to the natural aspects of the destination, thus the so-called 'add-on' feature to visitors through ecotourism could be applied (Boo, 1990: 10).

In short, Boo claims that ecotourists are generally more accepting of conditions that are different from their home than other types of tourists (1990). Their characteristics often include living with the local conditions, customs and food, with their activities ranging from a walk through the forest, to exploration and study of the natural attractions of the destination (Boo, 1990: 1). Further, Boo's definition can be seen to be situated in the active position towards the high responsibility pole (Orams, 1995a: 4) [see figure 2.1], highlighting the characteristics of the destination, the natural settings and characteristics of the trip, and the motivations of the participants (Wall, 1994).

2.2.1 Definitions of ecotourism

On a similar vein to Ceballos-Lascurain's, Ziffer's and Boo's definitions, a variety of other definitions of ecotourism moved more or less along the same principles (see table 2.1):

- Valentine addressed mainly the natural-based, sustainability, conservation components of ecotourism (1993). Valentine distinguished between nature tourism and ecotourism, in that the former form of tourism does not necessarily include a conservation motive, whereas the latter form of tourism, is a contributor to the protection of the environment (Valentine, 1992: 108; 1993: 108-109; Hvenegaard, 1994; Orams, 1995a). Valentine (1993) also expressed an active stance, addressing mainly the characteristics of the destinations and the trip (Orams, 1995a; Wall 1994) [see figure 2.1];

Table 2.1 Definitions of ecotourism

<p><i>"Ecotourism is a form of tourism inspired primarily by the natural history of an area, including its indigenous cultures. The ecotourist visits relatively undeveloped areas in the spirit of appreciation, participation and sensitivity. The ecotourist practices a non-consumptive use of wildlife and natural resources and contributes to the visited area through labor or financial means aimed at directly benefiting the conservation of the site and the economic well-being of the local residents..." (Ziffer, 1989: 6).</i></p>
<p><i>'Ecotourism is a nature tourism that contributes to conservation, through generating funds for protected areas, creating employment opportunities for local communities, and offering environmental education.' (Boo, 1991b: 4).</i></p>
<p><i>"Ecotourism is restricted to that kind of tourism which is (Valentine, 1993: 108-109):</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><i>a) based on relatively undisturbed natural areas;</i><i>b) non-damaging, non-degrading, ecologically sustainable;</i><i>c) a direct contributor to the continued protection and management of the natural areas; and</i><i>d) subject to an adequate and appropriate management regime"</i>
<p><i>"Nature-based tourism that is focused on provision of learning opportunities while providing local and regional benefits, while demonstrating environmental, social, cultural, and economic sustainability" (Forestry Tasmania, 1994: ii).</i></p>
<p><i>"Ecologically sustainable tourism in natural areas that interprets local environment and cultures, furthers the tourists' understanding of them, fosters conservation and adds to the well-being of the local people" (Richardson, 1993: 8).</i></p>
<p><i>"Nature-based tourism that involves education and interpretation of the natural environment and is managed to be ecological sustainable. This definition recognizes that natural environment includes cultural components, and that ecologically sustainable involves an appropriate return to the local community and long-term conservation of the resource" (Australia Department of Tourism, 1994: 17)</i></p>
<p><i>"Ecotourism is travel to relatively undisturbed natural areas for study, enjoyment, or volunteer assistance. It is travel that concerns itself with flora, fauna, geology, and ecosystems of an area, as well as the people (caretakers) who live nearby, their needs, their culture, and their relationships to the land. It views natural areas both as "home to all of us" in a global sense ("eco" meaning home) but "home to nearby residents" specifically. It is envisioned as a tool for both conservation and sustainable development-especially in areas where local people are asked to forgo the consumptive use of resources for others...." (Wallace and Pierce, 1996: 848).</i></p>

<p><i>“An ecotourism experience is one in which an individual travels to a relatively undisturbed natural area that is more than 40 km from home, the primary intention being to study, admire, or appreciate the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas.</i></p> <p><i>An ecotourist is anyone who undertakes at least one ecotourism experience in a specified region during a specified period of time..” (Blamey, 1995a:24).</i></p>
<p><i>“Travel to remote or natural areas which aims to enhance understanding and appreciation of natural environment and cultural heritage, avoiding damage or deterioration of the environment and the experience for others” (Figgis, 1993: 8)</i></p>
<p><i>‘Travel to enjoy the world’s amazing diversity of natural life and human culture without causing damage to either (Tickell, 1994:ix).</i></p>
<p><i>“ A responsible nature travel experience, that contributes to the conservation of the ecosystem while respecting the integrity of host communities and, where possible, ensuring that activities are complementary, or at least compatible, with existing resource-based uses present at the ecosystem” (Boyd and Butler, 1993: 13; 1996a: 386)</i></p>
<p><i>“ Ecotourism is a form of tourism which fosters environmental principles, with an emphasis on visiting and observing natural areas” (Boyd and Butler, 1996b: 558).</i></p>
<p><i>“Low impact nature tourism which contributes to the maintenance of species and habitants either directly through a contribution to conservation and/or indirectly by providing revenue to the local community sufficient for local people , and therefore protect, their wildlife heritage area as a source of income” (Goodwin, 1996: 288).</i></p>
<p><i>“Ecotourism is tourism and recreation that is both nature-based and sustainable” (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997:67).</i></p>
<p><i>“Responsible travel that conserves the environment and sustains the well-being of local people” (Ecotourism Society in Orams, 1995a: 5)</i></p>

- Forestry Tasmania mainly emphasized the nature-based, educational, social and sustainability components of ecotourism by distinguishing between ecotourism and nature-based tourism. Here, ecotourism is a sub-component of the nature-based tourism which has been generally defined as a form of tourism which takes place in the natural environment (Forestry Tasmania, 1994). In addition, the definition is situated at the active stance of the high responsibility pole, providing mainly the characteristics of the destination (Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];

- Richardson highlighted the conservation, natural-based, sustainable and social and cultural components, in that it is a small-based form of tourism involving people searching for conservational and educational activities (1993). Richardson's definition is mainly situated in an active stance of the high responsibility pole combining mainly the characteristics of the destination (Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];
- The Australia Department of Tourism suggested the natural-based, ecological and cultural sustainability, education and interpretation, and provision of local and regional benefits (1994). In this case, the Australia Ecotourism Strategy claimed that ecotourism is a small subset of nature-based tourism, in that it is operates in the natural settings. It could be seen to incorporate an active stance towards ecotourism mainly comparing the characteristics of the destination (Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];
- Wallace and Pierce attested the natural-based, sustainable, cultural, social, and conservation components of ecotourism (1996). Their definition lies predominantly on the active stance with high responsibility, combining mainly the characteristics of the destinations(Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];
- Buckley provided a restrictive notion of ecotourism in that ecotourism is mainly nature-based, sustainably-managed, conservation supporting and environmentally -educative (1994: 661). Buckley argues that the industry and government agencies often focused on the product aspect of ecotourism, ignoring the environmental management aspects of the concepts. In addition, there is a tendency of simultaneous usage of nature-based tourism and ecotourism all searching for a common definition of ecotourism whereas a definition is not needed unless it is to be used for legal or planning purposes (Buckley, 1994: 664). Buckley's definitional approach is situated on an active stance of the high responsibility pole outlining mainly the characteristics of the destinations (Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];
- Blamey's dimensions of ecotourism includes four main components that of ecotourism that is nature-based, environmentally-educated, sustainably-managed and distance/time (Blamey, 1995a, b; 1997). In terms of his treatment of the concept of ecotourism, his definition focused on the appreciation/interpretation

component as suggested by Ceballos-Lascurain (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987). In all the cases, Blamey's definition is an active stance definition which is primarily applicable for marketing research purposes. In terms of the ecotourists characteristics, it highlighted the distance/time dimension that of 40 km from home and one ecotourism trip during vacation time; hence clarifying the characteristics of both destination and trip (Blamey, 1995a; 1997; Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];

- Figgis illustrated mainly the natural-based, cultural and social components of the concept by drawing the comparison between ecological sustainable development and ecotourism (1993). It mainly emphasized the destination characteristics and was situated on the passive position in terms of the continuum due to the lack of focus on the other impacts of ecotourism, except those regarding the minimization of environmental impacts (Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];
- Tickell raised the natural-based, cultural and non-damaging or conservation components of the concept (1994). Tickell emphasised mainly the ecosystems vulnerability and as such ecotourism should be seen as a form of tourism which could preserve the natural and cultural components (1994). This definition is situated on the passive position of the continuum illustrating mainly the characteristics of the trip and destinations (Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];
- Boyd's and Butler's first definition emphasized mainly the natural-based, conservation, social components of the concept in the case of Northern Ontario, with an emphasis on the minimization of the impacts of ecotourism over existing resource uses in the destination (1993, 1996a). They claimed that ecotourism must be an environmentally and socially responsible form of tourism, with the primary focus on the intrinsic attributes of the natural environment. Ecotourism should mainly enhance the economic and social benefits, and as such should not be considered as a form of development. In light of the above, this definition is mainly situated on the active stance of the continuum, illustrating the characteristics of the destination (Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];

Their second definition included the natural-based and the sustainability components of the concept (Boyd and Butler, 1996b) [see table 2.1]. Similarly with

their first definition, the emphasis was on resource preservation of the destination area, although this definition is broader as it is explicitly relevant to the assessment and planning of ecotourism development (Boyd and Butler, 1996b). This definition can be seen to be located at the center of the passive position of the continuum, highlighting mainly the characteristics of the destination (Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];

- Goodwin's definition suggested the natural-based, conservation, social and economic components of the concept (1996). Goodwin's definition is closely related to Boo's approach addressing more the role of conservation through economic development (1996: 288-289). He further distinguished between the concept of nature tourism with ecotourism in that the former concerns enjoyment of nature, whereas the latter contains a conservation flavor (Goodwin, 1996). This definition is situated in the active pole of the continuum containing the elements of the destination (Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];
- Lindberg's and McKercher's definition highlights the natural-based and sustainability components of ecotourism (1997). Their definition is based on the distinction that the natural-based component is descriptive, as it highlights the setting of ecotourism, and the sustainability component is prescriptive as it indicates the peoples opinion of the nature of the activity (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998). This viewpoint is located at a central or passive position of the continuum, acknowledging both the characteristics of the destination and the trip (Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1];
- The Ecotourism Society's definition recognized the conservation and social aspects of ecotourism (Orams, 1995a). It is general in nature and as such is located at a central or passive position of the continuum, acknowledging mainly the characteristics of the trip (Orams, 1995a; Wall, 1994) [see figure 2.1].

In comparing the definitions of ecotourism, the majority of the examined definitions are situated between a passive and more active stance, mainly describing the characteristics of the destination and the trip. There are few definitions which are based on the motivational characteristics of the consumers, and as such illustrate the lack of the perspective attesting consumer selected attributes and/or consequences.

In terms of the definitional perspective of ecotourism, Weaver (1998) suggests that it includes the entire spectrum from a passive to an active stance 'with the proviso that host societies be included along with natural environment as aspects of the destination that are not intentionally affected in a negative way' (p.17). Although this view is a contrast to Oram's earlier indication of a more active stance towards the definitional perspective of ecotourism, Weaver argues that the active stance becomes restrictive, and would result in a small number of participants (Orams, 1995a; Weaver, 1998).

In the light of this suggestion and in comparing all the definitions of ecotourism, three elements could be identified: natural-based, educational, and sustainable management which includes economic and/or socio-cultural issues. Hence, this study views ecotourism as including the entire spectrum from passive to active in a form of trade-off scenarios based on the link between the three elements, all depending on the setting in which it is examined.

Inevitably, this view raises another dilemma, the issue of linking ecotourism to other forms of tourism and secondly, the exact nature of the elements which are interwoven into the concept of ecotourism in terms of its definitional treatment.

2.3 LINKAGES AND POSITION OF ECOTOURISM

One of the difficulties in providing a commonly accepted definition of ecotourism, is the notion of ecotourism similarities with both other types of tourism, and principles of environmental management (Kusler, 1991 a, b; Hvenegaard, 1994; Weaver, 1993; Richins, 1994; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Dowling, 1995a, b; Hummel, 1994; Hall and Rudkin, 1993; Boyd and Butler, 1993: 14; 1996a, b). It was claimed that it is impossible to identify all the linkages between ecotourism and other forms of tourism due to the lack of information to justify the exact nature of linkages in a simplistic manner, and that the existence of many terms could mask key interrelationships that are present among related ideas (Boyd and Butler, 1993:14 Scace, 1993). Hence, Boyd and Butler (1993) claimed that ecotourism should mainly be based upon a balanced understanding of both ecosystems and tourism systems.

Based on these limitations, the first view which generally exists is that ecotourism is considered as a component of sustainable tourism development (Hvenegaard, 1994;

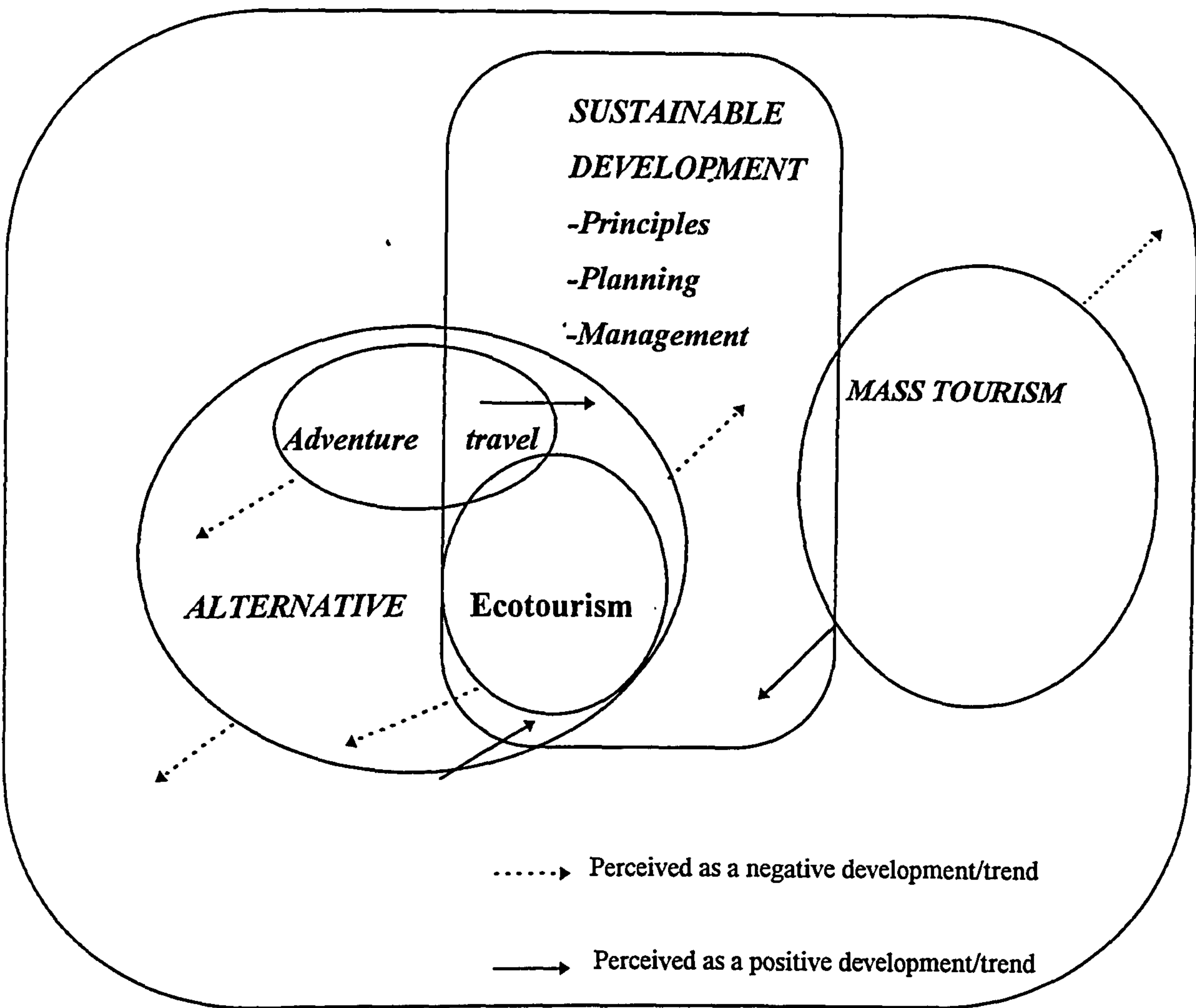
Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Dowling, 1995a, b; Boyd and Butler, 1993; 1996 a, b; Richardson, 1993; Forestry Tasmania, 1994; Australia Department of Tourism, 1994; Wallace and Pierce, 1996; Buckley, 1994; Blamey, 1995a, b; 1997) [see figure 2.2].

There is also evidence to illustrate that ecotourism is regarded as a sub-component of alternative tourism, (Boyd and Butler, 1993; 1996 a,b; Cater, 1993, 1994; Weaver, 1993, 1998) or special interest tourism (Hall and Rudkin, 1993; Hall and Weiler, 1992) having similarities with adventure travel (Boyd and Butler, 1993: 18; 1996a: 385). Although the relationship between adventure tourism and ecotourism was excluded from the model by Butler at a latter stage (Butler, 1996 in Weaver, 1998: 32), this was possibly based on the criticism between ecotourism and adventure tourism over the natural appreciation element (Wheeller, 1994).

Here, the interaction between adventure travel and the natural environment points to adventure travel activities containing certain elements of risk (Ewert and Hollenhorst, 1991; Robinson, 1992). This is referred to as risk recreation which is self-initiated activities (i.e. rock climbing) and although these occur in the natural environment, they have both a harmful nature and an uncertain outcome (Robinson, 1992: 13). Under this setting, it was proclaimed that adventure travel is a logical extension or component of ecotourism, only when the level of risk and physical challenge engaged in adventure activities is lowered (Ewert and Hollenhorst, 1991: 566). For instance, the adventure activity of mountain climbing can be substituted with the ecotourism activity of mountain walking (Ewert and Hollenhorst, 1991: 565).

Moreover, the extent to which adventure travel involves a high degree of risk and possible environmental impact is the reasoning behind its partial inclusion under the sustainable development umbrella (Wheeller, 1994; Boyd and Butler, 1993, 1996 a,b). In turn the relationship between ecotourism and alternative tourism remains important, ironically over the similarities in terms of the natural environmental component of both the concepts (Weaver, 1998; Cater, 1993, 1994; Boyd and Butler, 1993, 1996 a,b). [see figure 2.2].

Figure 2.2 The interrelationships between ecotourism and different forms of tourism



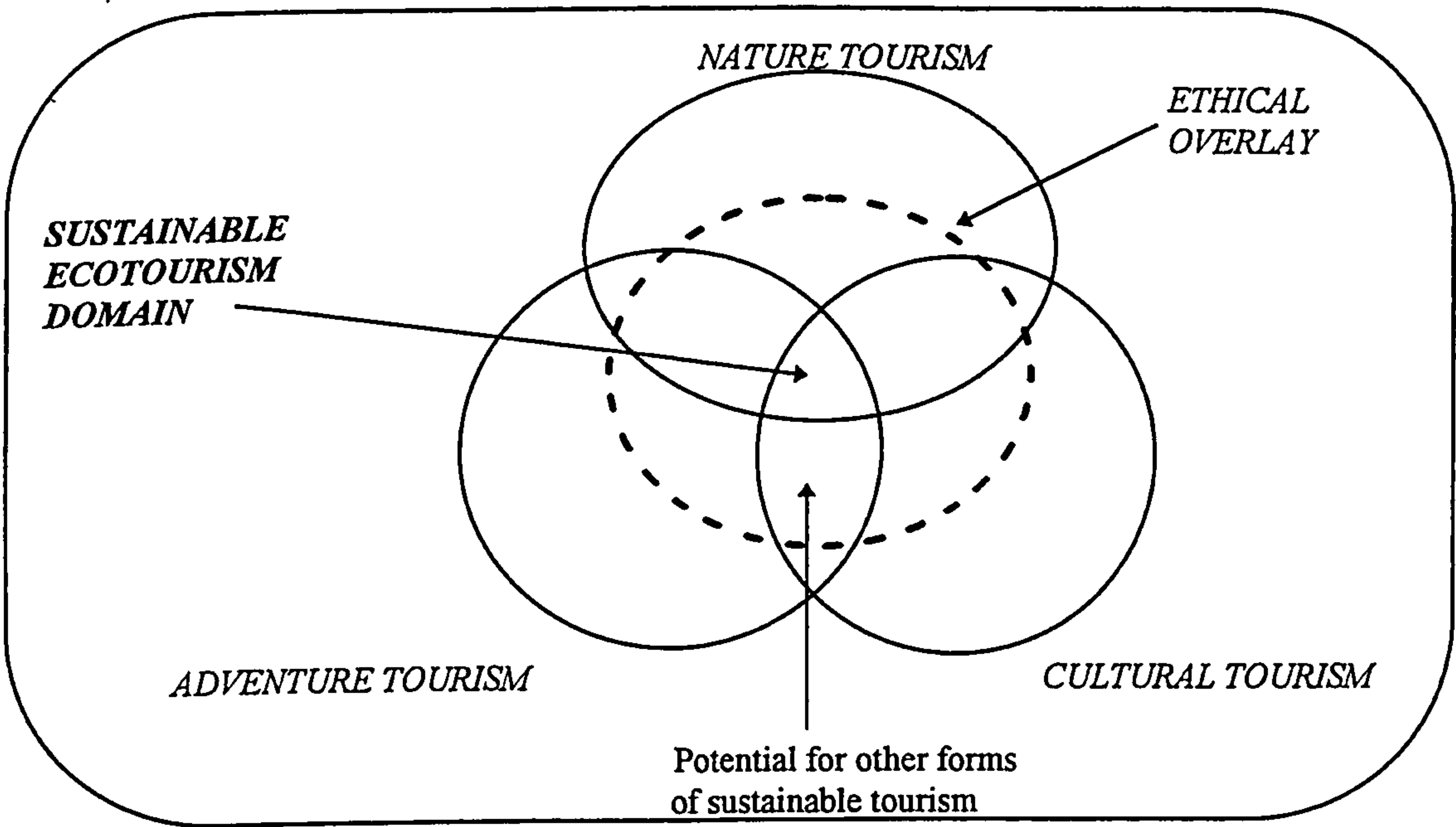
Source: Boyd and Butler, 1993: 19

Further, mass tourism is mainly developed in isolation from sustainable tourism development, which is situated at the opposite end of the spectrum. All the forms of tourism which contained the solid arrows are perceived as searching for sustainable development principles in the future. On the other hand, forms of tourism that are promoted in isolation of sustainability principles are regarded as negative and illustrated by dashed arrows (Boyd and Butler, 1993) [see figure 2.2]. On a similar vein, other research emphasized that ecotourism is a sub-component of natural-based travel (Hvenegaard, 1994; Australia Department of Tourism, 1994; Wallace and Pierce, 1996; Buckley, 1994; Blamey, 1995a, b; 1997).

In most of the studies, natural-based is also a sub-component of alternative tourism, highlighting that ecotourism is part of both alternative and natural-based tourism (Dowling, 1995a, b; Richardson, 1993; Forestry Tasmania, 1994; Australia Department of Tourism, 1994; Wallace and Pierce, 1996; Buckley, 1994; Blamey, 1995a, b; 1997).

Alternatively, the specific interrelationships with natural-based tourism suggests that ecotourism is somewhat between two forms of tourism (Tisdell, 1994:2; 1996:12): natural-based tourism and tourism which is environmentally sensitive and non-natural-based tourism. Further, Wight (1993b) viewed ecotourism as somewhat in between nature tourism, adventure tourism, and cultural tourism. However, she added an ethical perspective by claiming that ecotourism appears only when the ethical principles are fulfilled (Wight, 1993b). Hence, although ecotourism is related with three forms of tourism, it is the ethical perspective which distinguishes it from these forms by progressing its nature component to be sustainable [see figure 2.3].

Figure 2.3 Sustainable ecotourism from an ethical perspective



Source: Wight, 1993b: 61

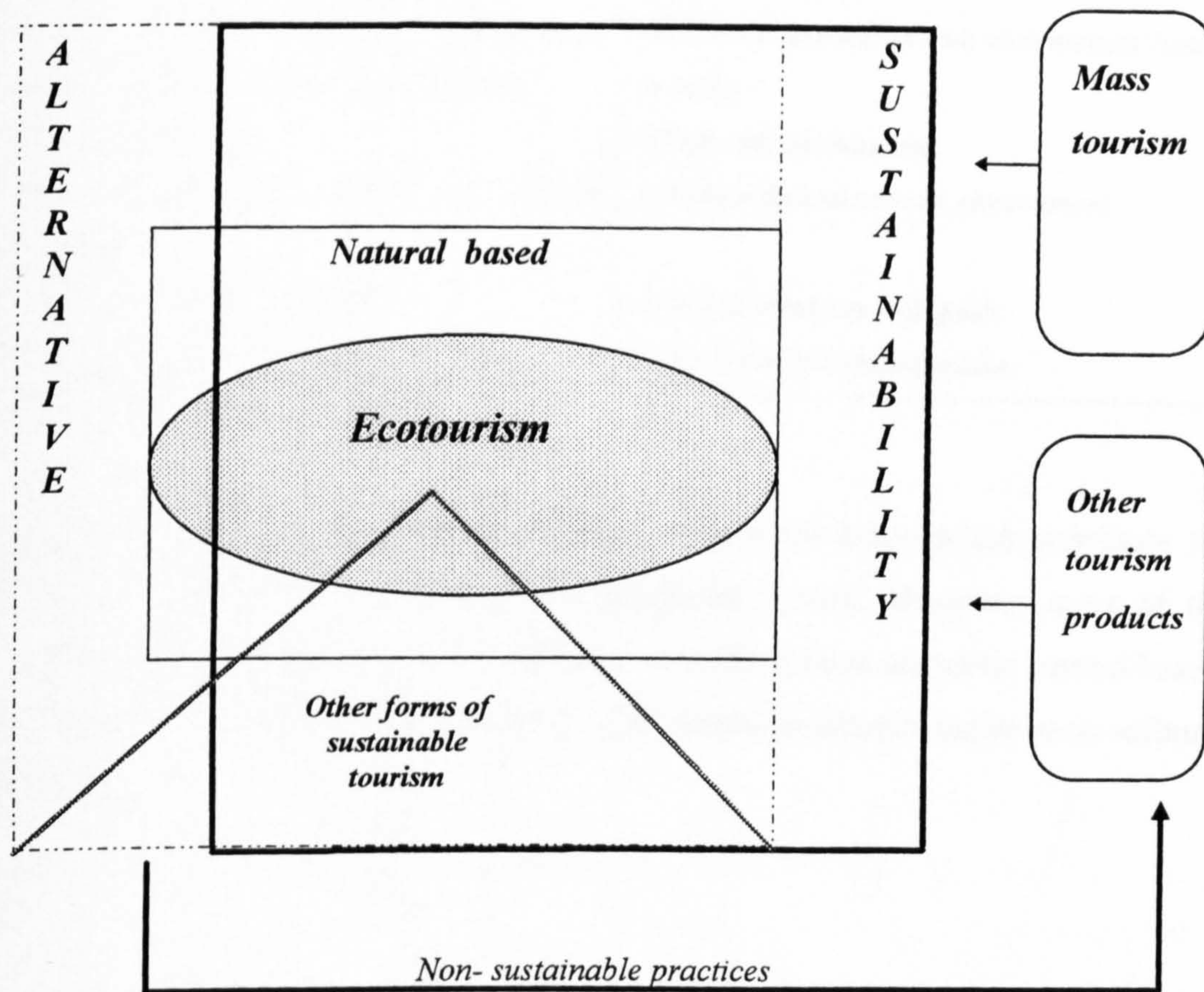
Generally critics, however, questioned ecotourism on a platform of its ideologically biased nature, elitist scope, short-sighted principles, anti-democratic tendencies, and unsustainable nature. In particular they claimed that ecotourism is *ideologically biased* because ecotourists often conform to certain codes of conduct (Machlis and Bacci, 1992). A charge of *elitism* is based on the premise that ecotourism destination areas can become exclusive nature resorts where the indigenous population is often not included (Machlis and Bacci, 1992). The *myopia* of ecotourism is that it cannot solve the problems of the whole tourism industry, and *anti-democratic* tendencies are expressed through an often stressed de-emphasis of cultural and indigenous populations through management decisions (Machlis and Bacci, 1992). The *sustainable nature* has been questioned on the basis that ecotourism lacks repeat visits and the support of national political actors to ensure that the setting of ecotourism can afford the required protection for long term survival (Machlis and Bacci, 1992).

Others suggested that it is not a necessity to make a distinction between tourism and ecotourism in that both concepts should be considered 'as woven into a broad fabric of tourism and should not be limited by artificially trying to categorize the phenomenon' (Commonwealth of Australia, 1995:10). On the other hand, Blamey (1995a, b; 1997) suggested that converting all forms of tourism to ecotourism is not appropriate, as it goes against the principles of sustainability. Hence, it is suggested that ecotourism could be treated as a sub-component of the natural-based market, based on strong environmental management grounds and as such representing an example for environmental management practices for other forms of tourism (Blamey 1995a, b; 1997).

Taking into consideration all the latter suggestions of ecotourism's position within tourism, figure 2.4 presents all the linkages of ecotourism with the other forms of tourism. Ecotourism is treated both as a sub-component of alternative tourism and as natural-based tourism, being mainly part of the concept of sustainability. In addition, other forms of sustainable tourism have claimed to have similarities with ecotourism as well as being part of both nature-based travel and alternative tourism (see figure 2.4). For example, ecotourism has claimed to have some similarities with soft ecotourism

(Zalatan and Ramirez, 1996), nature-orientated tourism (Durst and Ingram, 1988), nature tourism (Wilson and Laarman, 1988), nature-based tourism (Valentine, 1992) sustainable tourism (Ioannides, 1995; Achama, 1995) and wildlife tourism (Roe et al, 1997).

Figure 2. 4 The position of ecotourism within the tourism products spectrum



On the other end of the spectrum, both mass tourism and other forms of tourism such as events / festivals, conference and business tourism, are searching for sustainability in their practices and as such are placed outside the sustainability borders. Ecotourism characteristics are opposite to those of mass tourism especially the experiential aspects of both concepts (see table 2.2). Finally, certain practices of alternative, nature-based, ecotourism, and sustainable forms of tourism which have practiced unsustainable principles are situated outside the borders of sustainability and have been re-positioned with other tourism products which are searching for sustainable practices [see figure 2.4].

Table 2.2 Experiential dimensions of ecotourism and mass tourism

<i>Ecotourism</i>	<i>Mass tourism</i>
Experience is not contrived	Experience is contrived
Product is not commodified	Product is commodified
Emphasis on education and understanding	No emphasis on education and understanding
Unknown elements are strong in experience	More familiar elements in experience
Does not require constant entertainment	Requires constant entertainment
Intense interaction with the environment, including the cultural and natural elements	Superficial interaction with environment (natural or built)
Fragile environment	'Hardened' environment
Activities depended on natural and cultural environment	Activities depend on built environment
Intimate relationship with guide	Casual relationship with guide
Small group size for experience	Large group size for experience

Source: Post in Jaakson, 1997: 37

Inevitably, this view raises another dilemma, that of the items which constitute the concept of ecotourism in terms of its definitional nature. However, most of the previously examined definitions of ecotourism contained three elements: natural-based, educational, sustainable management which all include economic and/or socio-cultural issues.

2.4 NATURAL-BASED COMPONENT

All the ecotourism definitions regardless of their stance (active or passive) included the natural-based component. The inclusion of the natural-based component in the definition of ecotourism in a number of cases has not been equated with the sustainability element, as the current efforts focus on the former rather than the latter to operationalise the concept (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998). This emphasis creates certain limitations on the estimates of the size of the ecotourism market, all suggesting that the current estimates of the market size of ecotourism actually refer to the size of the nature tourism market (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998). Here, the destinations of developing nations such as Central and Latin America, the Caribbean as well as in Australia, New Zealand, and Antarctica claimed to be associated with the natural-based component of ecotourism activities (Australia Department of Tourism, 1994; Achama, 1995; Courrau, 1995; Boo, 1990, 1991a, b, 1992, 1993; Boyd and Butler, 1993, 1996a, b; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987, 1991a, b; 1993a, b, 1996; Dearden, 1995; Ziffer, 1989; Weaver, 1998; Wight 1993a, b; Dowling, 1996).

Limited ecotourism practices have been assigned to less exotic landscapes of the industrialized world, although there are certain claims that this trend may be changing (Boyd and Butler, 1993). This claim was the outcome of a response to the potential benefits that ecotourism may offer marginal local economies, and also in part to the realization that there may be a declining number of natural attractions available that can be marketed as ecotourism destination areas in the traditional tropical regions (Boyd and Butler, 1993: 21). As ecotourism has developed in these traditional tropical regions, the natural-based experiences have been seen to take place in the protected areas (Ziffer, 1989; Boo, 1990; Valentine, 1993; Agardy, 1993; Barnes, 1996), which is 'an area dedicated primarily to the protection and enjoyment of natural or cultural heritage, to maintenance of biodiversity, and/or maintenance of ecological life-support services' (IUCN, 1991 in Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996: 29). Apart from the protected areas, other attractions include the national parks, wildlife and biological reserves, coastal and marine areas, which are simultaneously used by both natural-based tourists

and ecotourists (Laarman and Gregersen, 1996; Laarman and Durst, 1993; Long, 1991; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Agardy, 1993). Thus, it was claimed that the setting in which ecotourism operates includes the 'legally protected areas' as they offered a guarantee of their long term attractivity (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996). The attractivity of these protected areas however, remains in some cases an illusive goal. For instance in Central America, Asia and Africa protected areas are facing serious internal and external problems (Courrau, 1995; Laarman and Durst, 1993).

Some of the issues related to protected areas are habitat fragmentation, negative impacts from development including activities from ecotourism and illegal activities within protected areas such as poaching and deforestation (Boo, 1990; 1991a, Courrau, 1995; Laarman and Durst, 1993). Meanwhile, according to Goodwin (1996), managers of protected areas could turn nature tourism into ecotourism, based on the motivation of their consumers, in other words at the point of consumption or based on a sound management strategy both in terms of numbers and activities (Boo, 1991a, b, 1992, 1993). In this case, the Australia Ecotourism Strategy claimed that ecotourism is a small subset of nature-based tourism, in that it operates in the natural settings or protected areas focusing on its biological, physical and cultural features, which in turn are essential attributes to the planning, development and management of ecotourism (Australia Department of Tourism, 1994; Richins, 1994; Dowling, 1995a, b, 1996; Blamey, 1995a, b; 1997).

In general terms, natural-based tourism has been claimed to contain three main components (Valentine, 1992: 109):

- *Firstly* the nature of experience which is nature-dependent, containing attributes such as intensity of interaction with nature, and social sensitivity;
- *Secondly*, the style of this experience, where different product elements such as willingness to pay, group size and type, and length of stay are considered to be of significance; and
- *Thirdly*, the location of the natural-based tourism experience, such as accessibility, ownership of location, and the fragility of the resources used.

In light of these suggestions, the natural-based component of ecotourism has inevitably generated certain similarities with ecotourism, in terms of the common setting used by both forms of tourism (McKercher, 1995, 1998). However, the initial setting component of ecotourism (protected areas) has been criticised from the sense that it is too restrictive, on the platform that ecotourism promotes mainly the conservation and environmental issues of non-protected areas (Blamey, 1995a; 1997; Bottrill and Pearce, 1995: 48).

Research on attitudes towards the protected areas however, suggested that in the Victoria's Alpine National Park of Australia, around a quarter of the sample expressed negative attitudes towards ecotours or nature-based tours in the park (McKercher, 1995: 229). The overall results revealed that the people in question feared the potential environmental destructiveness of the park (McKercher, 1995), a view which opposes the long term attractivity of ecotourism if it operates in protected areas (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996). It was suggested that in order to dispel these concerns, ecotourism could take place either in protected or non-protected areas, but with a strong emphasis on conservation and educational components (Blamey 1995 a, b, 1997).

Further, a distinction also emerged between these two concepts from the definitional evidence, in that natural-based tourism 'refers to travel motivated totally or in part by interests in the natural history of a place, where visits combine, education, recreation, and often adventure' (Laarman and Gregersen, 1996: 247), hence referring to tourists interest in traveling to specific destinations. In addition, nature tourism includes the marketing of natural elements to tourists, as well as the enjoyment of nature (Goodwin, 1996: 287-288). On the other hand, all the definitions of ecotourism tend to proclaim that this concept relates to a type of integrated tourism with a particular emphasis on nature conservation (Goodwin, 1996; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Dowling, 1995a, b).

Moreover, these characteristics of ecotourism in natural settings were suggested to be similar to the concept of wilderness recreation in North America (Boyd and Butler, 1993: 11), or simply a new name for an old activity (Wall, 1994: 4; Nelson, 1994: 248). On this point it was suggested that ecotourism represents a changed pattern of visitation to the natural areas, supported with a change in the stakeholders strategic

goals attached to these ecotourism visitation patterns, hence it is not directly linked with historic recreational activities (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997: 66). However, research on legitimacy of ecotourism focused on the crisis of stakeholders roles stemming from their different expectations and lack of institutionalized standards for ecotourism practices (Lawrence et al, 1997).

This research showed that the enhancement of the natural-based component of ecotourism, requires an approach that evaluates the different frameworks of stakeholders involvement at three different levels (Lawrence et al, 1997: 314-315). At the ecotourism enterprises level the emphasis is on the change of perceptions, at the organisational field the focus is on collaboration, and at the industry level the emphasis is on management and marketing issues (Lawrence et al, 1997: 312). As with any case of tourism product development, the natural-based component of ecotourism often relies on the degree of cooperation between various providers of this product, and as such the conflict interest between these parties is inevitable (Charters, 1995).

A minimization of such conflict could ideally be assisted by facilitating formal training, information educational programs and industry networks (Charters 1995; Chester, 1995; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Weaver, 1998; Wight, 1993a, b; Panos, 1995), as well as management of the different sub-elements of ecotourism components such as recreational activities.

2.4.1 Activities and the natural-based component

Initially, the activities of natural-based tourism can be distinguished into three main categories (Valentine, 1992: 110): *activities dependent on nature* (i.e. birdwatching); *enhanced by nature* (i.e. camping); and *activities in which the natural setting is incidental* (i.e. swimming). For instance, in a discussion concerning the classification of water-recreational activities, Smarton (1988) lists four generalized types of recreation activities- *kinetic, situation-based, harvest-based and substitution-based*. It was claimed, that because ecotourism would discourage a consumption use of natural resources, the harvest-based experience does not apply to activities such as hunting, and the collection of flora and fauna (Smarton, 1988). The other three forms mentioned claimed to be included in ecotourism activities (Smarton, 1988):

- kinetic experiences were the non-mechanically powered activities such as hiking, diving, swimming;
- situational based experiences entail the strong association with the destination as a unique characteristic; and
- substitution or aesthetic experiences which includes observation of natural phenomena such as birdwatching.

In addition, Duffus and Dearden (1990) treated the activities in terms of human and wildlife interaction. They suggested that the continuum of human and wildlife interaction can be treated in terms of consumptive use to non-consumptive use. The non-consumptive use activities are those in which the organism is not affected by the human interaction such as birdwatching, whale-watching, nature walks, and natural photography. On the opposite side, the consumptive use activities impose certain purposefully intended impacts on the organism such as forms of hunting and fishing (Duffus and Dearden, 1990:215-216). They further added low consumptive use activities, which are those related to observation purposes in certain attractions such as zoos, animal parks, and scientific research. Although *their proposed framework for ecotourism management and their classification of the ecotourists will be presented in the following parts of this analysis*, their attempt mainly emphasized that ecotourism activities should be non-consumptive orientated (Duffus and Dearden, 1990; Hvenegaard, 1994).

In comparing all the latter approaches, the emphasis on ecotourism related activities focused on educationally orientated recreation activities, and on the enhancement of knowledge through non- consumption usage of the natural resources. In addition, all the activities are assessed on whether or not they enhance and/or protect the environment. In particular, Lawrence et al (1997) claimed that the major strength of the concept is that of its difference from other traditional forms of tourism, whereas its weakness arises from the tension between profitability and its altruistic goals (Lawrence et al, 1997: 308), or between protection and profit goals (Ziffer, 1989). In all the cases, the natural-based component of ecotourism is based on the biological, physical, and cultural features both in protected and non-protected environments, in which the sustainability and/or conservation elements should signify its practices.

2.5 SUSTAINABLE MANAGEMENT COMPONENT

The emphasis on sustainability recognises the ecological and cultural elements as a key guiding principle in the management of human activity from ecotourism (Australia Department of Tourism, 1994; Richins, 1994; Dowling, 1995a, b; Blamey, 1995a, b; 1997; Sano, 1997). Especially for ecotourism purposes there have been certain suggestions that this sector should emerge with the so-called '*nature-centered planning*' syndrome (Figgis, 1994). In that the "tourism should be adjusted to nature's needs not nature to tourism's needs, or to adopt the jargon of economics, ecotourism should be supply-driven not demand-driven" (Figgis, 1994: 130).

Figgis (1994), argued that tourism-centered planning views that the natural area must be modified to meet the demands of tourism whereas the nature-centered planning treats nature as a resource that should meet all the human needs, in this instance the needs of this service sector. Although there is a well-defined point with this approach, the issue which comes to light is similar to the limitations that have been observed within sustainable tourism development. The issues of geographical equity, single-sector development planning, resources utilisation and usage, and type of sustainability are at the heart of this debate. Therefore, it is clear that the tourism industry has to abolish the 'tourism-centric' syndrome and however defined it must adopt a more sustainable based approach [see chapter 1].

In addition, Nelson (1994) suggested that this concept offers no solution for the environmental losses, and lacks the equity and ethics perspective of sustainability. Ecotourism is taken to be no different to other forms of tourism, as it still has to be planned and managed on the basis of sustainability. Further, he pointed that it is imperative that the goals, prospects and opportunities for ecotourism be defined in economic, social and environmental terms, and operate on the grounds where they are being proposed, given that conditions will vary from destination to destination (Nelson, 1994).

In examining the issues of sustainability within ecotourism however, it is generally associated with the direct and indirect cost and benefits of the impact of tourism on the natural environment, economy, and local communities from destination to destination (Blamey, 1995a, b, 1997; Weaver, 1998) [see table 2.3].

2.5.1 Environmental impacts

The most proclaimed positive issue is ecotourism's contribution to sustainable resource management through conservation of the natural resources on a direct or indirect basis (Commonwealth of Australia, 1993, 1995; Cater, 1993, 1994; Blamey, 1995a, 1997; Dearden, 1995; Australia Department of Tourism, 1994: 11; Boo, 1990; 1991a, b; 1992; Wild, 1994; Karwacki and Boyd, 1995; Buckley, 1994; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987, 1996; Ziffer, 1989; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998; Agardy, 1993; Sano, 1997; Laarman and Durst, 1993; McLaren, 1998; Dowling, 1996) [see table 2.3].

Although this represents a shift from the tendency of protecting the environment towards the enhancement of the quality of resources (Wild, 1994: 13), it is generally achieved through the enhancement of biodiversity. The term biodiversity or biological diversity was defined as “the variety of all life forms, the different plants, and micro-organisms, the genes they contain and the ecosystems of which they form a part” (Commonwealth of Australia, 1995: 11). In this case, biodiversity conservation is taking place at three different levels, that of genetic diversity, species diversity and ecosystem diversity (Commonwealth of Australia, 1993, 1995; Australia Department of Tourism, 1994: 11; Boo, 1990; 1991a, b; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996).

Certain cases around the globe illustrate attempts to benefit from certain aspects of biodiversity conservation. For example in Australia, the protection of the ecosystem diversity assisted in the provision of a water supply, nutrient cycling, and waste assimilation (Commonwealth of Australia, 1995: 12). In Costa Rica the conservation of the ecosystem offered positive incentives to deforestation programs (Karwacki and Boyd, 1995), as well as assisted in the preservation of marine resources in the Caribbean (Weaver, 1998; Karwacki and Boyd, 1995). In Central America, benefits included the stimulation of national pride, historical value through cultural and natural sites, and ecological benefits through watershed protection, and medicinal contributions from pharmaceutical products from tropical forests (Courrau, 1995: 17).

Table 2. 3 Hypothetical costs and benefits of ecotourism

<i>Environmental impacts</i>	
<u>Direct Benefits</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides incentive to protect environment, both formally (protected areas) and informally • provides incentive for restoration and conversion of modified habitats • ecotourists actively assisting in habitat enhancement (donations, policing, maintenance, etc) 	<u>Direct Costs</u> <p>danger that environmental carrying capacities will be unintentionally exceeded, due to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • rapid growth rates • difficulties in identifying, measuring and monitoring impacts over a long period • idea that all tourism induces stress
<u>Indirect benefits</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • exposure to ecotourism fosters broader commitment to environmental well-being • space protected because of ecotourism provide various environmental benefits 	<u>Indirect costs</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fragile areas may be exposed to less benign forms of tourism (pioneer function) • may foster tendencies to put financial value on nature, depending upon attractiveness
<i>Economic impacts</i>	
<u>Direct benefits</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • revenues obtained directly from ecotourists • creation of direct employment opportunities • strong potential for linkages with other sectors of the local economy • stimulation of peripheral rural economies 	<u>Direct costs</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • start-up expenses (acquisition of land, establishment of protected areas, superstructure, infrastructure) • ongoing expenses (maintenance of infrastructure, promotion, wages)
<u>Indirect benefits</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • indirect revenues from ecotourists (high multiplier effect) • proclivity of ecotourists to patronize cultural and heritage attractions as 'add-ons' • economic benefits from sustainable use of protected areas and inherent existence 	<u>Indirect costs</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • revenue uncertainties to in situ nature if consumption • revenue leakages due to imports, expatriate or non-local participation, etc. • opportunity costs • damage to crops by wildlife
<i>Sociocultural impacts</i>	
<u>Direct benefits</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ecotourism accessible to a broad spectrum of the population • aesthetic/spiritual element of experiences • fosters environmental awareness among ecotourists and local population 	<u>Direct costs</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • intrusions upon local and possibly isolated cultures • imposition of elite alien value system • displacement of local cultures by parks • erosion of local control (foreign experts, in-migration of job seekers).
<u>Indirect benefits</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • option and existence benefits 	<u>Indirect costs</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • potential resentment and antagonism of locals • tourist opposition to aspects of local culture (e.g. hunting, slash-burn agriculture).

Source: Weaver, 1998: 21

While ecotourism-related practices enhance the symbiotic relationship, there are numerous cases showing certain antagonistic impacts (Weaver, 1998; Boo, 1990; Karwacki and Boyd, 1995; Wild, 1994; Haysmith, 1995; Figgis, 1994; Wade, 1994; Panos, 1995; Ayala, 1995; Dowling, 1996; Dimanche and Smith, 1996; McLaren, 1998; Boyle and Samson, 1985).

Here, Wall (1994) claims that ecotourists visits to fragile landscapes, in conjunction with the timing of such visits, together with the potential of small group sizes increasing into mass tourism sizes are among the reasons for the appearance of such impacts. Mainly, the antagonistic impacts were also classified to occur either on a direct or indirect basis (Weaver, 1998; Lindberg and McKercher 1997; McKercher, 1998), or an 'on-site' and 'off-site' basis (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997) [see table 2.3]. These concerns are taking place in such a manner that there are certain similarities between the environmental impacts of tourism and those of ecotourism (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Figgis, 1994; Weaver, 1998; Haysmith, 1995) [see table 2.4].

Boyd and Butler warned that the only positive issue concerning the environmental impacts of ecotourism is the small size of these impacts, on the basis that ecotourism is treated 'as being a less demanding form of tourism and tourist' (1993: 30). However, they pointed out that the scale of the impact is in fact meaningless, as it only requires a small amount of ecological change to result in irreparable damage (Boyd and Butler, 1993: 30).

In general terms, the impacts from ecotourism on nature are diverse, as these also reflect visitors activities and behavior (Haysmith, 1995). Certain research showed that the response of wildlife appears to be dependent upon the particular behavior of visitors who have contact with wildlife (Kusler, 1991a, b; Haysmith, 1995). Cases have demonstrated differential impacts to plant and animal species with some species exhibiting high sensitivity (Kovacs and Innes, 1990) and others showing low sensitivity to visitor disturbance (Boyle and Samson, 1985). Antagonistic impacts were also noted in cases where certain animals or species that are more sensitive altered their behavior and activities to completely avoid contact with visitors, resulting in potential long-term existence (Haysmith, 1995).

Table 2.4 The nature of antagonistic environmental impacts of ecotourism

<i>Activity/Factor</i>	<i>Nature of impacts</i>
<i>Extraction of resources</i>	Deforestation, mangrove clearance, effects on species and ecosystems
<i>Harvest of firewood and timber</i>	Habitat modification, disturb small mammals, erosion, and ecological change
<i>Improper dumping of waste</i>	Damage to species and ecosystems, poor water quality
<i>Untreated waste</i>	Poor water quality
<i>Inadequate disposal of waste</i>	Disturb wildlife movements
<i>Infrastructure development in ecological regions and protected areas</i>	Disturbance to breeding and wildlife that cause effects on reproduction
<i>Intensive use of visitors</i>	Changes in wildlife behavior, disturbance to plant community
<i>Traffic in the form of hiking, congestion on trails and rivers</i>	Trail erosion and disturbance on vegetation and wildlife, soil compaction, impacts on sea turtle nesting and reproduction
<i>Vehicle traffic: auto, boat, fishing and hunting</i>	Disturb wildlife, displacement from nesting, avoidance or emigration, mortality, potential over-harvest, competition with predators
<i>Purchase of souvenirs</i>	Threatened species availability, disrupt natural process
<i>Noise and litter generation</i>	Disrupt natural sounds, wildlife, natural scenery, aesthetic and health hazard, disrupts animal distribution
<i>Feeding wildlife</i>	Behavior changes, poor nutrition, dependence on artificial food supply
<i>Introduction of exotic plants and animals</i>	Effects on resident species, morality between species, removal of vegetation
<i>Snorkeling and diving</i>	Damage to corals from fins, removal of organism

Source: Durst and Ingram, 1988; Boo, 1990; Boyd and Butler, 1993; Weber, 1993; Hummel, 1994; Figgis, 1994; Haysmith, 1995; Commonwealth of Australia, 1995; Douglas, 1995; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Weaver, 1998.

Wildlife feeding as a common feature within ecotourism also creates certain issues of concern (Figgis, 1994; Haysmith, 1995; Kovacs and Innes, 1990). One is the welfare of the animal as tourists feed the animals unsuitable foods hence leading to nutritional problems (Figgis, 1994; Haysmith, 1995). The second issue concerns the degree of interaction with these species, as certain contact with animals will give visitors an impression that animals are there for human instant gratification, to be handled and 'consumed' (Figgis, 1994; Haysmith, 1995). This situation will then lead to the demands that other species also be made available, and that the respect for wildlife's rights irrespective of their utility value for humans will not be developed (Figgis, 1994). Meanwhile, the capacity of a setting to absorb visitor impacts influences the characteristics of the tour product and its environmental sustainability (McArthur and Gardner, 1995).

As an ecotourism setting focuses on areas with the least resilience in both the protected and non-protected environment, certain limitations arise in terms of mode of transportation, activities, and destinations, while potentially causing certain antagonistic impacts (McArthur and Gardner, 1995; McLaren, 1998). Another issue of concern deals with the quality control of the ecotourism experience (Weber, 1993; Eagles, 1995). Certain cases in Africa, showed that visitors seem to be sensitive with issues such as condition of trails, ability of guides, information availability, and group sizes (Weber, 1993). In Rwanda for instance, the initial limit of six visitors per daily group was increased to eight people in order to increase the visitation patterns. As a result complaints about displacements from the guide, limited visibility, jostling occurring, all revealing that an expanded group size resulted in lower visitor appreciation (Weber, 1993: 143-144).

In addition, constraints with carrying capacity issues and their effects on the site modifications and development exist as certain ecotourism destinations are moving from the exploration to development stage of their product-life cycle (Weaver, 1998: 24-25). In general terms, ecotourism is facing the problems of classification, observation, monitoring and interpretation of its environmental impacts (Lindberg et al, 1998; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Sano, 1997; Dimanche and Smith, 1996; Blamey, 1995a, b, 1997; Weaver, 1998; Weber, 1993; Eagles, 1995; McLaren, 1998).

One of the recent attempts to overcome this limitation was derived from the World Wildlife Fund's (WWF) natural resource assessment, using a geographical information system (Sano, 1997: 13). WWF has synthesized, in collaboration with other organizations an attempt for a global biodiversity assessment through the so-called representation approach, to identify two hundred of the globe's most fragile marine and terrestrial ecosystems (Sano, 1997: 14-15).

In turn, it was proclaimed that this will assist the different actors to strategically place certain funding mechanisms for conserving these ecoregions (Sano, 1997: 14-15). In addition to this attempt, the techniques of carrying capacity (Butler, 1996b; Collins, 1996, Inskip, 1991; Williams, 1991, 1994; O'Reilly, 1986), environmental control (Butler, 1996b), environmental impact assessment (Williams, 1994; Hunter, 1995a) and environmental auditing (Goodall, 1992, 1994; Stabler and Goodall, 1993; Diamantis and Westlake, 1997) simultaneously remain as controversial and important. Finally, the environmental impacts of ecotourism are appearing at an alarming rate more in terms of costs and less in terms of benefits to the environment, all an indication that certain limits to support conservation via significant economic growth and welfare should be found.

2.5.2 Economic impacts

The direct and indirect benefits which are derived from biodiversity conservation, represent the fundamental goal of ecotourism, by attracting visitors to the natural settings and using the revenues to fund conservation and fuel economic development (Commonwealth of Australia, 1995: 12; Cater 1993, 1994; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Dearden, 1995; Ziffer, 1989; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998; Panos, 1995; Steele, 1995; McLaren, 1998; Weaver, 1998) [see table 2.3].

Regularly, one of the strategies to integrate conservation and development is through the so-called Integrated Conservation and Development Projects (Brandon, 1996; Weaver, 1998; Dominguez and Bustillo, 1995; Simpson, 1995). These types of projects aim to finance conservation by intensifying and developing commercial activities that encourage the preservation of the natural habitats (Brandon, 1996; Dominguez and Bustillo, 1995; Simpson, 1995).

Although the effectiveness of such projects has been argued on the basis of their cross-purpose impact through the exploitation of the ecosystem (Brandon, 1996), others have raised such projects and introduced new terms in order to narrow down their limitation, that of commercial Integrated Conservation and Development Projects (Simpson, 1995: 2). In short, these types of projects aimed to (Simpson, 1995):

1. improve the economic welfare of the destination,
2. provide valuable tools for publicizing conservation;
3. lay the mechanism by which consumers can contribute to conservation,
4. increase contribution in the form of donations.

Further, another critical issue in such efforts at a local level highlights the financial source for conservation through fees or based on the user-based principle (Tisdell, 1994: 8, 1995: 384; Wild, 1994: 13; Fillion et al, 1994: 235-240; Brandon 1996: 7-16; Barnes, 1996: 382-384). Although this issue concerns more the protected areas (Brandon, 1996; Tisdell, 1994, 1995; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Barnes, 1996) it was claimed that destination's which are dependent on high visitation patterns at local (specific national parks) and national levels, could rejuvenate economic revenue to support its entire park system (Brandon, 1996: 7; Dominguez and Bustillo, 1995: 34).

This has been demonstrated by ecotourists stating a willingness to pay more to support the conservation of the destination areas (Boo, 1990, 1991; Lindberg, 1991, Lindberg and Huber, 1993, Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998; Simpson, 1995; Weaver, 1998). The principle of willingness-to-pay represents a measure of the economic value of the natural area (often protected areas) to ecotourists, which has been used in a number of cases to increase public support and funding, for such areas irrespectively of its relevance to user fees (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997: 74). In turn however, the ability to increase revenues depends on the visitors willingness to pay for an ecotourism experience (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997: 74). Nevertheless, there are five main mechanisms to capture the revenue from these sites (Brandon, 1996: 8; Lindberg and Huber, 1993: 102-103): user fees; concessions; sales/royalties; taxation and donations.

Another alternative is indirect collection where park entrance fees are paid by tourism operators who include the fees in their tour package price, or other sectors of the tourism industry (Lindberg and Huber, 1993: 102). The financial income which these mechanisms generate has been suggested as representing a source of conservation in only a few countries, as in most of the cases the funds are not handed to the agencies which manage the parks but to the central treasury of the destination areas (Brandon, 1996; Boo, 1990, 1991a, b; Lindberg, 1991; Lindberg and Huber, 1993; Weaver, 1998).

There are numerous case-studies which revealed this failure of maintaining the financial sources to the parks (Weaver, 1998; Brandon, 1996: 10), all of which suggest that a fee structure modification is necessary through the establishment of funds in special accounts for protected areas, or earmarking a certain percentage of parks fees for individual parks (Dominguez and Bustillo, 1995: 36; Brandon, 1996; Lindberg and Huber, 1993).

In turn, funds for protected areas can be used as counterpart funds to secure larger grants, only in circumstances where protected areas are able to have their own source of external funds mechanism (Brandon, 1996: 10-11; Boo, 1990, 1991a, b; Lindberg, 1991; Weaver, 1998; Dominguez and Bustillo, 1995: 36-37). In every case, a central point to fund generation concerns issues of regulation and its associated monitoring mechanism for such park accounts (Dominguez and Bustillo, 1995: 36).

Next, an increased practice concerns the economic rationale to value its natural attraction stock, such as in the case of the game fees in Tanzania from which 12% is contributed by lions, 12% by leopards, 8% by a zebras, and 2% by elephants (Roe et al, 1997: 37). This technique is used to forecast certain incomes for the areas where the revenue should be re-generated towards the preservation of these sites (Brandon, 1996; Weaver, 1998; Dominguez and Bustillo, 1995). Hence, it appears that the so-called fair market pricing of wildland resources can serve as a way of justifying protected areas to governments (Brandon, 1996; Weaver, 1998).

In turn, such a public body could directly increase fees to secure more revenue and indirectly ensure the sustainable management of such natural stocks, in the form of maintenance of the biodiversity (Brandon, 1996; Weaver, 1998) [see table 2.3].

Although, this may represent one of the advantages of ecotourism, in that it enables natural areas to become self-financing, others have claimed that certain considerations should be given based on the following reasons (Tisdell, 1994):

- a) The social optimal limitations to charge fees which enhance the financial turnover of the protected areas;
- b) When the costs and difficulties of collecting fees are taken into consideration, it may not be economically worthwhile to impose charges for the use of protected areas;
- c) The economic value of a protected area cannot be assessed from the income perspective as there are both on-site earnings as well as off-site benefits. As a result income earned from on-site visits is liable to underestimate the economic value of the protected areas;
- d) The concern is that if the emphasis is placed on the achievement of self-financing protected areas, the incorrect conclusion may be drawn whereby a protected area which can not finance itself should not be protected from an economic perspective (p.8).

Further, taking as an example a non-protected area in this case the region of the Caribbean, similar observations have emerged. Here, it was claimed that adequate and unequal sources of finance were not distributed in these regions (OAS and IIC, 1995). In fact, both the domestic development banking sector and commercial leading agencies indicated that requests for funding such tourism ventures have been few (OAS and IIC, 1995), all an indication of the low level of awareness of ecotourism possibilities and the lack of viable projects. This study concluded that certain reforms are necessary throughout the regions in order to facilitate financing for ecotourism related projects, in a form of co-ordination/joint ventures between the different actors, or the formation of a fixed body (OAS and IIC, 1995: 22-26).

In Russia however, it was suggested that high local capital investment for ecotourism should be avoided (IRG, 1995). The reasoning behind this approach is based on the lack of ecotourism infrastructure availability, as well as knowledge of ecotourism and as such it was suggested that any investment funding must arise from international organizations or conservation community groups (IRG, 1995: 4).

The overall results of the study pointed that ecotourism generates nearly \$465,000 of additional income to the local communities, with the employment effect generating an average of 8.4 full-time equivalent years of employment in the seven examined sites (IRG, 1995: 2). In general terms, the employment generated by ecotourism development, represents one of the tangible benefits attributed to the society (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997). The level of employment however, seem to be varied around the world as a result of differences among destination components, although there are claims that in certain rural areas even a small increase in employment greatly affected the local economic structure (Lindberg, 1991; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998; Weaver, 1998).

Further, other critics of the economic value of ecotourism suggest certain limitations as a result of both the product availability for consumption in the true wilderness settings, and the small size of the ecotours which do not generate enough revenue for the local economy (Wall, 1994; Boyd and Butler, 1993). In addition, problems have been encountered with the economic inefficiency of the open access sites of ecotourism in certain regions such as Thailand and Nepal, all raising issues of ownership and policy instruments (Steele, 1995). In turn, only by changing ownership structures, regulations, and economic instruments will this situation improve (Steele, 1995). There is also some criticism on investment in ecotourism, both from the private and social perspective, as only positive private returns can enhance the conservation benefits of ecotourism (Tisdell, 1995). In the case of private investment failure, there will be some indirect consequences of the area management in order to generate funds for the nature conservation purposes (Tisdell, 1995).

In short, among the economic benefits of ecotourism there is a fear that the presence of an economic imperative suggests that growth is possible in the direction of mass tourism (Wall, 1994; Dimanche and Smith, 1996; Warren and Taylor, 1994). In avoiding this scenario, efforts should be placed to measure the capital stocks of the destinations through an appropriate accounting framework such as environmental balance sheets, and measurement techniques of the capital flows such as the travel cost methods and the maximum sustainable yield method (Fyall and Garrod, 1997; Goodall and Stable, 1997) [see chapter 1].

2.5.3 Social/cultural impacts

The sustainable component of ecotourism often attests certain direct and indirect socio-cultural benefits and costs at the sites and/or at the destination level [see table 2.3]. Generally speaking, it was proposed that the assessment of the cultural impacts of ecotourism can be based on four criteria (Brandon, 1996: 17-19): commodification element; culture affecting social change; cultural knowledge; and cultural patrimony elements. Alternatively, Weaver (1998: 27) refers to Sherman's and Dixon's (1991) classification of the option and experience benefits of ecotourism from the clientele perspective. The option benefits refer to the individual's satisfaction of having just one option of visiting natural attractions, while the experience benefits refer to the individual's satisfaction of knowing that certain conservation efforts are occurring in the natural attractions (Weaver, 1998).

In reviewing the socio-cultural impacts from the host community perspective, the promotion of socio-development is channeled through both protected and non-protected areas, and deals with the enhancement of community involvement (Harvey and Hoare, 1995; Brandon, 1996; Weaver, 1998; Dominguez and Bustillo, 1995; McLaren, 1998), or community-based conservation (Horwich et al, 1993) [see table 2.3]. Community involvement is seen to highlight the ability of local communities to influence the outcome of the development process that has an impact upon local communities (Larsen and Wearing, 1994; Brandon, 1996; Weaver, 1998; Horwich et al, 1993; McLaren, 1998). Thus, the community managed ecotourism development process allows communities to decide what type of growth the community needs, and hence assist to manage the impacts (Larsen and Wearing, 1994; Brandon, 1996; Weaver, 1998; Horwich et al, 1993).

In general terms, the involvement of local people could generate a sense of pride and a form of ownership, and simultaneously act as a buffer against certain sources of investment outside the local area (Harvey and Hoare, 1995; Boyd and Butler, 1993; Boo, 1990; Larsen and Wearing, 1994; Brandon, 1996; Weaver, 1998; McLaren, 1998). It further creates opportunities for diversification through new forms of ecological enterprises, or the so-called 'farming of exotic plants and animals'

(Karwacki and Boyd, 1995: 227). Hence, the provision of local and regional benefits were claimed to involve a commitment from providers of ecotourism experiences, to equitably distribute benefits to the local community, even though in certain cases ecotourism enterprises may be based in other communities or involve national or multinational ownership (Australia Department of Tourism, 1994; Richins, 1994; Dowling, 1995a, b; Blamey, 1995a, b).

Ecotourism can also raise awareness of the value of traditional crafts and cultural interchange in two different perspectives (Healy, 1994; Harvey and Hoare, 1995). Firstly, ecotourists post-trip attitudes may be different as a result of a better understanding enhanced by the destinations conservation and cultural issues (Harvey and Hoare, 1995). These tourists may become active or volunteer in some conservation or cultural events in their own community (Harvey and Hoare, 1995; Australia Department of Tourism, 1994; Blamey, 1995a, 1997). Secondly, the host can benefit especially from the sale of tourism merchandise, as it can be involved with the ecotourism activities through cultural/sustainable product development, use of local materials, which in turn can be used as a tool for educating ecotourists about the resources and the local culture (Healy, 1994).

In addition to these pros of ecotourism, Wallace (1992) suggests the role that ecotourism has as a model of sustainable community development, based on the claim that the link between conservation of resources and the sustainable development needs of local people is inseparable. With regards to the following points, Wallace maintains that ecotourism may be said to be truly ecological and ethical when it:

- Views natural areas both as 'home to all of us' in a global sense and 'home to nearby residents;
- Entails a type of use that minimizes negative impacts to the environment and the local people;
- Contributes to the management of protected areas and to the relationships between local people and those managing protected areas;

- Directs economic and other benefits to local people and maximizes their participation in the decision process that determines the kind and amount of tourism that should occur;
- Promotes authentic two-way interaction between hosts and visitors as well as an interest in sustainable development in both the host and the home country;
- Supplements or complements traditional practices without attempting to replace them and making the local economy more robust and less susceptible to rapid change; and
- Provides special opportunities for local people or nature tourism employees to also utilize natural areas and learn more about the natural and cultural attractions (1992: 7).

In turn, however, certain case-studies have highlighted that a limited amount of economic benefits remain at the local level (Dimanche and Smith, 1996; Boo, 1990; Weaver, 1998; Harvey and Hoare, 1995; McLaren, 1998), and others raised the significance of these incentives and high community involvement levels (Dominguez and Bustillo, 1995; Brandon, 1996). Further, the impacts of tourists on the society and culture of a host country is related to the type of tourism, the nature of the tourism activity and the economic and social structures of the host country (Karwacki and Boyd, 1995; Richins, 1994; Dowling, 1995a, b; Blamey, 1995a, b; Wallace 1992; Wight, 1993a, b; Brandon, 1996; Achama, 1995; Courrau, 1995; Boo, 1990, 1991a, b, 1992, 1993; Boyd and Butler, 1993; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Larsen and Wearing, 1994; Wearing, 1993; McLaren, 1998).

In this context, the development of ecotourism sites has led to local populations being removed from their land (Swanson, 1992; Dearden and Harron, 1992; Harvey and Hoare, 1995). Once ecotourism was established, the local community were unable to return to their territory, and as such were engaged in other activities such as agriculture (Karwacki and Boyd, 1995; Brandon, 1996; Achama, 1995; Courrau, 1995; Boo, 1990; Boyd and Butler, 1993; Larsen and Wearing, 1994; Wearing, 1993). Others have also claimed that ecotourism is often found in areas where practices by the indigenous population have more often than not been sustainable and relatively environmentally benign (Swanson, 1992).

In other situations, such as in Northern Thailand, local residents may relocate to non authentic village sites in order to cater/perform to the misperceptions of ecotourists (Swanson, 1992; Dearden and Harron, 1992). Another social concern is that the goals of ecotourism which are often long term in nature, are markedly different than the short term goals of local people such as stabilizing local agriculture, and assisting with the local building infrastructure (Wallace, 1992). On this point, Boyd and Butler (1993: 31) claimed that an overall antagonism may be created towards the ecotourist, as a result both of his/her degraded attitudes towards the environment, or because ecotourism benefits bypass the indigenous population.

In all the cases attention has to be given to the facilities and local purchases of services and provisions, as well as on the employment and involvement of the local population in ecotourism operations and decision making (Australia Department of Tourism, 1994; Richins, 1994; Dowling, 1995a, b; Blamey, 1995a, b; Boyd and Butler, 1996a, b). This can be achieved through planning and monitoring, together with an educational provision as well as a certain level of local control (Boo 1991 a,b, 1992, 1993; Ayala, 1995; Wearing, 1993).

2.6 EDUCATION/INTERPRETATION COMPONENT

The education characteristics of ecotourism were claimed to be a key element which distinguishes it from other forms of nature-based tourism, in that it is based on the development of a program by ecotourism operators and/or a destination authority (Australia Department of Tourism, 1994; Richins, 1994; Dowling, 1995a, b; Blamey, 1995a, b; Larsen and Wearing, 1994; Boo, 1990; Wight, 1993a, b; Laarman and Durst, 1993). These types of programs often include the natural areas (protected and non-protected) attributes, in an attempt to educate the visitors and locals about the function of the natural setting (Brandon, 1996).

It was claimed that there two main types of environmental education within the protected and non-protected areas (Blamey, 1995a,b, 1997):

- *Firstly*, education in terms of species and genetic diversity which takes the form of simple observation and in depth learning. Here, there is some form of gazing, either in terms of intensive interaction with certain species, or simply observing certain species. Although it was claimed that this type of gazing in the natural settings is different from in-depth learning about certain subjects (i.e. geology, ecology), it includes a form of on-site educational experience, all reflecting the needs of the consumers; and
- *Secondly*, education in terms of ecosystems diversity and how to minimize the conflict of environmental functions derived from tourism activities. This type of educational experience can be seen as including both general information about the ecology as well as certain codes of conduct, in turn there was a claim that these codes of conduct refer to these individuals who least need it. In addition, different responses emerged from individuals before the tour and during the tour, as codes utilization did not allow ecotourists to become more environmentally-committed.

In both these types of educational experiences the role of interpretation was implied to be at the center of their framework (Larsen and Wearing 1994; Orams, 1995b; Masberg, 1996; Blamey, 1995a, b, 1997; Boo, 1990; Wight, 1993a, b; Weaver, 1998; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Prentice, 1997; Budowski, 1995; Munoz, 1995). Orams (1995b: 84) refers to Tilden (1957) when he expands on interpretation as “an

educational activity which aims to reveal meanings and relationships through the use of original objects by firsthand experience, and by illustrative media rather than simply to communicate factual information". Generally, the utilization of interpretation offers the following benefits (Cooper, 1991: 226):

- enhances visitors awareness and knowledge of the destinations attributes;
- fosters visitors behavior and attitudes towards specific sites and/or sensitive areas; and
- enhances the role of the community of the destination areas.

In this setting, interpretation can be an effective management tool for ecotourism reserves from the hosts, the visitors and the environment perspective (Larsen and Wearing, 1994; Orams, 1995b; Masberg, 1996; Boo, 1990; Wight, 1993a, b; Weaver, 1998; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Budowski, 1995; Munoz, 1995). Much of the discussion on interpretation concentrates on value enhancement (Prentice, 1997: 227), through planning frameworks which were illustrated mainly by a six phase management process (Cooper, 1991: 226-229; Masberg, 1996: 37-38; Orams, 1995b: 90-91).

In particular, for ecotourism purposes a situation specific model appeared to take place in three phases (Forestell, 1993: 271-275): *pre-contact*, *contact* and *post-contact*. The focus of the *pre-contact interaction* tended to be skill-orientated programs focusing on the anticipation and apprehension of the participant. During the *contact interaction*, the provision of specific scientific information about the species, genetic and ecosystems diversity was provided in such a manner that it facilitated the participant's ability to observe the different relationships between organisms, rather than having these identified by the guide. During the *post-contact phase*, the emphasis was placed on the enhancement of the participants ecologically-sensitive behavior patterns, by providing a number of programs to further ecotourists environmental goals [membership to certain groups, volunteer programs, signing a petition etc.] (Forestell, 1993).

Although this model represents one of the first attempts in ecotourism settings, Orams (1995b) argues that not all the ecotourism programs can be designed in these three stages, in that there is a need to utilize a range of strategies or techniques for

increasing the effectiveness of interpretation. In turn, he suggested that interpretation should enhance some elements of the cognitive learning theory, that of cognitive dissonance, affective domain, motivation/incentive to act, opportunity to act and the evaluation and feedback (Orams, 1995b: 87-90). These techniques should then be offered as a 'menu' from which certain strategies can be implemented (Orams, 1995b). In all the cases, he pointed to the lack of interpretation programs in ecotourism, especially regarding the empirical effectiveness of such techniques (Orams, 1995b).

Others however, brought to light certain issues concerning the effectiveness of the planning process, by suggesting that there is a need to integrate an external needs assessment (Masberg, 1996). Here, the argument is that the current interpretation programs of ecotourism concentrate on the input of internal sources, or providers of a particular organization. Hence, Masberg's study showed that by utilizing a regular assessment, based on the needs of the professionals, the public and the recreation providers, ecotourism interpretation programs can be effective as they espouse a regular customer input (1996: 48-50). This input can be utilized in order to assist with the development of the programs, identifying content needs of specific visitors groups or as a tool to formalize decision making procedures (Masberg, 1996: 49).

Another tool used to primarily enhance the external market needs is the provision of training programs (Haase, 1995; Weiler and Crabtree, 1995; Jacobson and Robles, 1992; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Laarman and Durst, 1993). The role of training programs for ecotourism purposes is to provide a specialist knowledge and expertise to actors involved within ecotourism, either on a formal or informal basis (Haase, 1995; Weiler and Crabtree, 1995; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Laarman and Durst, 1993). The limitations of establishing a training program were believed to be reflected from the diversity and fragmentation of the stakeholders involved in ecotourism (Weiler and Crabtree, 1995; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996), as specific training programs mainly differ in orientation and level of complexity (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996: 176).

Consider for instance, the content themes of two training programs in Australia and Costa Rica. There are some similarities in terms of the resources management needs, low impact methods of operations, its indigenous culture and its interpretation, as well

as its customer profiles (Weiler and Crabtree, 1995; Jacobson and Robles, 1992), however research in Australia revealed that the focus of the training should be on 'guide up-skilling', rather than 'entry-level guide training' (Weiler and Crabtree, 1995: 189).

In contrast in Costa Rica, the training program focused on the enhancement of certain goals by providing conservation education to local people, to visitors, and to the community sector (Jacobson and Robles, 1992: 702). The outcome of the training effectiveness of these training programs was also diverse. In Australia among other recommendations, there was a clear need to establish a single body to co-ordinate the ecotourism training, as well as allow the actors of ecotourism to design their own training plan, and to focus on specific issues such as indigenous interpretation (Weiler and Crabtree, 1995: 189). In Costa Rica, the training recommendation was related more to wildlife interests, and less on knowledge concerning the local culture and indigenous people (Jacobson and Robles, 1992: 712).

In all the cases, there is a lack of empirical evidence of both interpretation and training effectiveness for ecotourism purposes (Haase, 1995; Weiler and Crabtree, 1995; Jacobson and Robles, 1992; Larsen and Wearing 1994; Orams, 1995b; Masberg, 1996; Blamey, 1995a, b, 1997; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Prentice, 1997; Budowski, 1995; Munoz, 1995). This stems from evidence that both these tools have to reflect the specific setting in which they are applied to, in addition to the fact that they should convey the needs and demands of both stockholders and customers (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996). In every single case however, there is wide recognition that both interpretation and training can enhance the symbiotic rather than the antagonistic relationships, in this case between natural resources and ecotourism (Cooper, 1991; Forestell, 1993; Orams, 1995b; Masberg, 1996; Prentice, 1997; Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996).

2.7 ALTERNATIVE CONCEPTUAL APPROACHES AND EVALUATION

There were a number of conceptual attempts since ecotourism articulation to adopt a new paradigm perspective for development based on either a sustainable stance, (Swanson, 1992; Wight, 1993a, b, 1996), which is the interrelationship with specific ecotourism-related components or activities (Fennel and Eagles, 1990; Eagles, 1995; Hvenegaard, 1994; Duffus and Dearden, 1990), and general management evaluation procedures (Wallace and Pierce, 1996; Weaver, 1998).

Initially, Swanson (1992) emphasised five main components to reflect a sustainably ethical responsible stance for ecotourism as it was not proclaimed as a panacea for all the limitations of tourism development, but as one element of the wider conservation and development mechanism:

1. *valuing nature for its own sake*, accounting for inter-and intra generation equity;
2. *planning and acting to control risk*, through monitoring of the ecotourism impacts, operationalizing short term plans with an emphasis on rural and community development of ecotourism;
3. *recognizing real limits to growth*, by adopting the spaceship-earth concept to ensure that ecotourism is controlled and managed so that areas are not negatively affected;
4. *believing in the need for a new society*, and illustrating through ecotourism to involve capitalism which has a rural small scale orientation and sensitivity in terms of environmental issues; and
5. *reliance on individual participation*, demonstrated in terms of employment, local control and experiences.

In a similar vein, Wight (1993b: 57; 1996: 3) suggested that the desired state of sustainable ecotourism emerges from an ethical responsibility and behavior based on the three interrelated sets of goals model. The overall objective of this holistic model is to fulfill a balanced goal achievement across three spheres simultaneously, that of *the economic, social and environmental*. The economic system goals, include benefits to both the locals and the industry, and the social goals include benefits to the community, and participation in planning, education and employment (Wight, 1993a,

b; 1996). On the other hand, the environmental goals involved benefiting the resources, recognition of its limits and values, and attempts for non-degradation of the resources which involved supply-orientated management procedures.

Consequently, the interrelation of these initiated three common themes, that of conservation with equity, followed by environment-economy integration and community based economics, and finally the desired state of sustainable ecotourism from an ethical stance (Wight, 1993a, b; 1996). Wight's approach suggested that the model could identify those elements that are not in an equilibrium position, and as such the effectiveness of ecotourism operations could be assessed (1993b: 56). At a latter stage, she also proposed that these principles represent the desired state of ecotourists behavior at the destination level (Wight, 1996: 2).

In comparing the latter two approaches, there are some similarities as far as the ethical responsibility stance is concerned. An interesting similarity can be drawn with the alternative conceptual attempts within the sustainability concept (see chapter 1). Inevitably, the same limitations also apply in this case, that of the impracticability to raise all the goals of sustainable ecotourism simultaneously, as there is some conflict between inter-and intra- system goals and the need of choices among the goals which are more valuable and relevant. This also has to take into account the ecotourism enterprises managerial goals and objectives in both the presented model's, as well as the vagueness of Swanson's conservation and development mechanism components. Based on these weaknesses other models appeared to give emphasis to specific aspects of ecotourism components or activities (Fennel and Eagles, 1990; Eagles, 1995; Duffus and Dearden, 1990; Hvenegaard, 1994).

Firstly, Fennel's and Eagle's (1990: 26-33) conceptual framework was related to the *ecotourism resource tour elements*. The resource tour was treated at the center of their framework, and was supported by the *service industry and the visitor management elements*. The tour contained key environmental resources attributes and trip characteristics, while the service industry elements were the tour operation, resource management, and community interaction attitudes (Fennel and Eagles, 1990: 27-30). On the other hand, the visitor management elements included the marketing, visitor management, and visitor attitudes (Fennel and Eagles, 1990: 31-33).

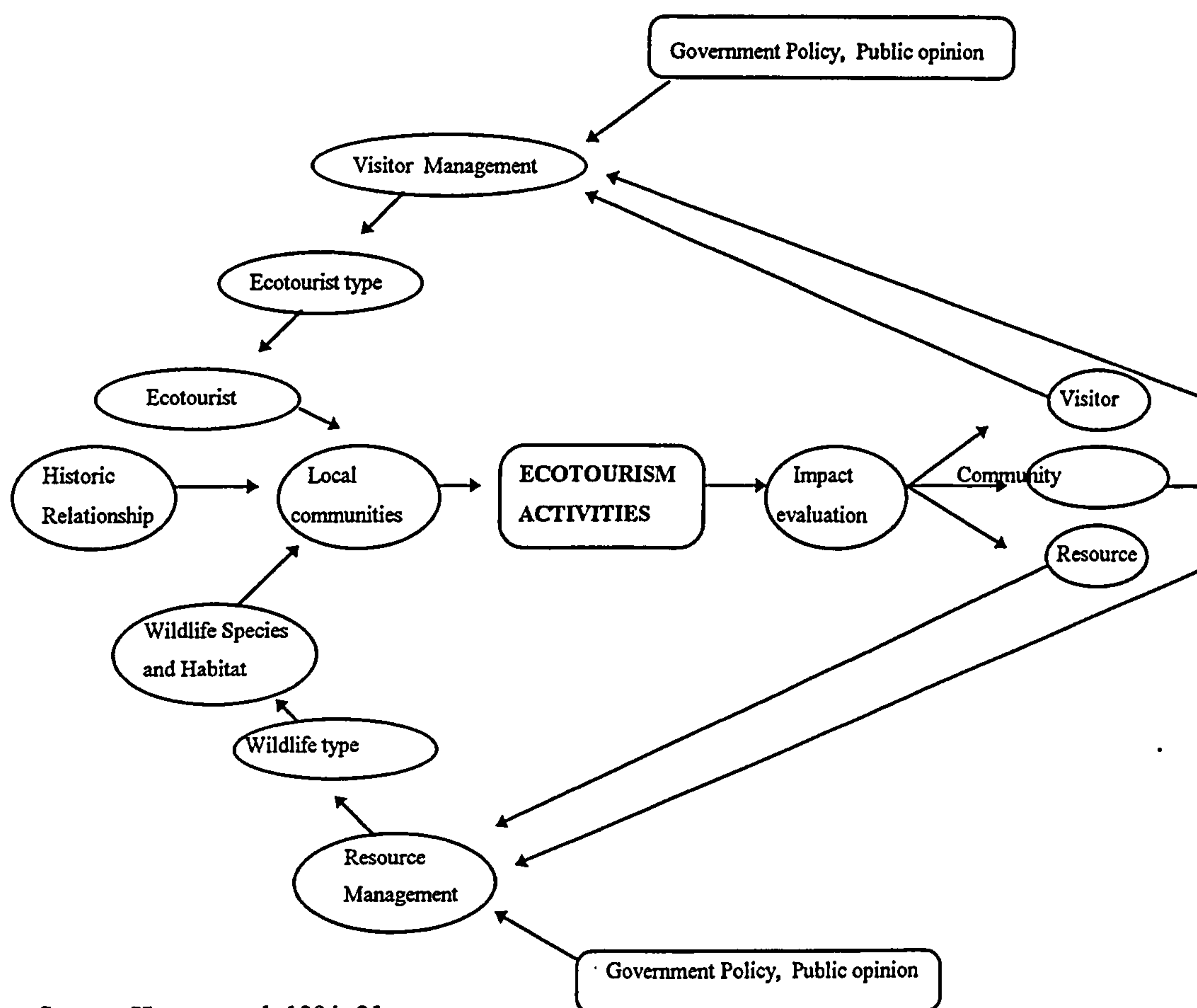
In particular, the visitor attitudes were related to nine components relevant to an ecotour experience, such as air travel, accommodation, meals, and access to an areas activities (Fennel and Eagles, 1990: 32-33). This model was initially developed to measure ecotourism in Costa Rica, and as such it was criticized as not being presentable as a general tool for ecotourism analysis (Hvenegaard, 1994: 30). Most of its components were alleged to be very simplistic such as in the case of the resource tour that does not include the independent ecotourist segment, another perceived weakness was resource management as it does not highlight the real and perceived nature of the impacts (Hvenegaard, 1994: 30).

Secondly, Duffus and Dearden's (1990: 217) non-consumptive wildlife recreation framework highlighted three elements: *the focal species or species groups, the human or wildlife user, and the historical relationship of human and wildlife relationships*. The focal species or species groups is divided to non-consumptive wildlife use which 'requires a predictable occurrence of the target species within a fairly small spatial area' (Duffus and Dearden, 1990: 220), and the establishment of the behavioral and reproduction benchmarks which establish an assessment process of species disturbance supported by certain management actions (Duffus and Dearden, 1990: 220-221). The human or wildlife user includes individuals who participate in the observation, and photography of certain organisms in an attempt to obtain satisfaction as well as to partake in particular activities.

In turn, the activities are based on a set of antecedent conditions ranging from personality to psychological variables (Duffus and Dearden, 1990: 221). Finally, the historical context highlights the influences on the demand for wildlife contact through the human impact on animal species, and by the cultural conditioning of historical perceptions of species and interactions (Duffus and Dearden, 1990: 218-219). A criticism of this model emanates from the lack of both stakeholders or actors involvement, as well as the participation of the local communities (Hvenegaard, 1994: 29). To these limitations can be added the undefinable setting of ecotourism operations (protected or non-protected areas), and the impact evaluation of the economic and/or social nature of ecotourism.

Thirdly, Hvenegaard's (1994) model adopted the latter model and extended its use by incorporating the local communities and sites [see figure 2.5]. These four components give rise to ecotourism which was further described on the basis of its type, duration, and intensity (Hvenegaard, 1994: 31-32).

Figure 2.5 An integrated conceptual framework of ecotourism phenomena



Source: Hvenegaard, 1994: 31

This model mainly enhances all the interactions between the different actors involved within ecotourism management, supported by an emphasis on impact evaluation which includes the visitor, community and resource elements (Hvenegaard, 1994). Hvenegaard also suggested that the model ought to be used for planning and management purposes with a particular emphasis on its evaluation and interaction over time. Although the model is a sound attempt for ecotourism management, it does not

include the specific procedures and/or indicators of evaluating the impact of this phenomenon. Neither, does it address any of the detailed aspects of the actors involvement within the ecotourism management process, or trade-offs between any other sectors of the economy. Based on these limitations, a recent attempt of ecotourism management incorporates a general management evaluation framework in terms of environmental indicators at the destination level (Wallace and Pierce 1996).

The general management indicators evaluation framework can be expressed from the six principles based on the utilization of certain generic indicators scores, which evaluate the definitional perspective and application of ecotourism (Wallace and Pierce 1996: 848-851):

- *Entails a type of use that minimizes negative environmental and social impacts:* indicators used included group size, mode of transportation, attitudes of local people, and impacts on the ecosystem;
- *Increases the awareness and understanding of an area's natural and cultural systems for both local's and ecotourists:* indicators included financial incentives for conservation projects, training abilities of the guides, and interpretative activities;
- *Contributes to conservation and management of legally protected and other natural areas:* indicators included trips to protected areas, regulation usage, information on protected areas, and development of management and infrastructural plans.
- *Directs economic benefits to local community in such a manner that it complements existing economic activities:* indicators included local employment, usage of natural resources, services to local population and rise or decline in the diversity of economic activity;
- *Incorporates the local community during decision making over ecotourism development issues:* indicators included ownership of ecotourism ventures, local attitudes towards tourism, number of local committees and training programs; and
- *Opportunities provided to both local population and nature tourism employees to increase their knowledge about the natural areas:* indicators included amount of local participation in nature tour activities, number of special days/events, and usage of a multitiered fee structure.

Wallace and Pierce's approach has been applied mainly in evaluating the ecotourism enterprises in the Amazon, and as such it provides an attempt to categorize the impacts of ecotourism at one aspect of its operations (1996). Although, limitations surrounding the methodological procedures of environmental indicators together with the selection of these six principles could minimise its effectiveness, it does represent the first attempt to identify the specific issues and pitfalls surrounding ecotourism. For instance, a tension was illustrated between a low awareness of a set of principles (3, 4, 6) by the ecotourism enterprises, and a high awareness of these principles by the tour operators (Wallace and Pierce, 1996: 862).

Overall, the operationalisation of indicators to identify the contradictions within the concept of ecotourism lies on the perspective in which one examines this concept. Clearly, ecotourism involves three main components and each component advocates a variety of elements which influence its management. These elements have to be addressed from a more specific development perspective, in particular on the platform which lacks a 'tourism-centric' notion.

On the other hand, each of these elements have to reflect the different trade-off scenarios over the operationalisation or definitional perspective, on the passive to active spectrum. In every single component however, the supply side of ecotourism has to practice certain techniques which can enhance the concept as an adaptive paradigm, based on the debate over the methodologies for its management procedures. In turn, the demand side should initially discover its niche markets with the consumers which are immersed in this form of travel, and then form techniques in managing the concept at this side of the tourism system.

2.8 ECOTOURIST BEHAVIOR PERSPECTIVE

It has been proclaimed that there is some difficulty in defining ecotourists behavior due to either, the lack of clarity of its definition and/or the nature of its activities (Ballantine and Eagles, 1994; McKercher, 1998; Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Blamey, 1995a, 1997; Blamey and Braithwaite, 1997; Dowling, 1995a, b; Ashton, 1991; Weiler and Richins, 1995; Reingold, 1993). In particular, *there is evidence to illustrate that few people are 'primary-purpose' ecotourists as they tend to focus a small or a large subset of their experience on other forms of tourism such as festival, cultural, rural interest* (Blamey, 1995a, b, c; 1997; Chapman, 1995; Pearce and Moscardo, 1994; Blamey and Braithwaite, 1997). Currently, there is confusion among the studies concerning the behavior of ecotourists as there are a variety of types, criteria, and settings, all determining that this kind of research is at its early stages. In an attempt to review certain studies, this section will attest these elements from a variety of perspectives in order to set the ground for researching the behavior of the UK's ecotourists by using the concept of involvement.

2.8.1 Types of ecotourists

There were several general types of ecotourists scattered throughout the literature, with Wilson and Laarman (1988) initially classifying ecotourists according to the *'hard' and 'soft' dimensions*. The hard, or dedicated natural history ecotourists includes professional scientists, such as geologists, and botanists, as opposed to soft or casual natural history ecotourists who combine nature-orientated travel with other tourism activities. When the interest of the travelers and the physical rigor of the actual experience are taken into account, hard ecotourism includes trekking in undeveloped regions, and accepting poor sanitary conditions. In contrast, soft ecotourism equates to travel where the tourist stays in quality accommodation and uses an established mode of transportation.

Blamey (1995a) used the same distinction from a different perspective. *Hard ecotourists* are influenced by the need to undertake an ecotourist activity and spend a sufficient amount of time partaking in such activities. On the other hand,

soft ecotourists were classified as those individuals who take up one ecotourism activity for at least one day of their whole vacation. The same author also proposes an alternative way of distinguishing hard-soft ecotourism, which is in terms of the physical difficulty involved (Blamey, 1995a). Here, hard ecotourism refers to hard adventure-based recreation activities such as mountaineering and white-water kayaking, while soft ecotourism refers to soft adventure-based recreation activities such as commercial white water rafting (Blamey, 1995a: 17-18).

In contrast, others recognize four basic categories of ecotourists (Lindberg, 1991: 3):

- **Hard-core:** this group includes scientific researchers and tour groups specifically designed for education, sciences and environmental restoration;
- **Dedicated:** these are persons who take trips specifically to see protected areas and who showed interests in the local, natural and cultural history;
- **Mainstream:** this category refers to individuals visiting jungles, rivers, and other wildland destinations primarily to partake in an unusual trip; and
- **Casual:** these individuals experience nature incidentally in the context of their vacation.

Recently, Weaver's classifications (1998: 16-17) suggest a more general direction, with his use of the term *passive ecotourist* who views this form of travel as one element of their trip, and *active ecotourist* who would travel to destinations for the main purpose of ecotourism, or in other words the primary purpose ecotourist. The same author also proposed two different types of ecotourists, that of the *stayover ecotourist* who would stay overnight in an ecolodge-type of accommodation, and *excursion ecotourists* who would utilize other types of accommodation outside the ecotourism setting (Weaver, 1998: 224-225).

In comparing all the latter classifications of ecotourists, a limitation which arises is that they are based on vague principles which lack backup data such as socio-demographic criteria, as well as specific information on the sample criteria and selection (Blamey, 1995a, 1997). Other studies however, used certain classification criteria to depict the ecotourist, in this case the group sizes and the methods of travel during an ecotourism activity (ERM, 1995).

In particular, three types of ecotourists were proposed for the state of Queensland in Australia, that of the: *Self-reliant group of ecotourists; small group ecotourists; and popular group ecotourists* (ERM, 1995: 13).

Here, the first type, includes individuals or a group (less than ten) who utilize non-motorized forms of transport (i.e. walking) to visit a remote or an undisturbed area. These individually dependent ecotourists demonstrate '*unusual levels of involvement that often require a high degree of challenge*' (ERM, 1995: 13). Their activities were: bushwalking, birdwatching, camping and canoeing.

The second type, is formed by these individuals or a group (less than fifteen) who utilise non-motorised and motorised forms of transport (i.e. car or small boat) to visit certain remote areas outside the tour boundaries. These types of ecotourists are from a variety of age groups, and they are characterized by moderate to high levels of challenge and self-reliance. Their activities were: forest drives, specialized dive trips and guided motorized trips (ERM, 1995: 13).

The third type, includes individuals who travel in larger groups to visit different natural attractions, and as such require a high capacity motorised form of transport. These types of ecotourists are from a variety of age groups, and they acknowledge a low requirement for both self-reliance and the degree of challenge. Their activities were: boat trips, bus tours and viewing certain attractions.

With respect to Queensland's classification of ecotourists, a criticism which surfaces is that while they contain a substantial educational and interpretative component, they do not occur in and depend on a natural setting and are therefore not exclusively the subject of ecotourism (Dowling, 1995a, b). Weiler and Richins (1995) suggested the *minimal and extreme* type of ecotourists. The former type of ecotourists have low levels of environmental commitment in terms of minimising environmental impacts, they are passive observers who seek a soft physical challenge. The latter type seeks to enhance the environment in terms of its biodiversity through an active and intense interaction with the environment, and they seek an intellectual and physical challenge. In addition Wight (1996) refereed to Boyd and Butler's classification as *ecotourists specialist and ecotourists generalist*. The former type includes those ecotourists who engaged in a recreation activity for more than seven days whereas the latter type was

those who were dedicated for less than 48 hours. On the other hand, Mowforth (1993: 2) proposed three types of ecotourists:

- The *rough or pioneering* ecotourists who are young to middle aged people that travel individually or in a small group and use local facilities particularly for sport and adventure tourism;
- The *smooth or patronizing* ecotourists who are middle to older aged individuals that travel in groups, stay in luxury accommodation, with a particular interest in nature and safari tourism; and
- The *specialist or oblivious* ecotourist has an age group that spans across all the categories, as do their interests in terms of accommodation, and traveling, and they partake in a specific investigation or interest.

Similarly, Ashton (1991: 92-93) used three main categories: *casual visitor, long distance and foreign ecotourists and causal ecotourists*. The *casual visitor* was defined as a tourist with a specific intention of participating in recreation. These ecotourists do not have any particular interest in wildlife activities, rather they tend to relax at the wildlife setting. It was claimed that these ecotourists tend to directly affect the economy of the destinations as well as requiring the greatest capital outlay for services and infrastructure.

The *second type* of Ashton's classifications, deals with the frequent international ecotourist who has a general interest in natural history and wildlife. The majority of them tend to be middle to older-aged females, with income at around £ 27,000 (\$50,000), and they travel with one companion. The *causal ecotourists* are individuals with a specific interest in wildlife or habitat. These ecotourists have a particular interest in the wealth of the ecosystem, and try to avoid contact with ecotourists outside their own tour group. Under the causal ecotourist, two main groups were identified (Ashton, 1991: 93):

- *Consumptive causal ecotourist*, with interests in activities such as hunting, fishing, plant collection and research; and
- *Non consumptive causal ecotourist*, with interests in activities such as wildlife viewing, birdwatching, and natural photography.

Kusler (1991a, b) also indicated three types of ecotourists:

- The *do-it-yourself* group are independent travelers who travel to developing countries to view exotic nature-orientated sites, where they depend upon available transportation of the area and inexpensive accommodation. Independent travelers represent all age groups, socio-economic classes and purpose of visit;
- The *ecotourists on tours* group, represents people who go on tours such as safaris in exotic and inaccessible areas, where they require only specialised transportation and accommodation. Group travelers tend to be females or retired individuals;
- The *school/scientific* group tend to be like the tour groups, in that they book in advance and travel together. However, they often tend to view ecotourism from a specific scientific and educational perspective, and as such they tend to be more sensitive to resources, and the values and needs of the other ecotourists. Scientific groups represent all age groups, socio-economic classes and purpose of visit.

Finally, there are some studies to illustrate the misinterpretation of the types of ecotourists. Consider for instance, Warren and Taylor's (1994) approach which utilizes previously 'general tourist types' to form the type of ecotourist for New Zealand. The typologies used were related to the *explorer, elite, off-beat, incipient mass, mass and charter* (Warren and Taylor 1994: 26). Their brief evaluation was based on the specialised experience continuum, as tourists are moving from less specialised to mass numbers, all without any further justification. In comparing all the latter types, the greatest limitation which exists is that they showed a general profile of ecotourists based on early attempts to categorize the ecotourist behavior pattern. In most of these cases there are no sound research attempts to segment their characteristics, based on a pre-established parameter for sample selection. Inevitably, this has been reflected in a variety of behavioral studies which contain distinct characteristics.

2.8.2 Ecotourist profile studies

There are conflicting views in terms of the personal characteristics of ecotourists among the research studies (see table 2.5). Albeit their difference in sample sizes and countries of research, similarities do exist in terms of education characteristics of these individuals as the majority of them tend to have a degree orientated background (see table 2.5). All these studies tend to reflect three grounds of research settings, most of which have been conducted in North America and Australia.

- *Firstly*, those who refer to the general motivation evaluation;
- *Secondly*, those who utilise a segmentation approach based on the division of heterogeneous groups of ecotourists; and
- *Thirdly*, those who use other specific marketing tools i.e. involvement.

Taking the **first category**, an example of such studies is that of Canadian ecotourists (Williacy and Eagles, 1990; Eagles, 1992a, b; Kretchman and Eagles, 1990; Eagles and Cascagnette, 1995; Eagles et al, 1992; Eagles and Wind, 1994; Ballantine and Eagles, 1994). Here, under the same program five different studies were undertaken which revealed a distinct profile of the ecotourists in terms of their personal characteristics (Eagles and Cascagnette, 1995: 26; Williacy and Eagles, 1990; Eagles, 1992a; Kretchman and Eagles, 1990; Ballantine and Eagles, 1994) [see table 2.5].

In one of these studies two different types of motivational domains were used that of attraction and social motivations (Eagles, 1992a, b; Ballantine and Eagles, 1994). The former type refereed to statements reflecting the desired attractions of the destination, while the latter attested opinions about goals and personal interaction with others (Eagles, 1992a, b; Ballantine and Eagles, 1994). Overall the results showed that the statement with reference to the participation of the respondents within an ‘undisturbed natural setting’, enjoyed the highest mean of importance, followed by learning about nature, photography landscapes, being in tropical forests, lakes and streams, and being physically active (Eagles, 1992a, b; Ballantine and Eagles, 1994). *Quite interestingly, all the motivations were related to both the educational and natural-based elements of ecotourism, without any reference made to the sustainability element.*

Table 2.5 General characteristics of ecotourists among selected studies

Studies	Characteristics
Ingram and Durst (1989) [USA]	Age: 31-50 years (52%); Over 50 years of age (23%) Gender: <i>The majority were females</i> Other: 68% were alone
Boo (1990) [Latin America]	Age: 44 years of age Gender: Both males and females Other: Traveling with groups Accommodation: No specific preferences
Reingold (1993) [Canada]	Age: Between 55-64 years of age Education: 64.9% with a university degree Gender: <i>64% were females</i>
Weiler and Richins (1995) [Australia]	Gender: <i>Single females (69%)</i> Age: Between 26-35 years Education, Income: High levels
US Travel Data Center (1992) [USA]	<u>Total market 117 million</u> Gender: 50% males and 50% females Age: 18-34 (40%); 35-49 (30%); and 50+ (30%) Education: High school or less (42%) Some College (26%) College (32%) Income: Less than \$20K (18%) \$20K-\$30K: (20%) \$30K-40K (20%) \$40+ (42%)
Silverberg et al (1996) [USA]	Gender: 79.8% of males Education: 54.5% degree holders Income: 79.34% above \$30,000 Other: 72.54% travel with the family Hotel/motel (47%), campgrounds (24%) Three trips per year on average 5.7 days average length of stay
Eagles and Cascagnette (1995) Williacy and Eagles (1990) Eagles, (1992a, b) Kretchman and Eagles (1990) Eagles et al (1992) [Canada]	Age: Between 49-54 years Education: Degree (over 60% on average) Incomes: High Gender: <i>Females</i>

Wight (1996, 1997) HLA and ARA (1994) [Canada]	Age: Most between 25-54 years Gender: Both males and females Education: High educational levels Accommodation: Various but preferably cabin, lodge and tent, bed & breakfast, hotel/motel, and ranch Other: 45% pay \$1,500 per person on vacation 50% members of environmental groups
Pearce and Moscardo (1994) [Australia]	Gender: 56% were males Age: Average age of 42 years Other: More than 15 days (72 %) 55.1% obtain information from FR
Twyman and Robinson (1997) [USA and Canada]	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>First survey</u></p> Gender: 53.6% were males Status: 81.5% were married Age: 30-49 years: 52.5%, 50+ years: 39.7% Education: University: 50.2%; Postgraduate: 16% Incomes: 64.3% above \$40,000 Accommodation: Motel (42.8%), Tent (16%) Other: 17.6% members of environmental groups 10.9% members with outdoor group <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Second survey</u></p> Gender: 64.2% were males Status: 57.6% were married, 36.8% were single Age: 30-49 years: 60.9%; 50+ years: 14.2% Education: University: 71.9%; Postgraduate: 5.7% Incomes: 69.2% above \$40,000 Accommodation: Tent (38.3%), Motel (31.6%) Other: 36.2% members of environmental groups 21.2% members with outdoor group
Chapman (1995) [Australia]	Gender: 52% were females Education: Over 30% were degree holders Age: 30+ years of age (over 60%)
Jamrozy et al, (1996) [USA]	Gender: Male natural-based tourists Age: Middle to older aged Education: Some university qualifications Incomes: The majority above \$50,000 Other: Two or more trips per year Travel with families

The respondents were also interested in traveling to different cultural, historic and environmental sites. In addition, ecotourists showed a tendency to certain activities which do not relate to being in natural areas, i.e. visits to rural and historic attractions (Eagles, 1992a, b). In terms of the social motivations, ecotourists were attracted to certain individualistic types such as a simpler lifestyle, escape from the demands of life, and adventurous. On the other hand, social motivations less important to ecotourists were that of being together with their family, do nothing, visiting friends and relatives (Eagles, 1992a, b).

Next, Wight (1996, 1997) also researched the profile of Canadian ecotourists with the results pointing to a mixed ratio of both males and females (see table 2.5). She distinguished between motivations related to nature, to outdoor activities, cultural activity and other types (HLA and ARA, 1994). Looking at the three highest scored natural related motivations, to enjoy the scenery and nature (45%), followed by wildlife viewing (15%), and see the mountains (14%), showed that ecotourists *tended to select the natural-based rather than educational components*. Here, the specific educational motivation, that of to study/learn nature/culture, was selected only by 10% of the sample (HLA and ARA, 1994:15). In terms of the accommodation preferences, the majority of the ecotourists preferred to stay in the cabin, lodge inn and tent, all indicating a mid range budget level (Wight, 1996, 1997; HLA and ARA, 1994) [see table 2.5].

Wight (1996, 1997) further pointed out that ecotourists accommodation preference reflected their experience in the natural setting all indicating that it is their experience which determines both the type and level of the accommodation, not vice versa (Wight, 1997: 218). There is also a considerable overlap between accommodation demand and supply structures, all indicating that there is a disequilibrium towards lack of supply (Wight, 1996, 1997). In all the cases, within this study there were no motivations concerning conservation activities of the ecotourists while at the destination (Wight, 1996, 1997; HLA and ARA, 1994).

This is quite similar with Eagle's (1992a, b) previous evaluation, which highlights that although ecotourists tended to differ from the general Canadian population, there was not enough evidence to determine that the exact attributes of their sustainable experiences.

Taking the **second category** three studies could be reviewed, all of which demonstrated a distinct background in terms of the socio-demographic criteria (Pearce and Moscardo, 1994; Chapman, 1995; Twyman and Robinson 1997) [see table 2.5]. Firstly, Pearce and Moscardo's (1994: 7-12) study identified three market segments among tourists visiting a Heritage Site:

- *The get away, relax with nature group (66%)*: appreciate the beauty of the rainforest, in an attempt to get away from people and to be close to nature in order to see the wildlife. They are generally enthusiastic about rainforest visits;
- *The nature experience and appreciation group (24%)*: tend to search for education within the rainforest areas, see the wildlife, and appreciate the beauty of the rainforest. This group is less concerned about rest and relaxation, and getting away from crowds as the first group was. They are dedicated /specialised tourists to rainforests.
- *The novelty sun-seekers group (10%)*: This group of people tend to appreciate the rainforest for its novelty value, and new experience which does not necessarily link with any important environmental, educational benefits. This is an incidental group of tourists.

These results illustrate the generalist, specialist, and incidental group, from which only the second group represents the core ecotourism-orientated group (Pearce and Moscardo, 1994). This has been also confirmed by their planned or undertaken activities. In this instance, the second group was more likely to undertake short walks for more than an hour (55%), than the first (43%) or the third (43%) clusters. In a similar vein bushwalking was more likely to be undertaken by the second (51%) rather than the first (38%) group, while the third group did not show any interest. Similarly, attempt to relax (first: 55%; second: 49%; third: 56%), general sightseeing (first: 58%; second: 62%; third: 44%), and visiting scenic landmarks (second: 43%),

all favored the second group. In all the cases, these results illustrate that ecotourists tend to be only a proportion of the generalist natural-based market, showing an interest in activities related to nature (Pearce and Moscardo, 1994). However, no-specific detailed questions were asked in terms of education and sustainability components of the ecotourism concept.

Secondly, Twyman and Robinson (1997) conducted two surveys in order to identify the ecotourists in Northern Ontario, Canada. Although among the two surveys distinct personal characteristics were derived, the majority of the examined group were males (see table 2.5). The first survey focused on the summer travelers, visitors to the area and residents, while the second focused on both American and Canadian members within recreational organisations. Their approach was based on identifying the forest-based activities, the preference within the forest settings/environment and the nature of the forest-based experience. Looking for example at the results of their second survey six segments were identified (Twyman and Robinson, 1997: 37-44):

- **Enthusiasts (24%):** tend to undertake many activities in remote settings, they have a desire to learn and they have a sense of adventure. It was suggested that this group is the recommended group to target for an ecotourism trip;
- **Adventurers (12%):** tend to undertake adventurous activities, and receive satisfaction from meeting new challenges. It was recommended as a target group for adventure tourism;
- **Naturalist (14%):** tend to be in the natural undisturbed areas and wilderness setting. It was recommended as a target group for both ecotourism and outdoor recreation;
- **Escapists (12%):** tend to be individuals who want to get away and avoid interacting with people aside from their group. It was recommended as a group who want to escape from the city life.
- **Week-enders (18%):** tend to get away to relax from their daily routines. They participated in ecotourism trips with their families for a short period.
- **Urbanists (20%):** tend to enjoy tourist attractions and local and native cultures. They prefer to interact with others within the urban setting, with a low interest in

any activities. It was recommended that it was not feasible to attract this group for ecotourism purposes.

The results indicated that there are two main groups (38%) who were specialist ecotourists, the escapists and the naturalists. Although there was not any more statistical details in terms of the preferred activities, in general terms both groups enjoyed to undertake natural-based activities in a non-consumptive manner (birdwatching ,less motorised water activities). In terms of the setting, both groups tended to be in the natural and remote settings. In all cases, no emphasis was placed in terms of the educational and sustainability component of the concept.

Thirdly, Chapman (1995) conducted research on the forest ecotourists of New South Wales in Australia based on a broad selected criteria. These results revealed that simple natural appreciation, to rest and relax physically and to be in an undisturbed natural area were more important variables than to learn about nature (Chapman, 1995). In particular, four main clusters emerged (Chapman, 1995: 71-74):

- *Nature first! or ecotourism as nature involvement (54%):* tend to represent the main group of ecotourists, in that they are not only concerned about the environment within the undisturbed area but they also desire to explore and learn. They are not seeking self-fulfillment, or searching for danger and excitement, nor are they dependent on equipment for recreational enjoyment. They are both male and female with a mean age of 38.
- *Nature and me or ecotourism as personal development (19%):* tend to be involved in a different aspect of ecotourism, with a particular focus on introspection, involvement in spiritual growth and sharing skills such as challenges, excitement and skill development. Their average mean age is 32, and females are slightly in the majority (57%).
- *Nature?- be laid back! or laid-back ecotourists (19%):* tend to be passive ecotourists, with their primary focus on relaxation and then on the environmental appreciation elements. They are not seeking energetic involvement in the form of fitness, skill development or excitement. They are both male and females with a mean age of 37.

- *Nature and excitement or ecotourism as a social activity (8%): tend to be passive not-independent ecotourists with their primary focus on excitement and enjoying old and new friends. They showed a general interest to explore nature, but are less concerned about a more detailed learning experience or exploration. They are mainly females with a mean age of 27.*

These results illustrate that the core group of ecotourists is almost half of their sample, which has been reflected in their association with an educational element. Unlike the last two examples, emphasis was given to two elements of the ecotourism components all suggesting that when more than one component is taken into the consideration the core groups of ecotourists are often more than half of the examined samples. This is also evident in Pearce and Moscardo's, and Twyman and Robinson's research, revealing that when researching the ecotourism market, there is only a small sub-group (ranging from 14% to 54% of the sample sizes) which satisfy certain pre-determined criteria of ecotourism. In all the cases however, it also seems that there are distinct groups of ecotourists in terms of their presence in the setting in the form of generalist or specialist, or hard and soft.

Finally, the **third category** of research studies includes those who attempted to utilize certain techniques from the marketing curriculum such as involvement and social values (Bottrill and Pearce 1995; Jamrozy et al, 1996; Blamey and Braithwaite, 1997). The reference to involvement has been briefly indicated by Bottrill and Pearce's study (1995) which indirectly measured the ecotourist perspective. Here, this study mainly assessed the enterprises views or images about the motivational aspects of ecotourists, focusing on the so-called 'degree of involvement of the visitors and the nature of the activity' (Bottrill and Pearce 1995: 50).

The evaluation was based on seven criteria (Bottrill and Pearce 1995: 50): *leisure activity, thrill, relaxation, entertainment, physical activity, education, and participation*, in that the enterprises should feature all the last three images in order to be regarded as ecotourism ventures from the participants perspective. Overall the research indicated that only 41% of the companies met all the three criteria (Bottrill and Pearce 1995: 50). Although this study did not primarily focus on the

involvement research tools, Bottrill and Pearce highlighted the potential connection between the degree of involvement and ecotourist activities.

In contrast, research was conducted which primarily focused on involvement, it measured 'individuals' responses, magazine readership, number of trips, and opinion leadership characteristics (Jamrozy et al, 1996: 920). In the light of this research setting, Jamrozy et al (1996) utilised the concept of involvement to measure opinion leadership in natural-based tourism. This research used certain techniques from the involvement literature, that of the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) and Involvement Profile (IP) which reflect mainly the *pot-pourri approaches of measuring the involvement contrast* [see chapter 3]. On the basis of this study, the majority of the respondents were tested on the PII to determine whether they belonged in the high involved group, in which natural-based tourism was perceived as valuable, beneficial, and an interesting form of travel. The limitations of this study is that its sample sizes did not measure ecotourists, and it lacked in any criteria of sample selection. The majority of the respondents were *potential natural-based tourists, who had taken some self-defined nature-based trips*. In all the cases, the research concluded the potential impact of the concept of involvement on natural-based tourism which interestingly coincided with this study's research skeleton.

In sum, the current research approaches on the behavior of ecotourists took place in Australia and North America, and as such pinpoints the lack of knowledge surrounding the behavior of other types of ecotourists. In addition, most of the studies of ecotourists are lacking in a sound theoretical framework, either from the ecotourism or marketing perspectives. Based on these limitations, *this research utilizes the concept of consumer involvement to measure the profiles of the UK's occasional and regular types of ecotourists*. It is believed that the utilization of the concept of involvement (see chapter 3) will assess the knowledge structure of ecotourists, based on their involvement level (high, medium, and low), allowing a full-range of distinct types of profiles to emerge.

2.9 SUMMARY

Currently, the research within the area of ecotourism still appears to be at its infancy stage. The definitional perspective of the concept is lacking both in terms of scope and criteria used, and its planning and consumer behavior application. There are a variety of definitions of ecotourism all reflecting a variety of paradigms and perspectives. The view which this study utilised is that the definition of ecotourism is not really necessary if the discussion focuses on the concepts rather than the issues implied by ecotourism. Hence, it seems that ecotourism definitions could range from a passive to an active stance incorporating three common concepts in the form of trade-off scenarios. There were three main concepts within ecotourism, that of natural-based, educational, and sustainable which includes economic and social criteria. Within these components, both benefits and costs exist, and in some circumstances there is a disequilibrium towards greater costs. Fundamentally, ecotourism could become a significant trend within tourism, only when the different actors involved avoid overmarketing and control the overuse of its products by consumers. On the other hand, its clientele base is also subject to confusion. Here, there are a variety of studies all presenting a distinct profile of ecotourists, allowing the lack of demand side knowledge of ecotourism to surface. In light of these pitfalls, the concept of ecotourism needs to practice sustainable principles within its skeleton, and research techniques which confront these criteria. Its consumer based side needs to integrate certain marketing tools in order to make this concept both theoretically and practically sound.

CHAPTER THREE

THE CONCEPT OF CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT

3.0 The concept of consumer involvement

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of involvement has attracted considerable research attention and has contributed significantly in explaining consumer behaviour (Engel and Blackwell, 1982). The concept was intuitively appealing and appeared to provide evidence that simple and complex forms of consumer behaviour could be exemplified by using the concept of involvement (Kassarjian, 1981; Lastovicka, 1979; Robertson, 1976; Muehling et al, 1993; Brisoux and Cheron, 1990; Bristor, 1985; Jain and Srinivasan, 1990; Gita, 1995). Examination of these forms of behaviour was developed in social psychological research studies in the 1940s, and then branched out into consumer behaviour research during the 1970s when involvement was used as an instrument to explore the role of media (Ray, 1979; Peter and Olson, 1990, 1996; Laaksonen, 1994). In the late 1970s and in the 1980s, involvement was used as an empirical tool to study particular products as well as to explore the role of advertising, purchasing activities and issues concerning consumer decision-making processes.

Conceptually, several definitions of involvement have been proposed. According to Greenwald and Leavitt (1984), a person was said to be 'highly-involved' when the examined product is of personal relevance or importance to the individual. Similarly, involvement was said to reflect the extent of personal relevance of the purchasing decision to the individual in terms of their basic values, goals and self-concept (Engel and Blackwell, 1982:273; Zaichkowsky, 1985a, b; Celsi and Olson, 1988). Moreover, involvement has been seen as an 'internal state' variable that indicates the amount of arousal, interest or drive evoked by a particular stimulus or situation (Mitchell, 1979; 1981). Mittal (1983) continues by saying that involvement indicates the 'motivational state of mind of a person with regard to an object or activity as it reveals itself as the level of interest in that object or activity'.

These definitional approaches underline a common thread: involvement is the **overall personal relevance of an object (product, issue, purchase decision, etc.) to an individual** (Laaksonen, 1994). While this appears to identify a common feature among definitions of involvement, it is worth noting that, at the same time, a variety of terms for, and operationalizations of the concept itself have been advanced which led to a confusion over the nature of involvement (see Bloch and Richins, 1983; Antil, 1984; Muncy and Hunt, 1984; Assael, 1987, Belk, 1975; Bowen and Chaffee, 1974; Bowen et al, 1979; Clarke and Belk, 1979; Feick and Price, 1987; Gardial and Biehal, 1985; Greenward, 1965; Jensen et al, 1989; Loudon and Della, 1993; Lutz, 1975; McClung et al, 1985):

- enduring-involvement; ego-involvement;
- situational-involvement; purchasing-involvement;
- felt-involvement; high and low involvement;
- communication-involvement; response involvement.

For the purpose of this research, the focus will be centred on how people perceive ecotourism and its relevance to their behaviour. The relevance of the concept of involvement in determining forms of behaviour towards ecotourism was based on the hypothesis that, as the tourism market matures, an increasing percentage of the market is sophisticated and demands highly specialised holiday products. Therefore, involvement could attest to the overall or passive interest in a particular type of holiday, in this case ecotourism.

The following sections of this chapter present an analysis of the concept of consumer involvement by detailing its theoretical dimensions. This will include a comparison between two different approaches of involvement supported by certain examples of their application. Here, the theoretical background of the means-end chain approach will be detailed, which will include an assessment of its components and methodological procedures. Finally, the different measurement scales of involvement will be also discussed in an attempt to highlight the different theoretical dimensions of the concept of involvement.

3.2 AN OVERVIEW OF DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO THE CONCEPT OF INVOLVEMENT

The concept of involvement is the key to dealing with a number of ‘between’ and ‘within’ individual differences, as well as giving insights into how individuals behave in certain situations (Rothschild, 1979a, b; Muehling et al, 1993). Involvement has been used in a number of consumer behaviour and psychological areas. Initially, the concept of involvement was influenced by its roots in *social psychology*. Its treatment here indicates that involvement is one of the primary characteristics of attitudes, in particular ego-attitudes. Further, the research on involvement eventually shifted to the *low involvement research perspective*. Involvement, here, was used in explaining the communication impact of TV advertisements, where it was suggested that commercials represent a low involvement situation. However, both approaches, have suffered from a lack of any homogeneous definitional perspective on involvement. The problem becomes most severe when attempting to standardise a definition for involvement, as well as in developing procedures and measures in a research setting (Mitchell, 1979: 191). In response, a classification of involvement has been introduced based on four elements (Laaksonen, 1994: 25) [see figure 3.1]:

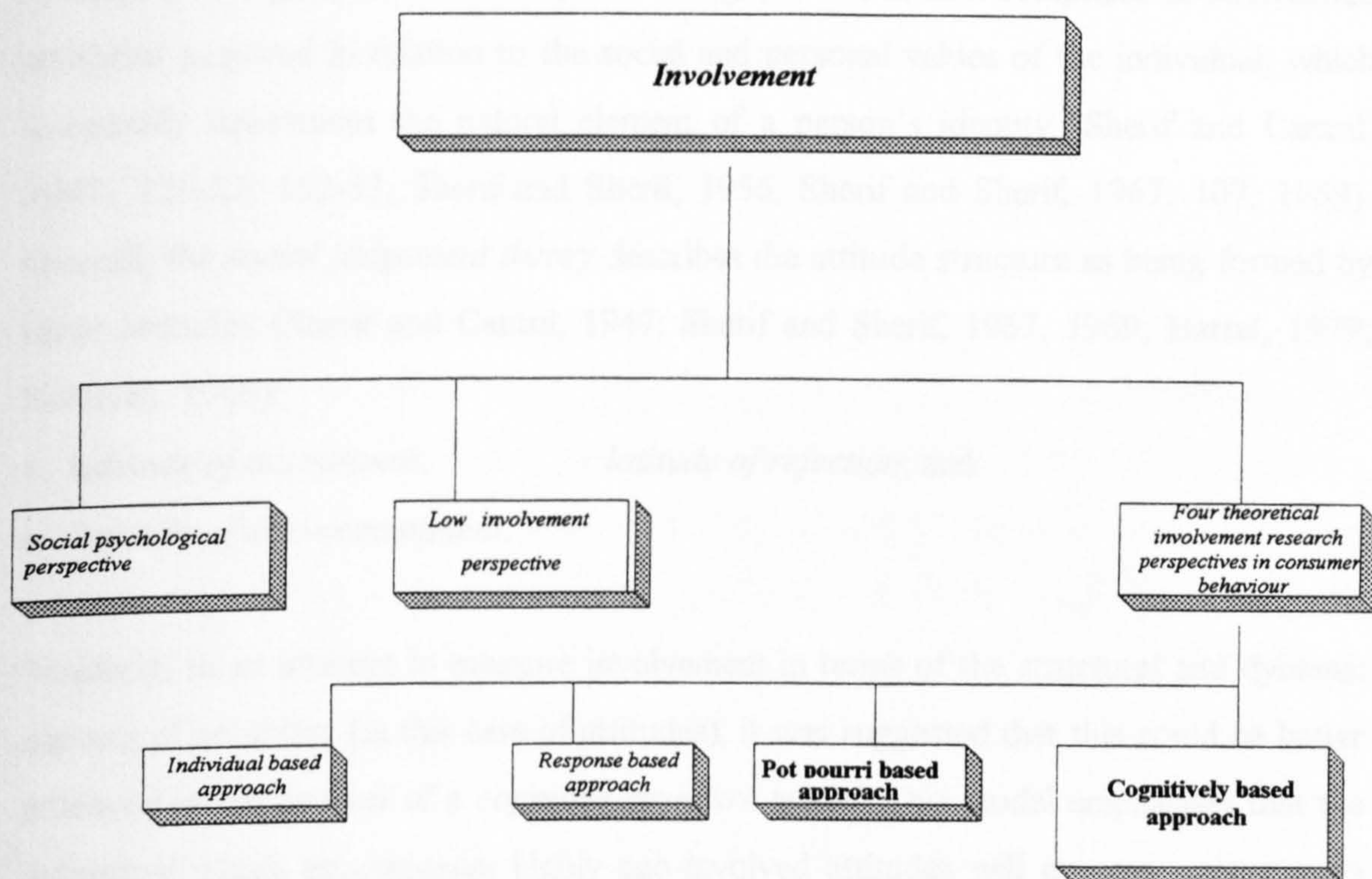
- | | |
|--|--|
| i) <i>Cognitively based approach ;</i> | iii) <i>Response based approach; and</i> |
| ii) <i>Individual based approach;</i> | iv) <i>Pot pourri based approach.</i> |

In the cognitively based approach, the emphasis is on the level of significance of an object (issue, product, activity) to an individual. In this case, the purpose is to reveal the connection where the object was related to the values of an individual. Importantly, it is the **cognitively based** approach which is going to be elicited as a primary instrument which can contribute to the clarification of researching the area of ecotourism.

The individual based and the response based approaches concern the motivational state and response of a person during the consumption process (Markus et al, 1985; Lutz, 1977, 1980, Mitchell, 1981, 1982; Park and Lessig, 1981; Olson and Muderrisoglou,

1979; Park and McClung, 1986; Pucely et al, 1988; Punj and Staelin, 1983; Ratclford and Vaughn, 1989) and have been excluded from this research. The pot-pourri based approach, however, shares certain definitional similarities with the cognitively based approach and will be used in order to identify the internal nature of involvement.

Figure 3.1 The different theoretical approaches of involvement



3.2.1 Approaches to involvement from a social psychological perspective

The social psychological perspective indicates that involvement is one of the primary characteristics of attitudes, in particular ego-attitudes. Here, a person is involved if the social object is in the person's ego domain (Sherif and Cantril, 1947). The most well-developed concept in this area is that of the *social judgement theory and its ego-involvement approach*. This theory provides the conceptual basis of involvement, which is subject to a generic formation known as ego, which in turn comprises of interrelated attitudes acquired in relation to the social and personal values of the individual, which eventually determines the natural element of a person's identity (Sherif and Cantril, 1947: 126-27, 152-53; Sherif and Sherif, 1956; Sherif and Sherif, 1967: 107, 1969). Overall, the *social judgement theory* describes the attitude structure as being formed by three latitudes (Sherif and Cantril, 1947; Sherif and Sherif, 1967, 1969; Harrel, 1979; Kardush, 1968):

- *latitude of acceptance;* *latitude of rejection;* and
- *latitude of non-commitment.*

Similarly, in an attempt to measure involvement in terms of the structural and dynamic aspects of an object (in this case of attitudes), it was suggested that this could be better achieved in the context of a *cognitive structure model*. This model emphasises that the individual which encompasses highly ego-involved attitudes will express resistance to change in comparison to the individual who has no deeply involved attitudes (Ostrom and Brock, 1968; Muehling et al, 1993). In overall terms, the cognitive structure model underlines that ego-involvement on attitudes, is a *value-bonding* process, where values tend to determine attitudes (Ostrom and Brock, 1968; Laaksonen, 1994). While the focus of the *cognitive structure model and social judgement theory* primarily theorised the concept of involvement in terms of the structural and dynamic aspects of attitudes, other investigators in the 1960's extended the *ego involvement concept* with a particular emphasis on 'consequences', in other words its operationalized value.

The operationalized value of involvement in social psychology has been associated with a number of explicit approaches. While the theory of involvement indicated the importance of social values to the attitude structure, the operationalization of the concept tended to underline that this is due to *commitment and concern* to a specific situation or to *an individual's extreme attitudinal position* (Festinger 1957; Rothschild, 1975, 1979a; Freedman 1964; Miller, 1965; Muehling et al, 1993; Brisoux and Cheron, 1990; Bristor, 1985; Jain and Srinivasan, 1990; Kiesler et al, 1969; Sherif and Hovland, 1961). Eventually, the research on involvement shifted from the social psychology perspective to the low involvement research perspective.

3.2.2 Approaches to involvement from a low involvement perspective

The nature of involvement from a low involvement research perspective has been influenced by the so-called '*hemispherical lateralization*', or '*split brain theory*'. The theory advocated the notion that the two parts of the human brain specialise in different processing activities. The left hemisphere evaluates the cognitive activities, while the right part processes all the holistic, pictorial and non-verbal information (Wittrock, 1977; Hansen, 1981; Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994: 221-222). Krugman (1965, 1966) tested the initial evaluation of this theory with respect to involvement research and with an emphasis on the storing of 'right-brain' information.

Krugman approached involvement from the temporality of response-based perspective (Laaksonen, 1994: 53), where he measured the effects of television advertising by suggesting that it is a special communication strategy, where the viewer passively receives advertising information (Krugman, 1965; Bauer, 1964; Cox, 1963; Worcher et al, 1975; Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984). Within this perspective, the focus centred on the evaluation of the communication message under different involvement levels (i.e. high), with researchers supporting and differentiating Krugman's ideas (Ray 1973: 151; Rothschild 1979b: 18; Leavitt et al 1981: 15-16; De Bruicker, 1979: 119-125; Calder, 1979: 32-35; Petty and Cacioppo, 1981; Robertson 1976; Olshavsky and Granbois 1979; Woodside, 1983; Preston, 1970; Robertson, 1976; Arora, 1985).

The results obtained supported Krugman's perspective that advertisement-related thoughts are increased under high involvement conditions, which dismisses any attitudes and intentions towards the advertised brands (Woodside, 1983; Kassarian, 1978). These discussions continued and eventually led to the partial clarification of the low involvement behaviour when explained in terms of cognitive mediation, especially in terms of the hypothetical mental concept of involvement (Foxall, 1986; Muehling et al, 1993). Thus, the research attention of low involvement behaviour shifted to the agenda of involvement itself and its role in consumer behaviour research.

3.2.3 Approaches to involvement from a consumer behaviour perspective

In consumer behaviour research 'involvement' appeared during the decades of 1970s and 1980s. The relationships between involvement, marketing mix strategies and information processing have been investigated in order to examine the conditions of how individual behaviour is affected by marketing (Zaichowsky, 1985a, b, 1986; Muehling et al, 1993; Brisoux and Cheron, 1990). This kind of research interest has led to different definitional treatments and measurements of involvement (Zinkham and Muderrisoglu, 1985: 356; Finn, 1983: 420). One of the most common attempts to approach involvement in consumer behaviour was that of attitude research. The weakness surrounding this attempt was that in social psychology attitude studies were related to social issues, and in consumer behaviour attitude studies were related to tangible objects. Thus, the effort to adopt social psychological definitions of involvement in consumer behaviour has been misleading (Laaksonen, 1994: 4). The focus on consumer behaviour generally specified distinct forms of individual behaviour, whereas in social psychology the emphasis was on the impacts of information processing, in other words the context of persuasive communication. Alongside this notion of embracing social psychological research results, there is also a heterogeneity of involvement definitions within consumer behaviour. This confusion was created by two fundamental difficulties (Zinkham and Muderrisuglu, 1985: 356):

1. the construct and operationalization structure of involvement were too vague to be precisely defined; and
2. a nomological network of relationships could not be determined, so the explanation of the constructual basis of involvement was misleading.

At these levels of operationalization weaknesses, two research approaches concerning the classification element of involvement were introduced (see table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Classifications of involvement

Studies	Characteristics
Finn (1983)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>A stimulus-centred variable</i>: involvement is a characteristic of a product; • <i>A subject-centred variable</i>: the individualistic differences of consumers' involvement; and • <i>A response centred variable</i>: the active participation nature of involvement in the information processing paradigm.
Muncy and Hunt (1984)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Ego involvement</i>: the social psychological perspective of involvement; • <i>Commitment</i>: presented both under the social psychology and consumer behaviour background; • <i>Communication involvement</i>: measuring the theme of low involvement as well as the concept of involvement; • <i>Purchase involvement</i>: determining the purchasing role of involvement with product class and with the concept of ego involvement; and • <i>Response involvement</i>: viewing the cognitive and behavioural processes of the concept within the consumer's behaviour.

These classification methods identified different forms of consumer involvement however, they failed to compare and contrast the numerous definitions of the involvement concept (Muncy and Hunt, 1984: 125; Laaksonen, 1994: 240). In light of these limitations, Laaksonen offered four core definitional approaches to involvement. In particular the exact nature of involvement was seen as based upon (1994: 240):

- *Cognitively based approach*: perceived personal significance, importance or relevance of an object to an individual;
- *Pot pourri approach*: a mixture of approaches;
- *Individual state approach*: the motivational state of an individual; and
- *The response based approach*: description of different responses created.

The differences between the definitional conceptualisations of involvement arose from the distinct underlying research paradigms. The concept of involvement as a mental concept has been affected by the so-called cognitive school of thought, that of assuming that behaviour is directed by the individual needs, wants and attitudes (Laaksonen, 1994; Schiffman and Kanuk, 1987). Moreover each of these definitional approaches has been selected based on four main criteria (Laaksonen, 1994: 87-90):

1. the *differentiation of detail* which identifies the focal problem of a concept in great detail;
2. the *parsimony* of the number of concepts and relations needed to interpret a given body of evidence;
3. the *scope* of the theoretical and substantive terms of the application; and
4. the *logical coherence* detailing evidence of logical gaps within the examined approach.

In order to clarify which of the definitional approaches to involvement is relevant to this research, two approaches have been excluded from this analysis. In particular, the response based approach was briefly discussed in the low-involvement research (section 3.2.2) and found to '*express the nature of the actualised response pattern, which is specified in terms of either extensiveness or temporarily of processing*' (Laaksonen,

1994: 59). This view is inappropriate for research in 'ecotourism-involvement'. This is due to the focus given within the response based approaches, as it includes the different response patterns from different perspectives such as low involvement (Arora, 1982: 506), and bypasses the concept of involvement itself (Laaksonen, 1994: 56-59). In addition, an appraisal of the value of a response-based approach showed the *parsimonious view of involvement, and the lack of a logical coherence, scope as well as a partial analysis of the differentiation in detail criteria* (Laaksonen, 1994: 91).

On the other hand, the individual-based approach focuses on the 'level of perceived personal importance and/or interest evoked by a stimulus (or stimuli) within a specific situation' (Antil, 1984: 204). The approaches under this category deal with the amount, or state of perceived importance, interest, arousal, drive and/or motivation (Mitchell, 1979; Antil, 1984; Smith and Beatty, 1984; Cohen, 1983). Here, involvement is treated as a matter of *intensity*, derived from the amount, state or level of interest and arousal, which is based on the different motivations created by a specific situation (Houston and Rothschild, 1978, 1979; Belk, 1974; Cox, 1963; Newman and Dolich, 1979; Richins and Bloch, 1986; Richins and Root-Shaffer, 1988; Gardial and Zinkam, 1984).

However, it has been contended that although involvement in general, and the individual-based approach in particular, has direction and intensity, it is not only difficult to determine and distinguish the vast array of factors but also their influence on the motivational state of an individual (Laaksonen, 1994). Most critically there is a lack of attention to 'object-related' cognitive structure in terms of product, attitudes, and purchase activities. In addition, an appraisal of the value of the *individual-based approach showed a clear fulfilment of the parsimonious view of involvement, and a satisfactory fulfilment of scope. However it lacked logical coherence as well as differentiation in detail* (Laaksonen, 1994: 91).

This review of involvement leads to the acceptance of the cognitive type of involvement as the primary research topic of this study. This is followed by some sections of the pot-pourri approach, which will be compared to the cognitive type of involvement in order to identify the internal nature of involvement itself.

3.3 COGNITIVELY-BASED APPROACH

The cognitively based approach to involvement details the perceived personal significance of an object (issue, product, activity) to an individual. A common treatment among the definitional classifications under this category, is that involvement is subject to the degree to which an object is related, connected or engaged to the personal needs or values. Under this approach, involvement was seen as an '*interactive mediating variable*', as this characterises not only the relationship between a person and an object, but also acts as a source or antecedent to determine the level of involvement (Laaksonen, 1994: 33; Muehling et al, 1993; Brisoux and Cheron, 1990; Bristor, 1985; Jain and Srinivasan, 1990; Gita, 1995). The cognitively based approach to involvement implied the **interactionist paradigm** for determining consumer behaviour (Punj and Steward, 1983; Laaksonen, 1994: 81). This paradigm viewed behaviour as a function of task-related variables, individual differences and their interaction. Here, the task was viewed in terms of an object such as products, advertisements, and purchasing activities. The individual component has been treated in terms of basic values, needs and/or motives (Laaksonen, 1994). Interpreted in these terms, involvement was viewed as an interaction component between an object and an individual.

The cognitively-based approach to involvement is also subject to a relationship between an object and self-knowledge structures (values, needs) which are termed as the '*object-related cognitive structure*'. In accordance to the definitions, the degree or abstraction of involvement is determined by the strength or extent of this cognitive structure (Laaksonen, 1994: 26; Zaichkowsky, 1985a, b; Rothschild 1979a, b; Celsi and Olson, 1988). Many researchers have determined the 'object-related cognitive structure' in relation to products (Tyebjee, 1979; Lastovika and Garder, 1979; Bloch and Bruce, 1984; Peter and Olson, 1990; Celsi and Olson, 1988) as well as attitudes (Day, 1970; Hupfer and Garder, 1971), purchasing activities (Slama and Tashchian, 1985), and other objects such as advertising (Zaichkowsky, 1985a, b).

Finally it is worth noting that an appraisal of the cognitively based approach *showed a fulfilment of scope, logical coherence and differentiation in detail but an absence of*

parsimony criterion (Laaksonen, 1994: 91). The lack of parsimony criterion was due to the interrelationship between ego-involvement and involvement, although the empirical results reveal that there is a need for separation of these concepts (Laaksonen, 1994:88).

3.4 PRODUCTS

The examination of the cognitive structure has been explored in terms of product knowledge. In identifying and setting out the general key features of product involvement the emphasis will be placed on the extent of a relationship between a product with the individual's values or motives (Johnson, 1989; Tyebjee, 1979). Moreover the determination of involvement on the basis of products has three elements (Tyebjee, 1979 : 99):

- The amount of values contained in a product (*dimensionality*);
- The *relatedness* of the product to these values; and
- The *centrality* of these values.

There seems to be widespread agreement that involvement has something to do with these three factors. Some of the research on involvement revealed that the closer the product is to central values, the greater the inclination is for the person to hold a high involvement position (Lastovika and Garder, 1979; Mittal, 1983, 1988, 1989). Thus, dimensionality refers to the amount of unique consumption values engaged in a product (Ostrom and Brock, 1968; De Bruicker, 1979: 118; Laaksonen, 1994: 158). There is also a view that this is subject to the number of values or as it was defined 'the breadth and depth of an individual's beliefs and values about a desired benefit bundle' (De Bruicker, 1979: 118). Hence, relatedness, on the other hand, outlines the strength of the association between each consumption value and product (Ostrom and Brock, 1968; Lastovika and Gardner, 1979; Gutman, 1982; Peter and Olson, 1987; 1990; 1996; Laaksonen, 1994: 159). Moreover, centrality refers to the depth of the product knowledge structure as respondents are asked to rate the personal importance of the values (Ostrom and Brock, 1968; Lastovika and Gardner, 1979; Mittal, 1983, 1988,

1989; Laaksonen, 1994: 160). These three determinants of product involvement are part of the 'means-end chain' (attributes, consequences and values) which further enhances the relationship between a product with the individual's values. This kind of relationship positions involvement not only as an interactive mediating variable which affects the individual's predisposition to respond, but also as a continuous variable which ranges ranging from very low to high levels (Laaksonen, 1994; Lastovika and Garder, 1979; Preston, 1970; Muehling et al, 1993). Following these hypothesised variables concerning the relationship between involvement and products, it was further suggested that its nature has enduring elements (Bloch and Richins, 1983: 72; Venkatraman, 1988,1990; Houston and Rothschild, 1979; Richins and Bloch, 1986; Bloch, 1981, 1986; Bloch et al, 1986; Higie and Feick, 1989; Tigert et al, 1976). As a result a type of involvement appeared, known as enduring involvement, which represented the 'long-term', cross-situational perception of product importance based on the strength of a product's relationship to an individual's central needs and values' (Bloch and Richins, 1983: 72). Much of the debate at this stage centred on exploring the relationship between enduring involvement and factors such as opinion leadership, which created the view that enduring involvement is subject to the hedonic elements of the consumption process. On this point it was claimed that enduring involvement is more clearly understood as a predictor of behaviours such as opinion leadership and/or information search (Higie and Feick, 1989: 695). While that perspective did not receive any further supporting evidence of correlation with enduring involvement, the elements which could influence enduring involvement were that of past experience with products (Houston and Rothschild, 1979; Rothschild, 1979a, b: 15). In turn, it appears that the consumer's experience with a product could influence the level of involvement but only to the degree to which it modifies the product-related cognitive structure (Laaksonen, 1994:32). The core focus of the cognitively-based approach to involvement was how to explain the *product-related cognitive structure*.

In this respect, the description of product knowledge as well as the intensity of involvement was determined in terms of the 'means-end chain model' (Peter and Olson, 1987, 1990, 1996). Here, there are two different types of the means-end chain, a chain which is value orientated and a chain which conceptualises a goal hierarchy.

3.5 MEANS-END CHAIN STRUCTURE - VALUE HIERARCHY

The means-end chain rests upon revealing the connections between knowledge about product attributes and self-knowledge (Gutman, 1982, 1984, 1990, 1991; Pitts et al, 1991; Reynolds and Rochon, 1991). 'Means' are objects (products or activities) which consumers engage in. 'Ends' are the value state of being, such as happiness and security. Initial support for these poles of the chain derived from its residency in *personal construct theory* (Bannister and Mair, 1968; Kelly, 1955).

Personal construct theory has been defined as 'a property attributed to several events by means of which can be differentiated into homogeneous groups' (Kelly, 1955:120). Further, it entails the metaphor that every person creates their views and rules of the world, which consequently directly guides their behaviour (Kelly, 1955; Gengler et al, 1995). It was further claimed that the theory encompasses individual's past experience with the product, together with their conjectures and future behaviours (Warren, 1990; Gengler et al, 1995: 290). In addition to that, however, the foundations of the chain have been reminiscent with the basic aim of the *value expectancy theory*. Its general principles outline that certain consumer actions, such as purchase activities, generate a number of consequences. In turn, consumers learn to associate specific consequences with certain elements of the product (Rosenberg, 1956). These two perspectives, *personal construct theory* and *value expectancy theory*, link into the chain's principle as a connection between product attributes, consumer consequences and personal values (Gutman, 1982).

Looking at these items, *attributes* can be viewed as the characteristics of a product and/or services. *Consequences* are accrued to consumers by consuming products and/or services. They are the 'personal translations' of attributes revealing the reasoning behind

the consumer's preference (Reynolds et al, 1995; Pitts et al, 1991; Reynolds and Rochon, 1991). Their nature exhibited two forms: direct and indirect. While direct consequences are formed from the consumer's actual experience with the product, the indirect ones are derived from other people's influence on one's consumption behaviour (Gutman, 1982, 1984, 1990, 1991, 1995). Moreover, consequences could be subject to desirable or undesirable dichotomy (Gutman, 1982, 1984, 1990, 1991, 1995). In this case, the chain benefits from consumers selecting consumption activities which generate desired consequences and minimise undesired ones (Gutman, 1982:60, 1984, 1990, 1991, 1995; Pitts et al, 1991; Reynolds and Rochon, 1991). In addition, consequences as an item of the chain, outline the reasoning behind consumer's attribute selection (Reynolds and Whitlark, 1995; Pitts et al, 1991). In the reverse scenario, consequences provide the paths of valence and significance to satisfy personal values as well as to achieve values central to the self (Reynolds et al, 1995).

Values, are those beliefs people have about themselves together with an expression of their feelings concerning other's beliefs about them (Gutman, 1982, 1984, 1990, 1991, 1995; Rokeach, 1968; Vallete-Florence and Rapacchi, 1991). While the operationalized role of attributes and consequences within the means-end chain is clear, the debate centred on the nature of the values (Laaksonen, 1994). In particular, attention is initially placed upon the *type of values* which activate the structure of the chain, which further specifies the nature of involvement as well as the relationship with the other elements.

3.5.1 Values

Values have been acclaimed as a major influence on human behaviour (Kluckhohn, 1951). Consumer behaviourists have also acknowledged the use of values in explaining attitude, and purchasing behaviour (Pitts and Woodside, 1983, 1986; Henry, 1976; Howard and Sheth, 1969; Rose et al, 1995; Wang and Rao, 1995; Lai, 1995; Kluckhohn, 1951), as well as market segmentation studies (Vinson et al, 1977; Munson and McIntyre, 1979). In essence, values provide a justification of human behaviour, as they are the broad functions common to all personalities (Howard and Woodside, 1984: 4), which in turn serve as a standard of conduct (Williams, 1968). Although, initially the term 'value' was derived from the anthropological and sociological disciplines, it was psychology which enhanced the research into the area. In particular, Rokeach (1973) views values from the standpoint of personal motives. He suggested that every individual is regarded as having a value operating within a value system. He termed *value* as an enduring belief comprised of two parts (Rokeach, 1973:5):

1. a specific mode of conduct that is personally or socially preferable; and
2. a specific end-stage of existence that is personally or socially preferable.

On the other hand, the *value system* is an enduring organisation of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative 'importance' (Rokeach, 1973:5). The individual value system is the way in which different values are organised in a hierarchical manner, which allows individuals to overcome conflicts and make certain decisions (Kamakura and Mazzon, 1991; Rose et al, 1995; Wang and Rao, 1995; Lai, 1995). More importantly, it is the value system which identifies the behaviour of an individual not the value per se. In other words, when exploring differences between individuals, it is not the single values that should be considered, but rather the way in which the particular values are arranged into a value system (Kamakura and Mazzon, 1991).

Further evidence emphasised that certain aspects of an individual's behaviour is guided by values, in particular values that are related to maintaining and enhancing self-esteem

(Rokeach, 1973: 14). However, there was initially a debate over the roles of values and their similarities with attitudes (Rokeach, 1973; Ditcher, 1984) which has been overcome on the basis that values are actual determinants of attitudes (Loudon and Della, 1993; Muller, 1991). This view suggests that there is a sequence from abstract values to attitudes to specific behaviours [values→ attitudes→ behaviours] (Homer and Kahle, 1988: 638).

Much of the view that values are the predictors of behavioural change, lies within the recognition of the existence of two kinds of values. Those that are related to means or *instrumental values*, and those related to ends or *terminal values* (Rokeach, 1968, 1973; Munson and McIntyre, 1979). The former kind of values relate to modes of conduct and are single beliefs which are personally and socially preferable in all situations with respect to all objects, such as to be ambitious. The latter kind, is the single belief that certain end-states are personally and socially worth striving for. In other words these are connected with preferred end-states of existence such as warm relationships. Further, Rokeach introduced a scale which measured eighteen terminal and eighteen instrumental values, the so-called 'Rokeach Value Survey'. At this stage, respondents were asked to rank each list of 18 values in order of importance to them.

Due to the difficulty of choice among the 36 values in a single survey, other reduced scales have been introduced, such as the *List of Values*. Generally speaking, there are nine values which make up this list and have either an internal or external orientation (Kahle et al, 1986, 1988; Kamakura and Novak, 1992; McIntyre et al, 1994; Madrigal and Kahle, 1994; Homer and Kahle, 1988; Madrigal, 1995; Muller, 1989, 1991, 1995; Dalen, 1989; Grunert and Scherhorn, 1990):

- **Internal orientation:** includes the values of *self-respect, self-fulfilment, sense of accomplishment, fun and enjoyment in life, excitement, warm relationships with others*. Individuals with such values tend to be internally motivated by achievement, self-direction and pleasure and believe they can influence events and control outcomes in their lives; and

- **External orientation:** includes the values of *sense of belonging, being well respected, and security*, and these individuals tend to feel powerless in the sense that they rely more on external circumstances for success and solutions to problems.

In all the cases, the critical issue at this stage regarding the means-end chain perspective, concerns the measurement of those values in addition to which kind of values ought to be regarded in the chain.

3.5.1.1 Means-end chain and values

The assessment of values within the means-end chain was debated on the grounds of the global and personal perspective (Laaksonen, 1994:105-6; McIntyre et al, 1994). It was suggested that there are certain limitations with regards to value measurement (Sherrell et al, 1984). More specifically, it has been hypothesised that a central value with a variety of connections to the consumer's knowledge base tends to only surface in global issues (Sherrell et al, 1984; Laaksonen, 1994). The fulfilment of this principle, causes a number of measurement problems, as the assessment of values from the *global or personal* perspective may not address strong relationships with behaviours of this kind. On the other hand, measures of values from a more specific perspective could focus on other psychological areas besides values (Sherrell et al, 1984). However, alongside these limitations are the views that address 'global values' as being more related to 'specific values' or the so-called consumption-related values (Vinson et al, 1977).

Consumption values refer 'to subjective beliefs about desirable ways to attain personal values' (McIntyre et al, 1994; Rose et al, 1995; Lai, 1995). In particular, these beliefs are derived from the so-called 'domain specific value' structure (Scott and Lamont, 1973). This structure reflects the view that consumption values mediate between the effects of global values and the consequences associated with a product. From this aspect of conceptualisation, global values are more abstract in nature, while domain-specific or consumption values relate to economic and consumption activities of the individual (Scott and Lamont, 1973). In a similar vein, Vinson et al (1977) introduced a

model, bearing resemblance to Rokeachs', called the 'value-attitude' system. They defined values as centrally-held cognitive elements that stimulate motivation for behavioural response, which exist in a hierarchical network comprising of three levels: global values; domain-specific values; and evaluation of product attributes (Vinson et al, 1977; Gutman, 1982).

Global values are very similar to terminal values and are situated at the centre of the individual's value system (Vinson et al, 1977; Gutman, 1982). Domain-specific values are created through the individual's experience with the products and/or activities. The role of these values is 'to mediate between global values and the less closely held descriptive and evaluative beliefs about product attributes' (Vinson et al, 1977:45). The evaluation of product attributes represents the least abstract in the hierarchical network and is grouped by evaluative beliefs about product attributes, which are less centrally held within the individual's value system. Overall, global values and domain-specific or consumption values are interconnected in a hierarchical structure (Vinson et al, 1977: 45-46; Laaksonen, 1994:106; Gutman, 1982:64; Lai, 1995).

The debate over the role of values has continued through similar suggestions that some global values can be directly related to consumption issues (Munson and McQuarrie, 1988). It follows that there are two main ways to classify values (Munson and McQuarrie, 1988:35-38):

- *The value hierarchies set*: comprises of certain inventory scales of value measurement with a global nature such as Rokeach value surveys; and
- *The value instrumentality set*: focused on the means-end chain approach, linking values and consequences which are the desired goals or ends of consumption. This set does not respond to any kind of a value index when placed in a hierarchy, rather it attempts to impose or identify values which are linked to product attributes. These values 'are not necessarily global human values, but can be less general, less abstract, and perhaps more consumption oriented'.

In comparing Scott and Lamont (1973), Vinson et al (1977), and Munson and McQuarrie's (1988) approaches, two common tenets permeate the means-end chain view:

- a) consumption values mediate in achieving global values in a hierarchical manner; and
- b) consumption values can elaborate values with a global nature.

Looking at the merit of the first issue, when consumption values are expressed in this manner, the consumer expresses his/her ego involvement, not the actual product involvement. Thus, it can be excluded from usage in the means-end chain network (Laaksonen, 1994: 106). This further suggests that product involvement has to be treated in terms of consumption-related values, values that guide the person's consumption patterns. This leads onto the second issue - what is the actual role of the consumption values?

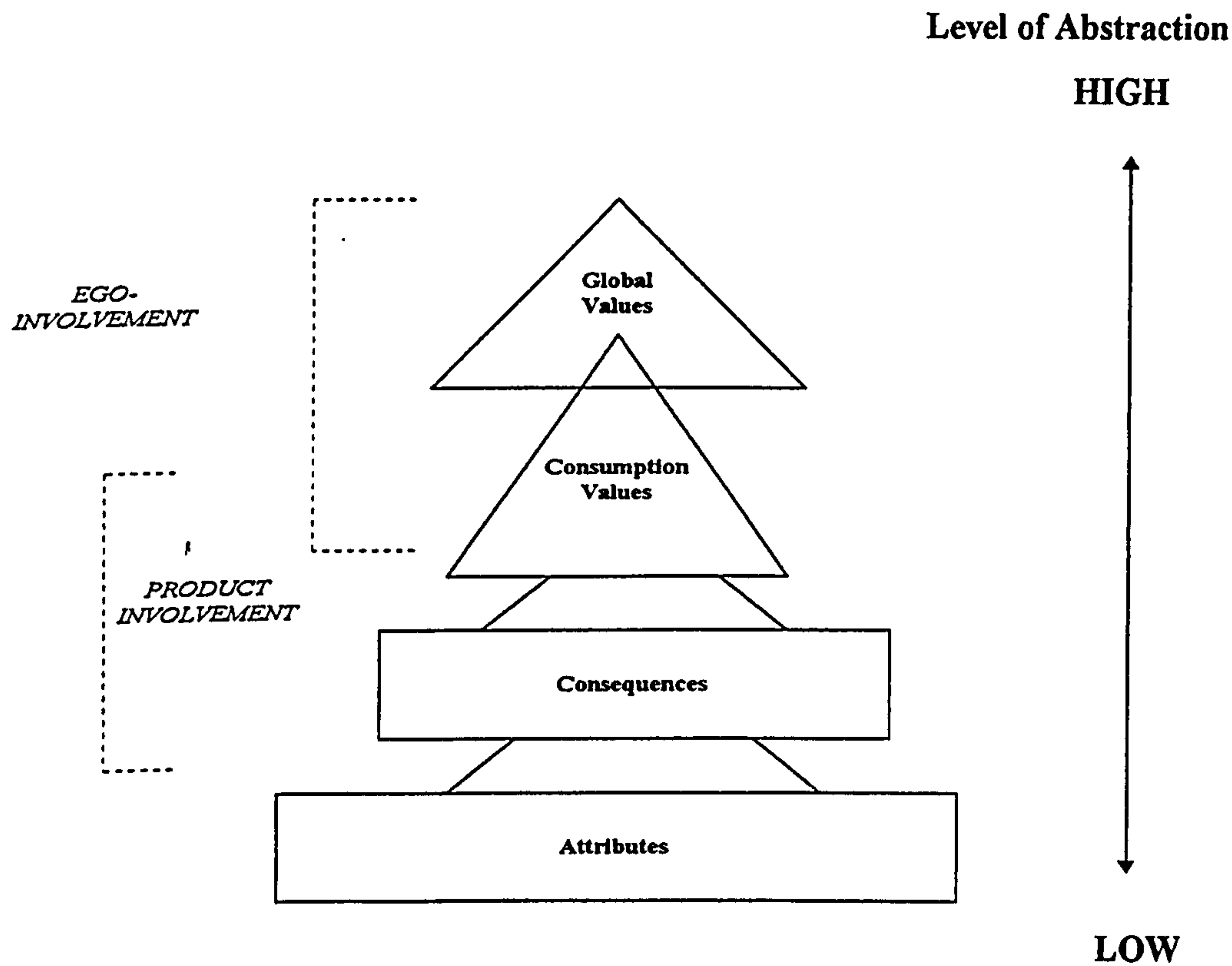
In the means-end chain, values have been derived from Rokeach's value conceptualisation. Evidence of their interpretation however, relies more on the broader perspective (Laaksonen, 1994:107). What emerges is that the instrumental values in the means-end chain reflect external orientations in relation to the perception of others (Reynolds and Gutman, 1984; Reynolds et al, 1990; Reynolds and Rochon, 1991; Pitts et al, 1991; Mulvey et al, 1994; Reynolds, 1995), whilst Rokeach's interpretation is a mode of conduct in a single beliefs manner, applicable to personal and social situations with respect to all objects.

Further, the terminal values have resulted from how a person views themselves, such as security or warm relationships (Reynolds and Gutman, 1984), and in a quite identical manner, Rokeach's less broader view encompasses the preferred end-states of existence. Although, similar evidence shows that the terminal values occupy a dominant role as the position of greatest abstraction in the means-end chain (Woodside, 1994; Gengler and Reynolds, 1995), in essence it is separated into terminal values and instrumental ones.

Thereafter, the criticism changed and the chain evolved into a single hierarchy of categories, where values (terminal and instrumental), consequences and attributes are based on an abstraction concept (Gutman, 1982, 1984, 1990, 1991, 1995).

In sum, the focus of the means-end chain and hence the product involvement terminates at the consumption values level (terminal and instrumental). These values are in general more operational in nature as they are derived from consequences, which are in turn derived from attributes (Reynolds et al, 1990). Values are more abstract than consequences, and are not product specific, as they are associated with different product groups (see figure 3.2). On the other hand, if the consumption values are related to a few abstract global values, without any prior references to consequences and attributes, then the ego-involvement concept is manifested (Laaksonen, 1994). An absence of this principle, could well prove to be the Achilles' heel of the cognitive based approach to product involvement.

Figure 3.2 The cognitive basis for involvement



Source: Laaksonen, 1994: 108

3.5.2 The operationalizational aspects of the means-end chain

Moving to the means-end chain structure, the chain assumes that consumers view products as means to important ends (Gutman, 1982; Reynolds et al, 1990; Gengler, 1995; Pitts et al, 1990; Reynolds and Rochon, 1991). This is because, the focus of the means-end chain is on the clarification that the consequences level is more important, than the attributes one (Mulvey et al, 1994). The self-relevancy of the product (attributes) relies on the extent that consumers see it as a vehicle to determine certain consequences and/or consumption-related values (Mulvey et al, 1994:51; Reynolds et al, 1990). In turn, values influence the choice patterns of the individual and consumers use their values to group products into certain categories, limiting the complexity of their product choice and knowledge structure (Gutman, 1982:60).

In these instances, the structure has been defined as a large multifaceted scheme stored in the memory, the so-called '*self-schema*' (Walker and Olson, 1991:112; Markus, 1977, 1983). Evidence of the characteristics of the self-schema portrayed two main elements relevant to the structure of the means-end chain (Wicker et al, 1984; Wadsworth and Ford, 1983; Walker and Olson, 1991):

- the self-schema is structured upon a variety of self-related meanings such as concrete attributes and abstract meanings, i.e. values and goals; and
- the meanings are organised in a hierarchical order representing the 'core' self structure.

Due to the enormous size of the self-scheme, only a proportion of it can actually be activated, in order to be inputted into the individual's working memory system. While these activations occurred within the memory, most probably they are actually revealed in a particular situation such as the purchase of an object or decision making (Walker and Olson, 1991:113). In turn, the actual characteristics of that situation have an impact upon self-meaning, which further affects what product knowledge is activated (Walker and Olson, 1991; Wicker et al, 1984).

This conceptualisation further outlines that 'when means-end knowledge is activated from memory or formed in a situation, the person perceives the product to be personally relevant and feels involved with it' (Mulvey et al, 1994: 51; Celsi and Olson, 1988).

This further highlights the cognitive basis of involvement and crucially the reasoning behind consumer's involvement in a particular situation (Gutman, 1984:25; Mulvey et al, 1994; Celsi and Olson, 1988). There are a number of conceptual schemes which set out the general principles and key issues of consumer's cognitive structures:

- Firstly, Young and Feigin's (1975) expression of the cognitive structure was the so-called 'grey benefit chain', a form of linking the product to emotional payoffs [product→ functional benefits→ practical benefits→ emotional payoff];
- Secondly, Gutman (1982, 1990, 1991, 1995) presented a model in which product attributes are linked to values [product attributes→ choice criteria→ instrumental values→ terminal values]; and
- Thirdly, Geistfeld et al (1977) concentrated on the attributes of the product, which were classified into three levels, such as less-abstract, still multidimensional, but measurable attributes.

The most pertinent aspect of these kinds of operationalizations is that the consumer's cognitive structure, and in particular the means-end chain, is organised in a hierarchical order consisting of different levels of abstraction (Gutman, 1982 1984; Olson and Reynolds, 1983: 80-81). More specifically, 'abstraction refers to the level of inclusive dimensions of the knowledge structure' (Walker et al, 1987:18). Initially, the adaptation of abstract concepts as a description of the knowledge structure was provided by the *unitization theory* (Hayes-Roth, 1977). The theory advocates the notion that when an individual is more experienced with these concepts, the person starts to form more abstract representations of them (Walker et al, 1987; Hays-Roth, 1977). This further shows that the more knowledgeable or experienced individuals have more concrete and abstract knowledge categories than novices (Walker and Olson, 1991; Walker et al, 1987). This is also confirmed by research evidence pointing out the notion that the

experienced individual may be able to accumulate new information of his/her acquired knowledge more easily than novices (Markus, 1977, 1983).

Further, the more experienced individuals could make more finer discriminations among products information; and could divide information into exceedingly small categories, thus in a more detailed fashion (Walker et al, 1987:18). In turn, novices categorise concepts or objects in a less abstract manner with more sensory-level features (Walker et al, 1987; Pitts et al, 1991; Reynolds and Rochon, 1991). On the other hand, the more knowledgeable individuals have a large base of specific concrete knowledge and thus tend to use more attributes (concrete or specific) to describe a product or domain (Conover, 1982:495; Walker et al, 1987; Reynolds et al, 1990, 1995). These link to the principle of the means-end chain, where concrete knowledge leads to a more abstract knowledge (Gutman, 1982).

The common agreement of many researchers on this issue is that the knowledge structure of more experienced consumers reveal a wealth of both concrete and abstract knowledge (Walker et al, 1987; Walker and Olson, 1991; Markus, 1977, 1983; Conover, 1982; Geistfeld et al, 1977; Lancaster, 1976). As a result, the process of theorising the principles of the means-end chain, in accordance with the abstraction elements, mainly underlines the implicative relationships within the chain, yet the implication is of acknowledging the structure of consumer's product knowledge (Reynolds et al, 1995) (see table 3.2).

Table 3.2 The levels of abstraction concept

Abstract Level	Terminal values
	Instrumental values
	Psychosocial consequences
	Functional consequences
	Abstract attributes
Concrete Level	Concrete attributes

For example, looking at the levels of abstraction and *treating the concept of ecotourism as a product*, concrete attributes are classified as expressing physical characteristics of a product, such as *travel to wild places*. Abstract attributes are aspects of a product which are formed by concrete attributes such as *see traditional and natural lifestyles*. In a similar vein at the consequences level, functional consequences accrue instantly to the consumer from using the product such as *to be concerned that your presence there may damage the environment*.

On the basis of the latter consequences, the psychological ones are formed such as *to go again when I find the opportunity*. Finally at the values level, the former set (instrumental) is classified as preferred modes of behaviour (i.e. *self confidence*), while the latter set (terminal) is defined as preferred end-states of being (i.e. *warm relationships*) (Gutman, 1984, 1995; Rokeach, 1973).

In part, the levels of the abstraction concept are hierarchical in that elements at the ‘concrete’ end are the basis for inferring the presence or absence of elements at higher (abstract) levels, but not the converse. For example, it is more likely that *travel to wild places* can lead to *warm relationships* (via *a concern that your presence there may damage the natural environment, to go again when I found the opportunity*) rather than the reverse *warm relationships* → *travel to wild places*.

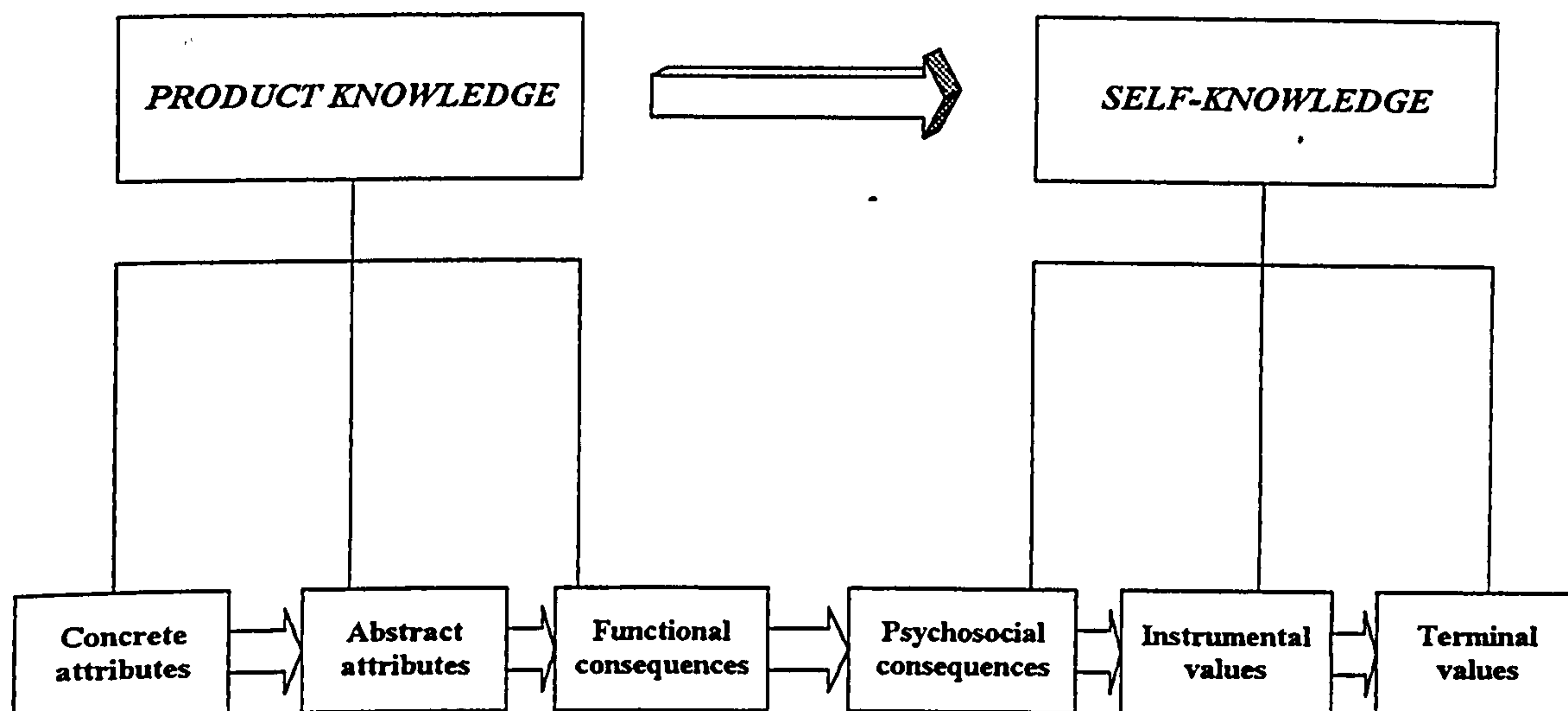
Central to this principle, within the abstraction concept, are two ‘linkages’ fundamental to the structure of the chain. These are (Gutman, 1982, 1990, 1991):

- a) value-consequences linkage: values generate a number of consequences with positive or negative valences; and
- b) consequences-attributes linkage: the consumer regards certain attributes which produce consequences.

Each of these, or in combination, can form the basis of consumer involvement (Gutman, 1982; Reynolds et al, 1995). Here however, different aspects of the means-end chain are activated in order to determine the self-relevance of a product (Peter and Olson, 1996: 103). Notably, these are the importance or personal relevance of the attributes, and the level of connections between the product knowledge level and the self-knowledge level. One tacit assumption in this treatment of product knowledge has been that there are two factors influencing and/or determining consumer involvement with products (Peter and Olson, 1990: 88-89, 1996: 104-7; Bloch, 1981, 1986; Bloch and Richins, 1983:72):

1. ***The intrinsic self-relevance***: this source of influence contains the means-end chain knowledge of a product stored in the memory of a consumer from their past experience with a product. Thus, consumers acquire certain attributes, consequences and personal values (means-end chain) from their past experience which are likely to influence the consumer decision making of a new product; and
2. ***The situational self-relevance***: this factor contains the elements of the physical and social environment such as discounts and vouchers which create a temporary knowledge structure of a product (means-end chain). In this instance the perceived personal relevance of a product is subject to a strong relationship of self-knowledge with product knowledge, but it may change. For example, a consumer could be attracted by a new travel offer, while going to arrange a holiday in the travel agency. In this perspective consumers who consider such offers tend to create a temporary product knowledge which guides their behaviour.

Figure 3.3 The determinants of the means-end chain



Source: Peter and Olson, 1996

In sum, a combination of the intrinsic and situational self relevance determines the degree of involvement (Celsi and Olson, 1988) [see figure 3.3]. With regard to this hypothesis the critical issue is subject to the exploration of the role and the effects of those two sources in a given situation. Thus, it is better to assume that those sources are the mediating variables which influence the nature of involvement, rather than determine it.

3.5.3 Methodological procedures of the means-end chain and alternative approaches

Another major theme in the means-end chain is to identify the procedures of revealing consumer's knowledge (product and self knowledge) or cognitive structure. At this stage, a number of different tasks are requested from the respondents. This is in order to make distinctions between a number of competitive products such as alternative forms of tourism by asking them to clarify the important concepts or distinctions they use to differentiate among products (Gutman, 1982; Gutman and Alden, 1984; Gutman, 1990,

1991). It is worth noting that the distinctions are not the main focus of this process, rather it is the linkages between these elements in the consumer's cognitive structure, that reveal the product knowledge. In this instance the identification process of the full set of linkages connecting means and ends, is called *laddering* (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988; Reynolds et al, 1990, 1995; Gengler, 1995; Gengler et al, 1995; Pitts et al, 1991) [see chapter 4].

The purpose of the laddering technique is to exemplify '*why and how*' certain products are important to the consumer, by identifying why values tend to drive preference more than consequences, and the latter group more than attributes (Klenosky et al, 1993:363; Reynolds et al, 1990; Reynolds and Rochon, 1991; Klenosky et al, 1993; Mulvey et al, 1994). On the other hand, some studies also agreed that when consumers are discussing their means-end chain via the use of the laddering task, they overrate the importance of attributes, in that these appear more times in the interview process, and the importance of values are underrated. The broad conclusion to be drawn from this is that consumers are not cognisant of the role of values in their decision-making process (Reynolds et al, 1990: 6).

In addition, another crucial issue of the means-end chain, is that its length can vary enormously as it could entail only certain elements of the chain, such as functional or psychosocial consequences, and consumption-oriented instrumental or terminal values (Gutman, 1982; Laaksonen, 1994). As a result, the degree of involvement depends on the product relatedness to fundamental elements of an individual cognitive structure. Therefore, highly involved consumers tend to indicate that product attributes are linked with certain consequences and with specific consumption related values. In contrast, the individual holds a low involvement position when there is not a sequence of product attributes with the other elements of the means-end chain (Peter and Olson, 1987, 1990; Laaksonen, 1994).

In contrast to the traditional elements of the means-end chain, there are some other alternative approaches, in particular that of cues (Gutman and Haley, 1995). The role of cues in the means-end chain is to expand the concrete level of the abstraction concept by conceptualising attributes to include a broader meaning, mainly by searching for more

diverse or less tangible cues which could influence inferences about products. Here, the number of cues can be revealed either by searching for their role as a main focus on the research agenda, or after a traditional means-end chain has been analysed in an attempt to find cues which assist consumers in drawing the proper inferences about the brand (Gutman and Haley, 1995) [see appendix 1].

However, an alternative form of the means-end chain was also introduced by Gutman (1995) to incorporate the role of goals. Thereafter, this new type of the means-end chain favours a goal classification scheme, by providing product goals at the concrete levels and personal goals at higher or abstract levels.

3.6 MEANS-END CHAIN STRUCTURE: GOALS HIERARCHY

The usage of goals within consumer behaviour acknowledges the ability of goals to influence consumer actions and choice (Peter and Olson, 1990, 1996). These claims arise from evidence that goals represent the benefits for which consumers search (Park and Smith, 1989), or refer to the number of consequences from which a person's behaviour is directed (Wadsworth and Ford, 1983:514). Within the means-end chain, the division of goals is in a hierarchical order comprised of the so-called subgoals category at the concrete level and final goals at the abstract level, linked together by the sequence of actions necessary to accomplish a number of different goals (Beach, 1990; Gutman, 1995). Herein are two main reasons for considering the utilisation of goals in the structure of the means-end chain (Gutman, 1995):

- a) Consumer's thoughts and actions are directed by goals; and
- b) The formulation of goals depends upon the consumers' actions for goal achievement.

In every instance therefore, actions necessary to achieve low level goals are prerequisites for accomplishing final goals [see appendix 1]. Much of this, however, depends on the consumer's decision to meet certain goals through certain stages of planning or a sequence of acts (Gutman, 1995). The approach here, as in the Value-orientated means-

end chain, is to elicit the elements of the abstraction concept. At this stage, however, the abstraction concept includes a long range sequence of subgoals which guide a sequence of actions over a period of time (Gutman, 1995). Thus, under the chain there are two distinct categorisation schemes which are combined within its framework: a scheme for actions; and a scheme for goals [see appendix 1].

In sum, although in theory these factors affect the nature of goals and actions, in practice they are better seen as forms of interweaving goals and actions in the means-end chain. The usage of goals may be an attractive alternative to the levels of abstraction concept but do not provide an insight into the consumer's product involvement. Therefore, what emerges from this argumentation is that goal utilisation within the means-end chain is the most appropriate concept when considering research into decision-making (Gutman, 1995), as opposed to the cognitively-based approach of involvement (i.e. product involvement). However, within the cognitively-based approach to involvement lies the area of felt involvement, which was claimed to share certain similarities with the means-end chain classifications.

3.7 *FELT INVOLVEMENT*

The term 'felt involvement' deals with the experiential, phenomenological nature of involvement, which occurs at certain times and situations (Celsi and Olson, 1988). Felt involvement is shown to be compatible with the situational context of consumption in particular, the extent and type of personal relevance perceived by the consumer (Celsi and Olson, 1988). Hence, the role of certain goods and values that arise in a specific situation are then activated in a consumer's memory, presented as feelings of personal relevance or factors of importance and interest, and consequently determine the agenda of felt involvement (Peter and Olson, 1987, 1990; Celsi and Olson, 1988:222-23). The conceptual foundations of felt involvement are subject to two major components or sources (Celsi and Olson, 1988: 211-212; Peter and Olson, 1990: 87-90):

- The situational sources of personal relevance; and
- The intrinsic sources of personal relevance.

These two elements are identical with the factor sources influencing the products (see section 3.5.2). Initially there was some deliberation as to whether these factors constitute an element of general involvement or an element of its sub-component felt involvement. In other words, these two sources determine the feeling or perception of personal importance with products (Laaksonen, -1994: 30). In this regard, it seems that these two sources are influenced by the perception of personal importance which includes the 'feeling' factor as one determinant of it (Peter and Olson, 1996; Cohen, 1983; Mitchell, 1979; Petty and Cacioppo, 1981; Houston and Rothschild, 1979; Petty et al, 1983; Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984; Petty and Cacioppo, 1981; Celsi and Olson, 1988:213).

Further, quite differently from the means-end chain classifications, felt involvement is detailed in circumstances when goals and values are activated in a situation, and their strength of association with products and/or action in that situation is at a high level (Celsi and Olson, 1988). In turn, when these factors are expressed as feelings of *personal relevance, importance and arousal*, the motivational state of felt involvement is also outlined (Celsi and Olson, 1988). Overall, felt involvement shares some similarities with the means-end chain as far as the definitional perspective of involvement is concerned. It should be noted, that although there is an explicit view of combined goals and values under felt involvement, there has not been any further supporting evidence of how they can be measured. Another point of interest alongside this comparison is that it can be assumed that felt involvement is more closely related to the goal classification scheme of the chain, as the situational attention is observed in both treatments.

Finally, aside from the *object-related cognitive structure* which relates to products, another source of consumer knowledge has been outlined as a result of treating the 'object' in terms of attitude, purchasing activities and other elements such as advertising.

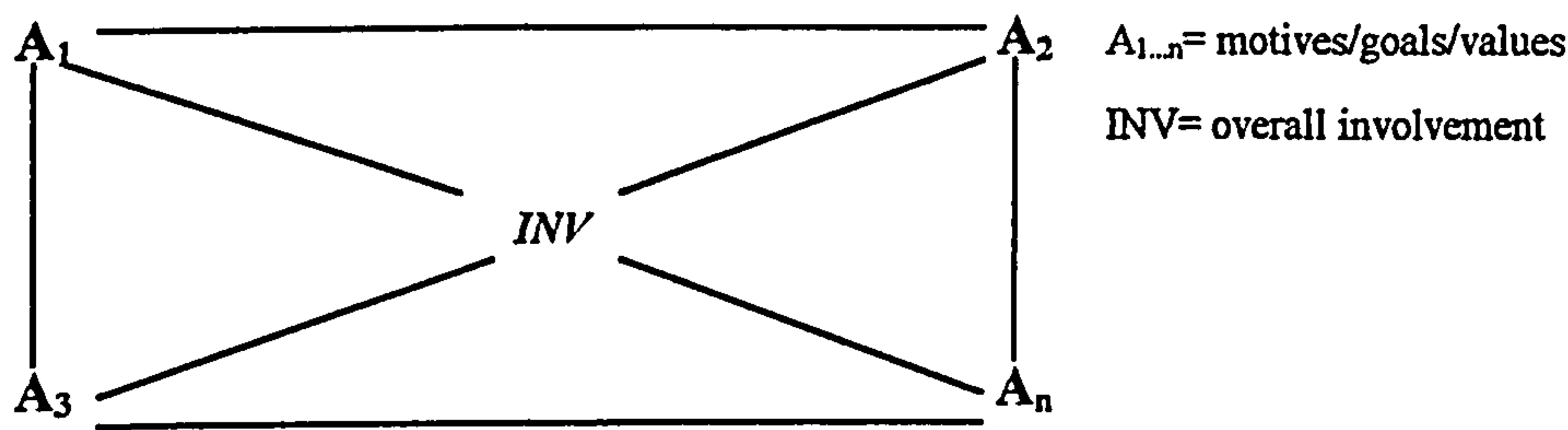
3.8 ATTITUDE STRUCTURE, PURCHASING ACTIVITIES AND OTHER ELEMENTS

The notion of involvement treatments with respect to attitude structure was acquired from the Social Judgement Theory which captured most of the initial research on *attitudes* (Sherif and Cantril, 1947; Sherif and Sherif, 1956; Day, 1970: 44). Regularly, however, the relationship of involvement with attitudes within consumer behaviour was measured in terms of attitude models (Harrell, 1979: 136-142). Here, some empirical evidence suggest that the relation between attitude and behavioural intention for one researched group of consumers was found to be strong under high involvement (Harrell, 1979: 140). On the other hand, individuals with low involvement were more susceptible to attitude change, while under high involvement the consumers appeared to be more loyal to a brand or an issue (Harrell, 1979).

Moving on to *purchasing involvement*, the primary emphasis was on the 'self-relevance of purchasing activities to the individual' (Slama and Tashchian, 1985: 73). The purchasing activities are related with involvement due to the assumption that consumers with similar characteristics express dissimilar levels of purchasing involvement which affect their buying behaviour (Kassarjian, 1978, 1981). Here most of the empirical focus is on the consumer's occupation and some special activities or hobbies, the so-called detached consumers, as well as the low-low involvement consumer who expressed a lack of interest in most things (Kassarjian, 1978, 1981; Cardozo, 1965; Muehling et al, 1993). Similarly with purchasing activities, other elements have captured the research attention, notably the concept of involvement towards *advertisements*. Here, the definition of involvement has been declared as a 'person's perceived relevance of the advertisements based on inherent needs, values and interests' (Zaichkowsky, 1985a: 342). There is also considerable research indicating that involvement with advertisements is focused on the general personal relevance of a message (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981: 20; Krugman, 1965, 1966), as well as on the receiver's perception of how the advertisement's structure could address some of the consumer's pending concerns (Wright, 1975).

In sum, the cognitively-based definitions give an initial conceptualisation of involvement as reflecting the perceived personal relevance of an object to an individual. Specifically, they define involvement as referring to the relative importance of an attitude or consequences an individual associates with an object. Overall, this approach to involvement provided an insight into the cognitive connections where **involvement is a characteristic of the product-knowledge structure which further forms the basis for involvement research** (see figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4 Involvement as a characteristic of product-knowledge structure



Source: Laaksonen, 1994: 124

3.9 THE POT-POURRI CONCEPTUALISATION OF INVOLVEMENT

The pot-pourri approach to involvement is an amalgam of the cognitively-based approach, the individual-based approach and the response-based approach. Within the pot-pourri approach, a large number of researchers introduced a variety of dimensions of involvement or antecedents for involvement or types of involvement (Lastovicka and Gardner, 1979; Bloch, 1981). In every instance therefore, involvement has been seen to include different elements as it is expressed in terms of ‘functional and expressive’ types (Mittal, 1983, 1988, 1989), or as a function of the concepts of ‘normative importance, commitment and familiarity’ (Lastovicka and Gardner, 1979). Here, much of the debate centred on the hypothesis that involvement is a unidimensional, multidimensional or profile-orientated concept, varying only with certain products or with a variety of

products (Zinkham and Muderrisoglu, 1985; Mittal and Lee, 1989; Gardial and Zinkham, 1984).

Due to these constraints, the discussion centred on the approaches which separate the involvement per se from the involvement-mediated consequences (Cohen, 1983: 326; Rothschild, 1984; Kassarian, 1978). Towards this end, two scales appeared in the literature as a representative of these concerns, that of the 'Involvement Profile' (IP) and the 'Personal Involvement Inventory' (PII).

3.10 THE INVOLVEMENT PROFILE

The involvement profile is to a large extent one of the main indicators of the multidimensional or profile view of involvement (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Kapferer and Laurent, 1985, 1986; Mittal and Lee, 1989; Mittal, 1989; Madrigal et al, 1992; Havitz and Dimanche, 1990; Dimanche et al, 1991, 1993; Jamrozy et al, 1996; Havitz et al, 1993, 1994). Here, the definitional approach taken in creating the profile was that of the *individual approach to involvement* (Rothschild, 1984: 217). Thereafter, it was suggested that involvement is a hypothetical contrast, which can be only measured from its alleged determinants, facets or antecedents (Kapferer and Laurent, 1986: 49; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985: 42; Kapferer and Laurent, 1985: 290-291). Conceptually speaking the profile has five main facets or antecedents (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Kapferer and Laurent, 1985, 1986):

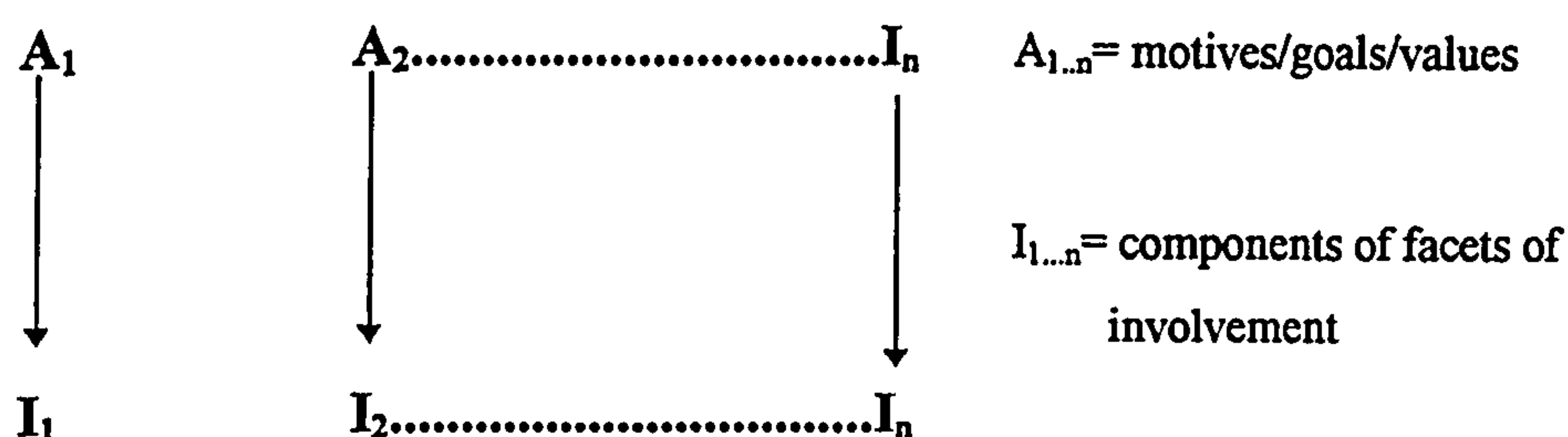
1. The perceived importance or personal meaning (Importance/Interest);
2. The perceived importance of negative consequences in cases of poor choice (Risk importance);
3. The perceived probability of making such a mistake (Risk probability);
4. The symbolic or sign value attributed by the consumer to the product, its purchase or its consumption (Sign value); and
5. The hedonic value of the product, its emotional appeal, its ability to provide pleasure and affect (Pleasure).

Theoretically speaking, the usage of these facets not only highlight certain characteristics about the nature of involvement, but also reveal a prediction about the consequences of it (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Kapferer and Laurent, 1985, 1986; Dimanche et al, 1991:57,1993; Havitz et al, 1993, 1994).

Laurent and Kapferer detailed that among practitioners and theoreticians it became very common to treat involvement in terms of a mere high/low involvement dichotomy (Kapferer and Laurent, 1985:294). However, these authors stated that most of the consumers have contrasted types of profiles, as they are high in some facets of involvement and low on other facets, and it is precisely the subjective situation created by the interaction of facets which leads to specific purchasing and communication behaviour (Kapferer and Laurent, 1986:55).

In sum, Kapferer and Laurent view involvement from the individual-state approach and *as a profile across dimensions (antecedents or facets) in that involvement is not a unitary concept and that there are different involvement types* (Laurent and Kapferer 1985; Laaksonen, 1994:122-124) [see figure 3.5]. However, there have been certain limitations with regards to this approach.

Figure 3.5 The profile view of involvement



Source: Laaksonen, 1994: 124

3.10.1 Limitations of the involvement profile

Certain authors argue that the IP is uneven and confined mainly to studies demonstrating diverse types of involvement found within the profile (Mittal and Lee, 1988; Mittal and Lee, 1989; Mittal, 1989; Cohen, 1983). In order to specify, Mittal and Lee (1989) suggested that certain elements of this profile signify different types of involvement. For example, the importance and pleasure facet measured product involvement, and that risk (both consequences and probability) is conceived at the brand choice level. The fifth facet (sign value) refers to either product or brand choice.

To elaborate this point further, a criticism which arose concerning the IP is the interchangeable usage of the dimensions as 'antecedents or facets of involvement' (Mittal, 1989: 697). The first assumption was that if the five dimensions are antecedents, then the focus is on the actual antecedents, not on the nature of involvement. On the other hand, the second assumption illustrated an opposite view, in that if the five dimensions are facets, then a multifaceted view of involvement is detailed, therefore it was recommended that the usage of the terms (facets or antecedents), has to reflect the scope of the literature review (Mittal and Lee, 1988; Mittal, 1989: 697). Thus, it was advisable to consider the dimensions of the IP as facets of involvement rather than antecedents (Mittal and Lee, 1988).

Most importantly a major constraint at this stage was that while the IP represents the profile view to involvement (Laaksonen, 1994) a modification of it was introduced to represent the unidimensional aspects of involvement (Mittal, 1989: 700-701; Laaksonen, 1994) [see figure 3.6]. In particular, it was claimed that the IP could present the intensities with which different motives/goals/values, are connected to a product and combined to affect the degree of involvement.

- Secondly, the scales were single-item measures with low reliability which failed to examine the nature of involvement.

As a result, the PII aimed to provide a standardised, multiple-item measure of involvement with internal reliability and validity (Zaichkowsky, 1985a, b; 1987; McQuarrie and Munson, 1987; 1992). The Inventory claimed to be applicable across products, brand-decisions and advertisements as a stimuli, in which its conceptual foundations access the motivational state of involvement. Thus, it measured the state of involvement (low and high) as opposed to measuring the antecedents presented by the IP (Zaichkowsky, 1985a, b; Mittal, 1989; Laaksonen, 1994).

Looking at the empirical aspects of the PII, it mainly contained a series of validity and reliability measures such as the content validity, the internal reliability and the stability of internally reliable items over a period of time (Zaichkowsky, 1985b). However, the initial PII suffered from the so-called 'possibility of interpretational confounding' (McQuarrie and Munson, 1987: 36). In general terms, interpretational confounding 'occurs as the assignment of empirical meaning to an unobservable variable which is other than the meaning assigned to it by an individual a priori to estimating unknown parameters' (Burt, 1976: 4). At this stage the PII includes two groups of adjectives. The first group has items that underline a high face validity as incidents of involvement prior to any empirical validation work (McQuarrie and Munson, 1987: 36-37). The second group contains adjectives associated with involvement, and others normally associated with measurement of other constructs such as attitudes (McQuarrie and Munson, 1987). In particular, the initial factor analysis of the 20 items contained three distinct constructs: involvement proper; a hedonic factor; and an attitude-like construct. At this stage however, certain criticisms arose regarding to its elements such as the hedonic and attitude components.

3.11.1 Limitations of the personal involvement inventory

Initially the criticisms concerned some of the roles of the items of the PII. For example, some items of the scale, such as boring/ interesting, appealing/unappealing and unexciting/ exciting, claimed to include a hedonic factor (Mittal, 1989: 698-699). The argument at this stage was that the hedonic factor is related to involvement and not that it is involvement itself. This further implied that involvement is a separate construct from the hedonic factor (Mittal, 1989: 698).

On the other hand, the attitude-like construct included items such as valuable/ worthless and beneficial. Here, the argument was that while Zaichkowsky (1985b) recognised the need for not including attitude items within the PII, she adopted the so-called 'bipolar semantic differential' strategy. This has received criticism on the grounds of being an inadequate approach, in the sense that making the items unipolar such as the inclusion of 'not beneficial' in place of harmful, merely truncates the range of attitude constructs rather than eliminating them (Mittal, 1989: 698; McQuarrie and Munson, 1987: 36). Attitude and involvement are distinct constructs in which involvement mediates attitude formation and change (Petty and Cacioppo, 1991). The inclusion of attitude-like items in a scale of involvement confounds the latter (McQuarrie and Munson, 1987). Next, there were some other limitations of the initial twenty items of PII, in that (Mittal, 1989; McQuarrie and Munson, 1987, 1992; Burnkrant and Page, 1992):

- The level of vocabulary was advanced for the consumers to respond, such as the usage of terms like 'mundane';
- The length of the PII was too long in that a shorter version could have been more widely applicable ;
- Certain terms of the PII have been utilised by social sciences to identify the degree of favorability of objects, hence they are not relevant when measuring the nature of involvement per se, such as items like 'useful' and 'beneficial'; and
- PII appeared to be so 'burdened', in the sense that the involvement definition did not include any separation between the antecedents and consequences.

Further, at the conceptual perspective, the criticisms have been also advanced. At this stage, it was evident that although Zaichkowsky treated involvement from the cognitively-based definitional approach she did not pinpoint the extent of personal relevance, in other words what she considered to be relevant for the object (Mittal, 1989: 699). On the other hand, the author of the PII did not elaborate on whether to measure enduring involvement, and/or situational involvement, and/or felt involvement, and/or involvement itself (Zaichkowsky, 1985b; McQuarrie and Munson, 1987, 1992). All these criticisms seem to suggest that the PII needed modifications in order to become more usable and less attitude contaminated (McQuarrie and Munson, 1987, 1992; Park and Young, 1986).

3.11.2 The new version of the personal involvement inventory

In the light of the latter limitations, Zaichkowsky presented an updated version of the PII which aimed to: detail a ten-item inventory without significantly reducing reliability; and demonstrate that the PII can capture both the emotional and cognitive types of involvement (1994:2). The new version of the PII treats involvement as a motivational construct which details the antecedent factors of the person's values and needs (Zaichkowsky, 1986; 1994:2). This definitional perspective of involvement details both the cognitive and affective types. Much of the debate about the PII at this stage was that the PII measures the nature of involvement as well as details of both of these types of involvement in its framework. Zaichkowsky (1994), however, emphasised that both the cognitive and affective elements, as well as the involvement concept itself, detail the overall personal relevance of an object to an individual. The resulting issue of this argumentation is that the cognitive and affective types of involvement act as antecedents and appear in cases when they interact with the stimulus in a specific situation (Zaichkowsky, 1994).

Looking at the new PII, its scale contains ten items with scores ranging from one to seven. The total scores between 10-29 represent a low involvement condition, 30-50 a medium involvement condition and 51-70 a high involvement condition.

This version of the PII revealed that a reduction of its items from twenty to ten is reliable and valid, as well as some of its items could outline an affective and cognitive component when measuring involvement with advertisements. In treating the object as a product, the PII could reveal product involvement without any reference to the cognitive and affective types. Indeed, it was proposed more generally that while the cognitive and affective types of involvement could not be separated it is not clear if this principle applies to product involvement (Zaichkowsky, 1994).

In sum, the new PII showed that it can underline product involvement from an unidimensional perspective as well as revealing a high level of reliability and validity.

3.12 SUMMARY

The concept of involvement was first applied in social psychology and then moved into consumer behaviour research. In consumer behaviour, involvement is classified into four distinct approaches, all of which contain certain relationships with products, advertising, purchase activities, and decision making procedures. Two different approaches of involvement were reviewed, that of the cognitively-based, and pot-pourri based approaches. The cognitively-based approach outlined all the different treatments and relationships surrounding the perceived personal relevance of an object to an individual. At the centre of this approach, the views of the means-end chain and value theories were extensively reviewed as they represent one of the main topics of the primary data analysis. Next, the pot-pourri approaches examined the IP and PII. The final section concluded with the unidimensional view of involvement and the review of the PII which not only is a single index of the level of involvement but its high validity and reliability scores also allow it to represent one of the components of the primary data analysis. In overall terms, this chapter presented the theoretical approaches and types of consumer involvement in consumer behaviour research, and captured their theoretical and operational aspects.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.0 Methodology

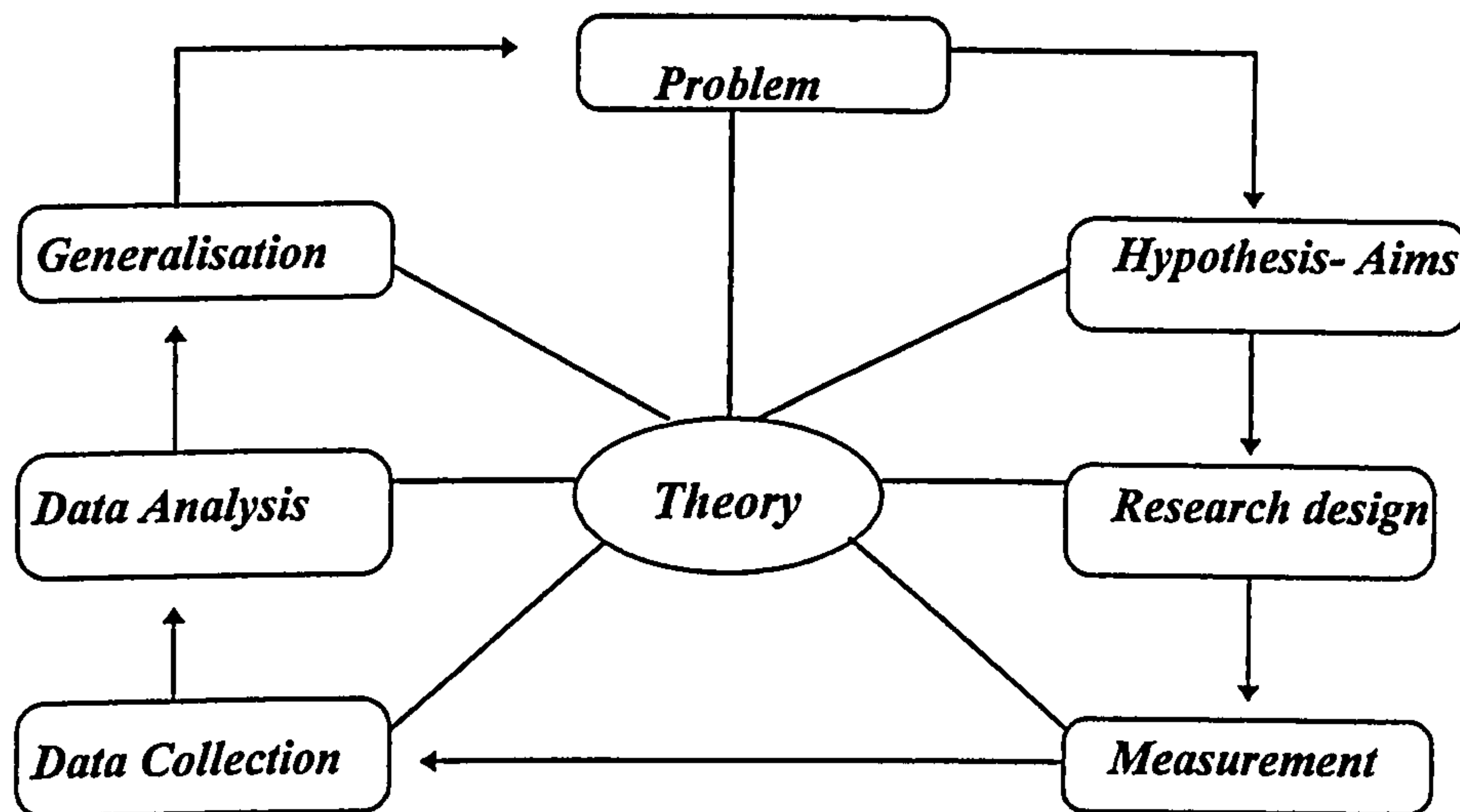
4.1 INTRODUCTION

The nature of a research discipline is associated with a methodological process embodied with principles and procedures through which certain problems can be solved (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975: 1; Bailey, 1994). This problem-driven research carries an arbitrary element which cannot be resolved by a philosophy of science debate, but it can be solved by the logic from the organisation of the scientific research (Wagner, 1997; Bogdan and Taylor, 1975; Bailey, 1994). In turn, this allows certain degrees of freedom in framing and choosing a research problem to emerge as well as certain trade-off scenarios on a theoretical and empirical plane to be decided (Wagner, 1997: 6; Singleton et al, 1993; Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). These issues however, have to be seen in a way which reflects the research problem rather than the debates over the theoretical and empirical grounds, such as disciplinary versus interdisciplinary research and quantitative versus qualitative (Wagner, 1997:6-7; Singleton et al, 1993; Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996; Malhora, 1993; Bailey, 1994). As such the underlying structural logic which organises the scientific research and the structural logic which is applied in both the theoretical and empirical agendas is identical (Wagner, 1997).

Consequently, in every single research setting there are certain stages which need to be considered which reflect these trade off scenarios (Wagner, 1997). Here, there are a number of general research process models (Oppenheim, 1992; Singleton et al, 1993; Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996; Hakim, 1987; Bailey, 1994), in which each one contains certain similar stages. In this case, there are seven main stages which range from the research problem to the generalization stage, all presented in the form of a cycle (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996) [see figure 4.1]. Each stage of the research processes proclaimed to have an interaction with the examined theoretical content and vice versa (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). Its cyclic nature also suggests that the research process continues indefinitely, in that the outcome of one cycle is the starting point of the next cycle of research. Taking this model as a basic skeleton of this research setting, its application focused on researching the concept of ecotourism and in particular the research question which is **the exploration of**

different types and/or profiles of ecotourists in the UK, by using the concept of consumer involvement.

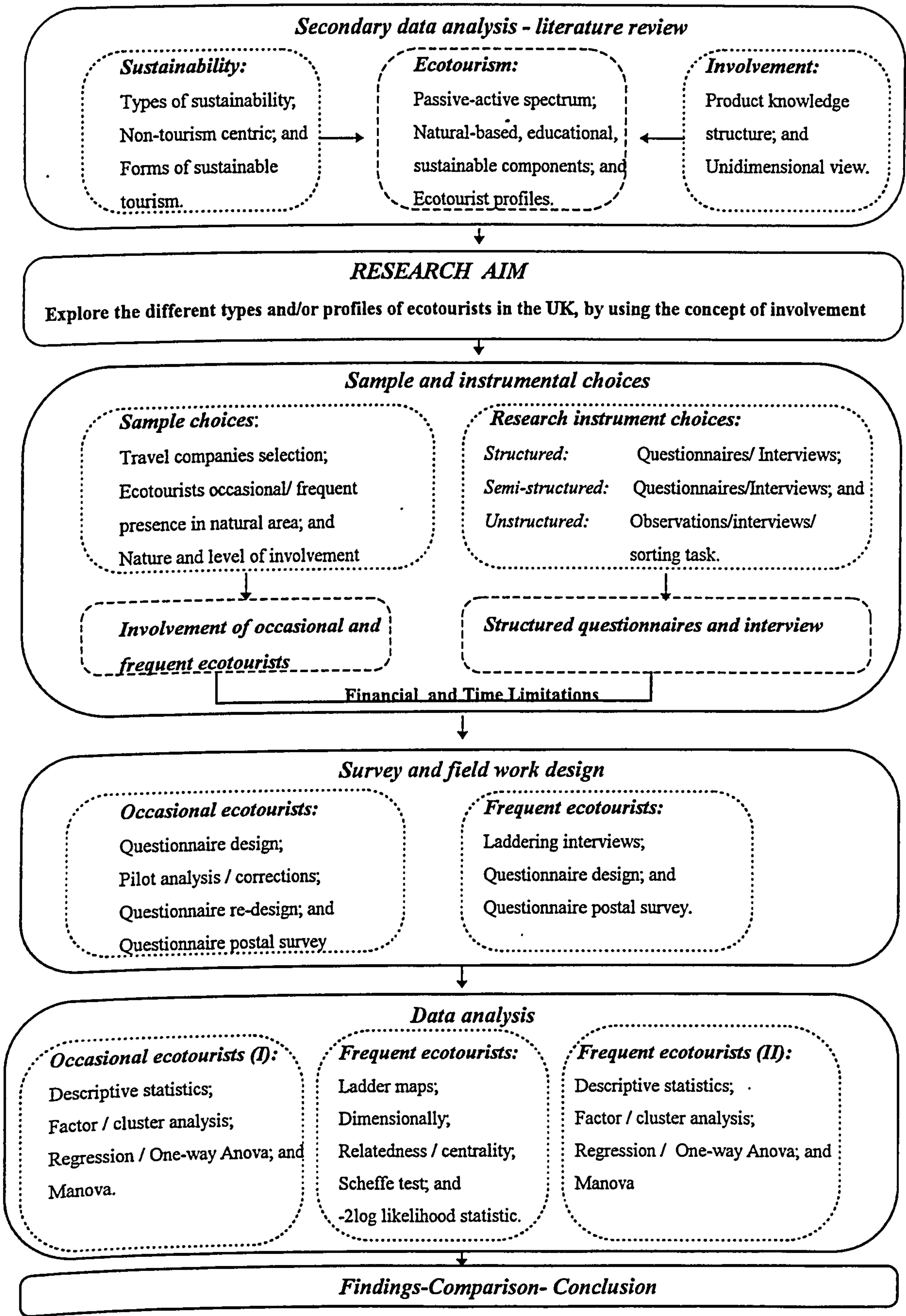
Figure 4.1 General stages of the research process



Source: Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996:20

Hence, the methodological steps within this research study included the assessment of both quantitative and qualitative research techniques in an attempt to examine this research question. Certain criteria influenced the selection of ecotourists in this survey, with the most profound one being the dichotomy between the individual's occasional and frequent presence in an undisturbed area (see figure 4.2). This classification mainly surfaced in the shortcomings of the literature or secondary data, which in turn determined the specific tools that were elected and utilized. In an attempt to examine these issues the process began with the limitations of the literature review in sustainability, ecotourism, and involvement, and the main aims of this research study. In addition, the general scope of the survey setting will be outlined by examining the methodological issues surrounding the application of both qualitative and quantitative tools, the criteria used to elicit the sample sizes and the techniques applied to present the profiles of the ecotourists (see figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2 Methodological steps of this research study



4.2 ISSUES EMERGING FROM THE SECONDARY DATA REVIEW

The literature review was divided into three key areas: sustainability, ecotourism and consumer involvement (see figure 4.2). The first area outlined the concept of *sustainability* both from the environmental and tourism perspectives. Here, the review initially explored the different issues in the sustainability agenda, in particular those in relation to the concepts of development, needs and future generations. In all of the examined concepts, there were a number of pitfalls. As a result the effectiveness of these concepts to the sustainability agenda was debated. Certain limitations also appeared from the examination of sustainability within the field of tourism. The sustainable tourism development review outlined the notion of the 'tourism-centric' approach. Fundamentally, sustainable tourism development should take into account all the other economic sectors which consume resources. In such cases, the issues of geographical equity, a single-sector tourism development planning, resource utilisation, and types of sustainability should be maintained in order to achieve sustainable tourism development which then becomes an adaptive paradigm and non-tourism centric. Further, sustainability in tourism also revealed limitations in terms of its similarities with other forms of tourism, in particular that of ecotourism.

It is at this point that the versatile nature of *ecotourism* surfaces as a result of its definitions, linkages with other forms of sustainable tourism, and a lack of understanding regarding the behavioral patterns of its clientele base. In particular, in the second chapter most of the ecotourism definitions that were reviewed contained three common elements: natural-based; educational; and sustainable. In addition, certain shortcomings arose in relation to the spectrum of ecotourism and its characteristics, as well as the relationships between ecotourism and other forms of sustainable tourism.

Another limitation highlighted that ecotourism was still at its early theoretical stages, and the discussion did not concentrate on treating ecotourism as a concept with certain components but rather on the planning and definitional issues. This study assessed its main three sub-components (natural-based, sustainability, education) where a number of advantages and disadvantages came into light. The setting in which ecotourism operates, the reliance of the 'tourism-centric' syndrome, and the need for education and

training programs, as well as the monitoring procedures of environmental impacts were among the most critically discussed issues.

Certain issues also arose from the review of the profiles of ecotourists. There was evidence to illustrate that ecotourists were not 'primary purpose' visitors, as while they were at the destination they tended to enjoy other forms of tourism. The review explored a variety of studies from North America and Australia, where distinct differences emerged. Among the examined segmentation studies, 'primary purpose' ecotourists only represented between 14%-54% of the total examined sample, hence pointing to the existence of other types of ecotourists.

Further most of the studies did not attempt to enhance the knowledge-based platform of tourism. For instance, in most of these studies, there were no attempts to blend in other management and marketing concepts. An exception to this rule was noted by a study which applied the concept of consumer involvement. Although this study concentrated on the connection between natural-based tourism and opinion leadership, it provided some relevant insights to this research.

The review of *consumer involvement* outlined that the concept was initially applied in social psychology where a number of distinct approaches emerged, notably that of ego-involvement and low involvement behavior types. Eventually, the research moved to consumer behavior where the debate was about classifying the different types of involvement. Here, four approaches emerged:

- Cognitively-based approach: outlined the perceived personal significance of an object to an individual;
- Individual state approach: characterised the motivational state of the individual;
- Response based approach: emphasised the different responses created; and
- Pot-pourri approach: comprised of elements of the latter three approaches.

Based on an assessment of these four types this research only adopted *the cognitively-based and the pot-pourri approaches*. Much of the discussion within the cognitively-based approach concerned the role of the means-end chain. Here, the chain operates based on the three layers of product knowledge, the attributes of the product, the consequences of using such attributes, and the values which are the beliefs of the

individual. The issues derived from the means-end chain review which are relevant to this part of the analysis were:

- *experienced consumers reveal a wealth of both concrete and abstract knowledge;*
- *the focus of the chain is on the whole linkages structure as well as on the importance of consequences, rather than attributes;*
- *the values are expressed in a consumption-orientated manner to determine product involvement;*
- *consumers who do not consider the role of values in their decision-making process, only reveal a few values; and*
- *from the decision-making perspective, the focus is not on the attribute per se but what the attribute means to consumer, which further forms the basis of consumer's motivation and product involvement.*

The methodological procedure required to reveal these issues is a qualitative technique known as laddering. Here, a hypothesis was made that the application of the means-end chain and laddering principles in the area of ecotourism could reveal a number of insights to the characteristics of the ecotourists.

Further, a review of the pot-pourri approaches indicated different research scales which attempted to quantify the level of involvement. At this stage, much of the discussion was that of the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) scale, which is a single measured scale classifying consumers into the low, medium, and high involvement groups. Its use suggested high reliability and validity measurements mainly in consumer behavioral studies. The PII is also representative of the unidimensional approach to involvement, indicating that different motives, goals or values are connected to a product and combined to affect the degree of involvement. As a result, this study adopted both the PII scale and the means-end chain in order to compare them under a single research setting with an overall objective of providing an insight into the areas of ecotourism and involvement.

4.3 RESEARCH QUESTION AND OBJECTIVES

The main research question of this study is to **explore the different types and/or profiles of ecotourists in the UK, by using the concept of consumer involvement** (see figure 4.2). The starting point in this process lies in the following *objectives*:

- Identify occasional and frequent types of ecotourists;
- Illustrate the profiles of occasional ecotourists based on their knowledge of ecotourism and values;
- Illustrate the involvement levels of occasional ecotourists;
- Identify the knowledge structure of frequent ecotourists;
- Assess the knowledge structure of the frequent ecotourists in a larger sample;
- Illustrate the profiles of frequent ecotourists based on their knowledge of ecotourism (attributes, consequences) and values;
- Illustrate the involvement levels of frequent ecotourists;
- Identify the various influences upon the nature of involvement; and
- Compare the effectiveness of the cognitive and unidimensional view of involvement.

It follows from this that certain choices have to be outlined in terms of the research design which includes decisions in terms of qualitative and quantitative structures, survey samples, and design of research instruments and analytical tools.

4.4 THE QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH PERSPECTIVES

There are two main perspectives with regards to the research instrumental choice, that of the quantitative and qualitative research (Bogdan and Taylor, 1975; Patton, 1990; Yin, 1989; Creswell, 1994; Breakwell, 1995; Walle, 1997; de Vaus, 1991; Sykes, 1990; Colwell, 1990; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Hakim, 1987) [see figure 4.2]. The quantitative approach utilises certain tools such as surveys and experiments, with its roots connected to the traditional empirical research paradigm of the natural sciences and as such is labeled as an objective research practice (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). The qualitative approach advocates techniques such as case studies, participant observation and interviews and has been associated with the phenomenological hermeneutic research

paradigm and is therefore labeled as a subjective research practice (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Gordon and Langmaid, 1988; Colwell, 1990; Sykes, 1990; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Wagner, 1997) [see table 4.1].

Table 4.1 Differences between qualitative and quantitative research

Elements	Differences	
	Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Objective	To gain a qualitative understanding of the underlying reasons and motivations	To quantify the data and generalise the results from the sample to the population
Sample	Small number of non-representative cases	Large number of representative cases
Data collection	Unstructured	Structured
Data analysis	Non-statistical	Statistical
Outcome	Develop an initial understanding	Recommend a final course of action

Source: Malhotra, 1993

There are certain advantages and disadvantages in utilising these research practices (Wagner, 1997; Breakwell, 1995; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). Firstly, that of external validity which deals with the relevance of the issues within the research setting and its ability to predict and interpret the research questions (Breakwell, 1995; Coolican, 1990; Yin, 1989; Litwin, 1995). Secondly, that of reliability which deals with issues which are free from errors and are bonded with consistency so that its reputation can underline similar results (Peter, 1979; Perreault and Leigh, 1989; Huges and Garrett, 1990; Coolican, 1990; Yin, 1989; Litwin, 1995; Traub, 1994). Thirdly, that of precision which is associated with the sample accuracy (Foxall, 1993; Shimp, 1994), in which the paradigm of the methodological pluralism has been suggested as a means to overcome this situation (Foxall, 1993: 46). Regardless of such efforts these limitations remain intact as there is a general tendency for the empirical research to drive conceptual research rather than vice versa (Wagner, 1997). Within the qualitative research however, the issue of external validity does not appear as the context and the themes under investigation are not purposefully separated (Wagner, 1997: 65; Coolican, 1990; Patton, 1990). The qualitative research mainly deals with the so-called real life studies, and as such the 'meaningful units' of research measurement are analyzed in a more comprehensive manner (Wagner, 1997). In all the cases, the choice between quantitative and/or qualitative research practices is reflected and dependent upon the

role of either method to solving the chosen research problem (Shimp, 1994; Wagner, 1997; Wells, 1993; Grunert, 1988; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994).

4.4.1 Quantitative and/or qualitative research dilemmas within the field of tourism and ecotourism

Within the field of tourism similar observations and debates over quantitative and/or scientific and qualitative methods exist (Walle, 1997: 533-535; Dann et al, 1988). Within tourism research there has been an emphasis on quantitative methods and the role of qualitative research has been used as a supportive or supplementary tool (Walle, 1997). Although this approach is justified, the limitation which generally exists is that tourism research sometimes divorces itself from other disciplines related to tourism that consider the same issues (Walle, 1997). As a result, three options were proposed for tourism researchers to avoid this situation (Walle, 1997: 528):

- a) to explore the variety of tools and techniques both from quantitative and qualitative grounds;
- b) to establish that the selection of research methods involves a trade-off whereby allowing one option would mean abandoning other alternatives; and
- c) to establish a trade-off setting where scientific tools and subjective interpretations can be utilized.

In all the cases, the choice between qualitative and/or quantitative research tools (Dann et al, 1988) or emics/art or etics/science (Walle, 1997: 535) must be defined as a reflection of the situation which aims to observe rather than 'to be some misguided search for rigor simply for its own sake' (Walle, 1997: 535).

On examining the field of ecotourism the majority of consumer behavior studies were quantitatively based (see chapter 2). The limitations with such approaches were derived from the emphasis on traditional research techniques, and as such the situation which aimed to observe was more or less pre-determined. This has been achieved either through the pre-selection of certain motivational factors hence it does not allow the respondent to express their own views, or through the criteria of who selected these samples. It is worth also mentioning that none of the studies illustrated any reliability,

precision, or external validity issues, and as such no comparison could be drawn in terms of research efficiency. In all the cases, as these studies provide the first attempts to elicit the profiles of ecotourists, their research skeleton can be used as a base for other research practices rather than be excluded from further examination.

As a result, this research selected both quantitative and qualitative tools. The qualitative aspect is not only strongly associated with the product involvement perspective (that of the means-end chain theory), but generally lacks the support of other ecotourism research studies. The quantitative aspect was mainly influenced by the initial attempt to build on the qualitative results and to provide a comparison with other cases. In both instances however, the exact procedure of the qualitative and quantitative measurement was influenced by the sampling criteria, and issues relating to how and from whom the ecotourist database was collected.

4.5 SAMPLING CRITERIA IN SELECTING ECOTOURISTS

Within the available literature of ecotourism a number of parameters emerged during the selection of the survey samples and/or definitional procedures. Although the selection of these parameters has not always been the case among all the ecotourism research studies, their importance is evident if one considers the nature of the experiential impacts (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Blamey, 1995a, b, c; 1997). Generally speaking, there are three types of impacts which could have greater influence than the environmental impacts of ecotourism (Lindberg and McKerger, 1997: 73; Lindberg et al, 1998: 16):

- Firstly, the *crowding type* which refers to the minimization of the quality of visitor experience due to the presence of large numbers of people during their visit;
- Secondly, the *conflict type* which refers to the minimization of the quality of visitor experience due to incompatibility with other visitors; and
- Thirdly the *environmental degradation type* which refers to the minimization of the quality of visitor experience due to the perception of environmental deterioration caused by other visitors.

While these types of impacts were primarily related to tourism satisfaction research settings (Lindberg and McKercher, 1997; Lindberg et al, 1998), each of these impacts also takes into consideration, several factors which influence the visitors and which subsequently distinguish their profile such as distance of travel, length of stay, level of learning, desired activities, importance of nature, and the degree of physical effort exerted (Lindberg et al, 1998: 4; Blamey, 1995a, 1997).

On this point, Ballantine and Eagles (1994) used time-criteria to select ecotourists who visited Kenya to go on safari. In particular, those who intended to learn about nature with the intention to visit the wilderness or undisturbed areas, and individuals who spend one-third of their time on the latter two criteria. In addition Wight's (1996) reference to Butler's and Boyd's types was also based on the trip duration parameter which was between less than two days, and more than seven days. On a similar vein, Weaver (1998) used another criteria that of '*tourist hours*'. He suggested that a very

limited number of people could be fully portrayed as ecotourists, but instead 'primary-purpose' ecotourists could be pinpointed by (Weaver, 1998: 224):

- a) Individuals who dedicate 50% or more of their tourist hours in ecotourism, including ecolodge accommodation;
- b) Individuals who spend 50% or more of their time partaking in ecotourism activity pursuits;
- c) Individuals for whom ecotourism accounts for a plurality of daytime activity hours; and
- d) Individuals who advocate ecotourism related activities to reflect the primary purpose of their trip.

In general, these time based classifications are quite confusing as a difficulty generally exists in accounting for tourism hours from a general perspective (Blamey, 1995a: 23). With respect to Weaver's classification, an additional difficulty arises from the lack of other factors of ecotourism [natural based, educational etc.] embodied within his classification. On the other hand, Ballantine and Eagle's approach faces the limitation of considering two [natural-based, educational] out of the three common elements of the concept of ecotourism [sustainability] (Blamey, 1995a, b).

In both cases however, there is a lack of implementing these time criteria especially for certain short term activities such as, would a ten minute guided nature walk qualify as an ecotourism day ? (Blamey, 1995a, b, c).

Others researchers however, selected a sample of ecotourists according to their activities (Wight, 1996). In determining North American ecotourists, Wight did not use any definition of ecotourism or any time criteria, rather this research focused on pre-determining ecotourists according to their interest in ecotourism-related activities such as nature, outdoor recreation, and or cultural interests (1996:3). She argued that ecotourists have their own definition of ecotourism, and if a definition is considered in advance then there is a bias or predispose with reference to the selected definition (Wight, 1996: 2-3). Alternatively, Weiler and Richins used three criteria to present the dimensions of ecotourism at the destination (1995: 30). The level of commitment to be environmentally responsible, level of intensity of interaction with nature, and level of physical activity or challenge (Weiler and Richins, 1995). Others used a *broader*

criteria to select the ecotourism sample (Chapman, 1995). Here, respondents were selected on the basis that they were engaged in enjoying and appreciating the Forest environment for its own sake, and not using it as a way to participate in other activities (Chapman, 1995: 55). Chapman's (1995) approach suggested that there is difficulty in selecting certain specific criteria due to the inarticulate definition of ecotourism, consequently a broad perspective allowed respondents to decide if the nature appreciation experience is a core element of their experience.

Further, another set of criteria emerged in terms of intentions and outcomes of the ecotourism experience based on the combination of 'distance and time' (Blamey, 1995a, b, c; 1997). For example, the assessment of the natural-based component could be tested in terms of outcome of the trip, and the appreciation/education component could be evaluated in terms of intentions (Blamey, 1995a, b, c; 1997) [see chapter 2]. Blamey suggested that the detailed or restrictive learning experience is not necessarily a component of ecotourism, as the primary intention to observe certain species or animals could be regarded as ecotourism (1995a, b; 1997). In terms, of the sustainability component it emerged that respondents had difficulty in stating that environmental impacts did not matter to them (Blamey, 1995a, b; 1997). For this element, there are some potential limitations as in ideal research settings, a comprehensive ranking of the environmental monitoring activities within the visited sites should accompany the market segmentation studies (Blamey, 1995c: 3). Nevertheless, the option which remains available is to adopt a less restrictive initial approach on ecotourism based on the market that is available, rather than a narrow approach which misses a large portion of the market (Blamey, 1995a, b, c; 1997). In all the cases, Blamey (1995a, b, c, 1997) suggested that there is a need for greater discussion of the attributes of ecotourism in terms of the demand and supply characteristics, and in terms of certain intentions and outcomes of the ecotourism experience and/or in terms of pre-trip and post-trip evaluations.

In this setting, the limitations surrounding these 'time' sampling criteria could be overcome through the use of a post-trip or outcome evaluation assessment. By initially selecting a sample from specialized ecotourism companies certain parameters could be assessed. For instance to determine a sample according to a

pre-established amount of presence within an ecotourism setting (Occasional, Frequent). This could be supported with questions based on the three common elements of ecotourism or activities reflecting these elements which would then allow the identification of ecotourists to emerge. These would then assist in the selection of certain types of ecotourists and contribute to researching their profiles, a procedure which has been adopted within this research study. In order to illustrate such procedures certain issues surrounding these sampling criteria ought to be considered.

4.5.1 Selection procedures of the current sample

Generally, much of the discussion on sampling has focused on the actual size and standard errors of the sample where practitioners argue that larger sample sizes generate better estimates (de Vaus, 1991), while others suggest that sample accuracy is more significant as the sampling error is marginal (Fife-Schaw, 1995b; Singleton et al, 1993). There are a variety of sampling techniques available such as simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling procedures, and quota sampling all of which have distinct advantages and disadvantages reflecting the setting due to be researched (Fife-Schaw, 1995b: 107-111).

For the purpose of this research two methods of sampling were used, that of simple random sampling which concerns the initial selection of companies and ecotourists and theoretical sampling which deals with the investigation of the appropriate group of ecotourists. *Simple random sampling*, tends to focus on the principle that each member of the population has the chance of being selected for the survey (Fife-Schaw, 1995b: 107-108). Among the advantages of this tool is that it permits the full usage of statistical tools, while one of the limitations is that it may miss certain key characteristics of the population (Fife-Schaw, 1995b: 108).

As a result *theoretical sampling* was used which samples certain groups of people likely to provide theoretical insights (Fife-Schaw, 1995b: 110-111). Hence, theoretical sampling is mainly conducted to investigate a particular instance of a certain phenomenon, in this case ecotourism presence in an undisturbed area (Fife-Schaw, 1995b: 110-111). Theoretical sampling in the form of variation sampling is meant to yield a sample from a diverse composition (Patton, 1990; Fife-Schaw, 1995b; Wagner,

1997: 73). Among the advantages of this method is that it deals with sample populations which provide an experience insight into the research question, while a weakness would be that the research results could not provide an insight into the research question (Fife-Schaw, 1995b: 111). In addition, in ensuring that the final sample contained the two types of ecotourism-presence in an undisturbed area, the so-called *self-ranking tasks* were formulated. Generally, self rating tasks allow respondents to classify themselves into certain categories according to pre-established statements or scales (Wagner, 1997). However, its application entails a number of personality traits as some individuals are generally cautious in assessing themselves while others might be less so (Fife-Schaw, 1995b; Patton, 1990; de Vaus, 1991). Since, this process was initiated as a form of further sampling, its effectiveness was going to be judged in terms of the actual response rate.

4.5.2 The actual sampling process

For the actual sampling process of this research, the travel companies selection and ecotourists selection procedures were regarded as the two most important stages in the analysis (see figure 4.2). Initially, 125 different companies from the Association of Independent Tour Operators (AITO) directory were randomly contacted between November 1995 and January 1996. The AITO directory mainly contained independent tour operators who deal with alternative tourism, and the random selection was made based on two criteria. Firstly, that they had an interest in natural-based activities and green manifestations and secondly that their travel products were related to ecotourism destinations overseas. Prior to this, twenty tourism boards were contacted on the basis that they offered ecotourism products and services in their destination and that they recorded visitor numbers to : national parks; world heritage sites; and wildlife viewing. The list of companies was obtained as a result of a meeting with Tourism Concern. Next, a letter outlining a summary of the research was sent to these organisations asking them for their collaboration in selecting the ecotourism samples. It is worth noting at this stage that there is no evidence documenting the total number of 'ecotourism' companies registered in the UK. As a result, there were no attempts made to estimate the overall statistical significance of the sample as there is a lack of knowledge

concerning the parameters and tolerance levels of the sample size. From a total of 145 organisations, ten companies showed an interest in collaborating with this research project, that of: Journey Latin America, Australia Tourism Commission, Asia World Travel, Andante Travel, Exodus Travel, Seychelles Tourism Board, Indochina Travel, Coral Cay Conservation, Travelbag, and Cayman Islands Department of Tourism.

The remaining 135 companies either did not reply to the letter or rejected to collaborate based on two main reasons. Firstly, most of the responding companies were concerned about a potential negative reaction from their customers and secondly that they were not legally entitled to divulge customers names from their databases. Next, with the ten companies who showed an interest in contributing to this research project, several meetings were held in order to discuss this research as well as to formulate the methodological procedures of selecting the consumers. A request was initiated at this stage in adopting the *self-rating task* by which consumers could rank themselves according to their occasional or frequent presence in the ecotourism areas. A request of this nature was made due to the weakness that most of the companies databases were very broad in nature, and they were not sure if their consumers were indeed ecotourists. In addition, this task was extremely important from the literature review perspective as a distinction had to be made between occasional and frequent presence in an ecotourism setting. This initiative was not welcomed by four of these companies due to the time and additional customer engagement with this process. As a result, only six companies agreed to allow consumers the self-ranking task based on their presence criteria. These companies were: *Australia Tourism Commission, Asia World Travel, Exodus Travel, Seychelles Tourism Board, Coral Cay Conservation, and Travelbag.*

From these companies, 500 people were randomly selected from their databases. These individuals had traveled with these companies within the last year on an ecotourism related trip. The choice of this sample size was determined by the requirements of the analytical techniques selected for this study. For instance factor analytical techniques generally require at least four or five times as many observations as there are variables. As such the larger the initial request sample size is, the higher the probability is of the actual sample size. With the purpose of obtaining a target sample size of three hundred respondents in each category, a letter asking the customer to answer two questions concerning their last holiday was prepared and sent by each

company. The nature of the questions allowed the consumers to classify themselves based on their perception of their presence in natural areas, as follows:

- A) During your holidays did you occasionally participate in natural areas with the intention to be educated and/or to conserve?**

Yes _____ No _____

- B) During your holidays did you frequently participate in natural areas with the intention to be educated and/or to conserve?**

Yes _____ No _____

Each response was then delivered to the author. From a total of 3,000 consumers contacted by these companies, 1,760 people replied representing a total response rate of 58.6%. Out of these, 710 people classified themselves as occasional ecotourists and the remaining 1,050 saw themselves as frequent ecotourists. The total theoretical sample size was subsequently created and used in this research.

In overall terms, despite the high subjectivity of the self-ranking tasks, results from the task showed that ecotourists were able to analyze their presence and behavior. After selecting the appropriate sample a decision had to be made with regards to the research methods adopted in this study. With the focus being to investigate the involvement levels of both groups, this study utilised both quantitative and qualitative research techniques.

4.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT SELECTION

Initially, an attempt was made to exercise both qualitative and quantitative methods in the two samples of occasional and frequent ecotourists. However, due to the time and financial limitations a decision was made to focus on the frequent ecotourists through the use of both qualitative and quantitative assessments, and to measure occasional ecotourists only on a quantitative basis. As a result, a postal questionnaire was chosen as the tool to assess the behavioral and involvement patterns of occasional ecotourists (see figure 4.2). The frequent ecotourists were firstly subjected to laddering interviews in order to underline their knowledge structure, and then a questionnaire was designed based on the laddering results in order to obtain a generalization of their overall product knowledge dimensions (see figure 4.2). Here, a postal questionnaire was also chosen as the medium to achieve this task. For the purpose of this research, a number of considerations for the questionnaire survey are further outlined, followed by an examination of the methodology of the laddering interview process.

4.6.1 Questionnaire design and postal questionnaire

In quantitative research, questionnaires are a popular low cost method for gathering data from a large sample, as well as having the additional advantages of geographical flexibility and time convenience (McKee, 1992; Paliwoda, 1981; Diamantopoulos et al, 1994; Fife-Schaw, 1995c; Oppenheim, 1992; deVaus, 1991). Its effectiveness however, depends upon a number of factors ranging from the variables selection (McKee, 1992) to error detection (Diamantopoulos et al, 1994), all of which are affected by the following five groups of choices (Oppenheim, 1992):

- a) *type of data collection instruments*: the specific tools used to elicit the data such as observational techniques;
- b) *method of approach to respondents*: the time, length, the purpose of the research as well as the confidentiality and anonymity factors;
- c) *questions construction*: includes the selection of modules within the questionnaire as well as the scales involved in the questions. In every instance the questions have to be precise with a clear frame of reference;

- d) *order of questions*: the sequence of the different questions and modules asked based on a logical flow process of questions and from concrete to abstract dimensions; and
- e) *type of questions*: the different choices of question constructions such as dichotomous, closed-ended, forced choice questions based on Likert-style scales, and free-response questions.

As a result, in this study *the main data collection instrument is the mail or postal questionnaire in both the occasional and frequent ecotourist samples*. This type of questionnaire has certain advantages and limitations, with the most pronounced advantage being that of its economic efficiency, and the most important limitation being a potentially low response rate (Singleton et al, 1993; Oppenheim, 1992; Paliwoda, 1981) [see table 4.2]. Looking at the survey response rate it has been suggested that the average response rate can vary from 40-60% (Oppenheim, 1992) or anything below 70% (Goyder, 1985) or at least 65% (Dolsen and Machlis, 1991).

Here, there are certain methods to increase the response rate such as providing incentives, anonymity and confidentiality (Oppenheim, 1992; Paliwoda, 1981; Singleton et al, 1993; Fife-Schaw, 1995c; Dolsen and Machlis, 1991; Dillman, 1978). The most popular tools however, are the enclosure of a covering letter supported by a post-paid return envelope (Oppenheim, 1992; Paliwoda, 1981; Singleton et al, 1993; Fife-Schaw, 1995c; Dillman, 1978; Dolsen and Machlis, 1991). There is evidence to suggest that respondents who receive the stamped addressed envelopes tend to indicate a higher response rate (76%) than respondents who do not receive this medium (72%) (Dillman, 1978).

Another tool commonly used is a follow-up letter which although potentially increases the response rate can on the other hand reduce anonymity as well as the quality of the respondent surveys (Oppenheim, 1992; Paliwoda, 1981; Singleton et al, 1993; Fife-Schaw, 1995c; Dillman, 1978).

Table 4.2 Advantages and disadvantages of the postal questionnaire

<i>Postal questionnaire</i>	<i>Elements</i>
<i>Advantages</i>	Low cost data collection; Yields efficient results; Utilisation of a wide geographical area; Avoids limitations of interview bias; and Anonymity and confidentiality
<i>Disadvantages</i>	Low response rate; Sample inability to respond; Lack of time to correct wrong wording of questions; No control over the order of answering the questions; and Lack of opportunity to collect the data based on observation as valuable background material.

Source: Oppenheim, 1992; Paliwoda, 1981; Fife-Schaw, 1995c; Singleton et al, 1993

4.6.2 The laddering interview process

Interviewing reflects the theme of sociological sociability, as it is a tool commonly used to investigate certain interactions (Fontana and Frey, 1994; McCracken, 1988). There are a variety of interviewing techniques ranging from structured to unstructured methodologies (Fontana and Frey, 1994; McCracken, 1988). In this study a type of interview process which accompanies the means-end chain theory was utilized. This refers to the laddering interview technique used to identify elements of the abstraction concept as it concentrates on revealing the linkages between product attributes and personal values, or the content and structure of product knowledge (Gutman, 1984; 1990; 1991; 1995; Mulvey et al, 1994; Reynolds and Gutman, 1988; Reynolds et al, 1995; Reynolds and Graddock, 1988; Reynolds et al, 1990; Reynolds and Whitlark, 1995). It is an in-depth interviewing process which aims to elicit two main components (Reynolds et al, 1990).

Firstly, the basic distinctions between an examined product or service, and secondly to probe into the reasons why the distinction is personally relevant to the individual

(Reynolds et al, 1990: 4-6). In particular, the distinctions from laddering interviews can be elicited in eight distinct ways and these methods are interchangeable and more than one method can be used at once (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988: 14-18):

- a) *Triadic sorting*: to provide the respondents with sets of different products and allowing the respondent to then present the differences of one of these products;
- b) *Preference-consumption difference*: to identify the reasoning behind consumer preference between their first and second preferred brand/product or service;
- c) *Difference by occasion*: to provide the respondents with the so-called personally relevant context where they can then identify certain distinctions. In turn, this can contribute to more important distinctions elicited in the laddering process;
- d) *Postulating the absence of an object*: to provide the respondents with the option of considering not having the examined product/service and how this would affect them. This tool often enables respondents to verbalise meaningful associations;
- e) *Negative laddering*: to question respondents on the reasoning behind why they do not do things in a certain way;
- f) *Age-regression contrast probe*: to question respondents on past occasions or to take them backwards in time;
- g) *Third-person probe*: to question respondents on how other people will feel in similar instances; and
- h) *Redirect techniques*: it deals mainly with two tools, the silence of the interviewer and the communication check. The former tool can encourage respondents to keep trying for an answer while the latter tool is used as a reference for clarification of the previous answer.

Secondly, the ladders are structured through regular probing based on the question '*Why is that important to you?*', using each stage of the abstraction concept as the basis of the probe (Gutman, 1995; Gengler et al, 1995; Gengler and Reynolds, 1995; Klenosky et al, 1993; Walker and Olson, 1991; Mulvey et al, 1994; Reynolds and Gutman, 1988; Reynolds et al, 1995; Reynolds and Graddock, 1988; Reynolds et al, 1990; Reynolds and Whitlark, 1995).

In the interview setting the procedure of revealing the connections between attributes, consequences, and values is repeated until the respondent can no longer give an answer to the 'why' question (Gutman, 1984, 1990, 1991, 1995; Gutman and Haley, 1995; Gutman and Alden, 1984; Gengler et al, 1995; Gengler and Reynolds, 1995; Vallette-Florence and Rapacchi, 1991; Klenosky et al, 1993; Walker and Olson, 1991; Mulvey et al, 1994; Reynolds and Gutman, 1988; Reynolds et al, 1995; Reynolds and Graddock, 1988; Reynolds et al, 1990; Reynolds and Whitlark, 1995). The nature of this type of questioning is to make the respondents reveal each stage of the abstraction concept and all the associated connections between them (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988).

In addition to these techniques other researchers also introduced tools for data collection (Walker and Olson, 1991; Vallette-Florence and Rapacchi, 1991; Laaksonen, 1994; Mulvey et al, 1994; Gengler, 1995). Vallette-Florence and Rapacchi (1991) and Laaksonen (1994) used a card-sorting task to merge concepts which are related. Here, the consumers were given a variety of cards with certain products on them, they were then asked to reject unfamiliar brands and group the remaining products. In addition, respondents were asked to describe each cluster of products and discuss the underlying meanings of these distinctions (Vallette-Florence and Rapacchi, 1991; Laaksonen, 1994). Walker and Olson (1991) and Mulvey et al (1994) used the so-called 'paper and pencil' technique for data collection. Here, the respondents listed the general characteristics of the product and then these characteristics are ranked according to their importance. Next, they rank the top four characteristics supported by an explanation of their importance. In comparing the latter two approaches, Vallette-Florence and Rapacchi (1991) and Laaksonen (1994) relied upon a prior definition of the concepts to be related, and they did not always follow the open-ended question format of the laddering interviews (Gengler and Reynolds, 1995). Walker and Olson (1991) and Mulvey et al (1994) did not utilise the probing tool used for laddering (Gengler and Reynolds, 1995).

4.6.3 Analysis of the laddering data

The analysis of the laddering data was carried out in four main stages, mainly with the use of content analysis (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). The first stage involves a detailed explanation of the interview data in separate phases. This includes reviewing the recorded interview data from each individual and constructing the basic tents alongside attributes, consequences, and values (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). The second stage deals with the content analysis of the first stage (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). The third stage involves the development of a summary of all the associations between the content codes of all interactions, in other words the construction of the implication matrix (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). The fourth stage is the development of a diagram to represent all the main implications, or so-called Hierarchical Value Map (HVM) (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988).

In all cases the main limitation of the laddering interviews as far as its analysis is concerned, was the time and effort and/or miscalculation of performing and analysing the data. Recently a computer software program known as LadderMap, was developed to analyse the laddering data (Gengler, 1995; Gengler and Reynolds, 1995). The LadderMap program is utilized mainly in the second, third, and fourth stages of the data analysis and as such overcomes the potential limitations associated with the laddering procedures. The initial task involves inputting all the final statements of attributes, consequences and values from all the respondents into the program which then automatically specifies the information into a ladder(s). Each respondent may have more than one ladder which are inserted under the same 'subject ID' but with different numbers for each ladder (Gengler, 1995; Gengler and Reynolds, 1995). As soon as the data is edited, the program gives you the HVM and implication matrix so no further analysis needs to take place. On each of these elements three main issues arose (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988):

- The *first issue* was the nature of the relationships, in that the laddering data claimed to deal with both direct (attributes→consequences) and indirect relationships (attributes→ values). Here, the LadderMap program deals with both relationships (Gengler, 1995; Gengler and Reynolds, 1995);

- *Secondly* the sample size to achieve a representative set of ladders should range from 30-50 respondents (Reynolds et al, 1990), although others used 90 respondents (Klenosky et al, 1993), 58 consumers (Mulvey et al, 1994) and 108 individuals (Gutman, 1990); and
- *Thirdly* the establishment of the cut-off point which is the number of times one element of the abstraction concept (attributes, consequences and values) appears during the interview. This value clearly varies among the different studies all of which are dependent on the actual sample size (Reynolds et al, 1990; Mulvey et al, 1994). In most of the cases however, the cut-off value for the appearance of an element within an interview ranged from 2-4 times. Therefore only the elements which have reached or exceeded that cut-off value appear in the laddering interviews analysis (Gengler et al, 1995; Klenosky et al, 1993; Reynolds et al, 1995; Mulvey et al, 1994).

Furthermore, the utilisation of the laddering procedure contained certain advantages and disadvantages all of which are dependent on the setting under examination. The most pronounced advantage is that it deals with the product knowledge structure of the individual in that it reveals all the content and structure of their views, whereas the weaknesses are its probing structure, the sensitivity of the topics and the collection/analysis of the data (see table 4.3).

Table 4.3 The pros and cons of the laddering interviews

Laddering interview	Elements
<i>Advantages</i>	<p>Measures the content and structure of the product knowledge of the individual;</p> <p>Consistent with the mean-end chain structure;</p> <p>Provides the self-relevant concepts of the individual; and</p> <p>Provides a series of procedures for data analysis;</p>
<i>Disadvantages</i>	<p>Deliberate attempts to utilise the level of abstraction;</p> <p>Lack of answers given by the respondents;</p> <p>Sensitive issue of responding;</p> <p>Time and cost of collecting the data; and</p> <p>Time and effort to perform the content analysis.</p>

Source: Reynolds and Gutman (1988), Reynolds and Gengler (1995), Laaksonen (1994) Wagner (1997)

In sum, the laddering procedure provides a tool for assessing the exact nature of the individuals product knowledge by emphasizing which of the three layers (attributes, consequences and values) are more relevant. As such this tool was utilised in this study to determine the knowledge structure of 55 frequent ecotourists, as well as to further assess these elements in a wider sample based on a quantitative assessment.

4.7 OCCASIONAL ECOTOURISTS - PILOT ANALYSIS

The occasional ecotourists were subject to a qualitative treatment (see figure 4.2). In this respect, a pilot questionnaire was designed and implemented during June and August 1996 (see appendix 2). The questionnaire comprised of three sections in which the first dealt with overseas travel and ecotourism motives. The second section comprised of the PII scale, the List of Values, as well as an ecotourism activities assessment, while the third section entailed certain socio-demographic and preference questions (see appendix 2). In the first section a five-point scale based on the range of Not at all important (1) to Extremely important (5) was chosen for assessment. The PII scale was adapted from the literature while the values were measured on the scale of Extremely unimportant (1) to Extremely important (9). Next, a choice was made with regards to the pilot sample size. Reynolds et al (1992) described how a recommended pretest sample size can vary from 5-10 to 50-100 respondents dependent upon the research design. Considerations for the sample size included the variety of respondents in the target population, as well as the complexity of the instrument. For the purpose of this research, *one hundred questionnaires (100) were posted and thirty-nine (39) were eligible for further analysis representing a total response rate of 39%.*

All of the respondents within the pilot study initially classified themselves as occasional ecotourists during the pre-selection stage. The aims of the pilot study were: to reduce or delete certain problematic variables; to introduce new items; and ascertain the most effective way for occasional ecotourists to answer during the main survey. For the analysis, descriptive statistics (frequencies and cross tabulations), reliability alpha scores and cluster analysis' were implemented in order to measure the internal consistency and groupings of the variables. The cluster analysis was performed using Ward's clustering method and the distance between the clusters was the squared Euclidean, which is the

recommended distance measure for Ward's method (Hair et al, 1995). For the cross tabulations, Spearman's correlation was determined from the small sample size (n=39) which did not permit for the usage of the Chi-square analysis (i.e. Pearson's). Overall the pilot analysis led to a re-design of the questionnaire for the main survey of occasional ecotourists.

4.7.1 An analysis of the socio-demographic elements of occasional ecotourists

The majority of occasional ecotourists within the pilot study were females aged between 17-34 years with a high educational background and a preference to travel with one person during their ecotourism holiday (see table 4.4). Quite interestingly, 74.4% of these ecotourists were not members of an environmental group an indication which ought to be explored further during the main survey.

Furthermore, the majority of these respondents preferred to stay in a hotel/motel (56.4%) followed by Lodge/Inn (28.2%), and a Tent (25.6%). This reflected their luxury preference whereby 51.3% indicated their preference of staying in middle range budget accommodation, and 35.9% selected basic/budget accommodation (see table 4.5).

No alterations were made in Section C. Some of the results were unexpected with regards to the age of the group (over 50% were between 17-34). A trend can be seen but no conclusions can be drawn at this stage. In addition, *question six* related to certain ecotourism activities. During the pilot study, 61.5% of the sample selected 'educational guided tours' (n=24) followed by 46.1% who preferred to 'observe flowers' (n=18) and 43.6% who selected 'natural photography' (n=17). Some other activities were added to the existing list in order to increase the choice for respondents.

Table 4.4 *The socio-demographics elements of the pilot sample*

Elements	%
Gender:	
Males	69.2
Females	30.8
Status:	
Single	41.0
Married	51.3
Divorced	7.7
People travel:	
One	64.1
Two	15.4
Three	15.4
Four	4.1
Education:	
Secondary education	23.1
HND/Diploma	12.8
First degree	20.5
Postgraduate qualification	33.3
Other	10.3
Age (years):	
17-24	17.9
25-34	35.9
35-44	5.1
45-54	17.9
55-64	17.9
65+++	5.1

Table 4.5 Type and luxury of accommodation

Type/Luxury	%
Hotel /Motel	56.4
Lodge/inn	28.2
Cabin	15.4
Tent	25.6
Cruise ship	7.7
Ranch	5.1
Bed & breakfast	33.3
Luxurious	<u>12.8</u>
Middle range	<u>51.3</u>
Basic/budget	<u>35.9</u>

4.7.2 Philosophies of an overseas trip (Question One)

The question asked at this part of the analysis related to characteristics of an overseas trip which were derived from a number of different studies on ecotourism. Initially, the guidance used for acceptance of these questions was mainly from the reliability results, where the general acceptance level should be 0.7 or above, the pilot analysis indicated a score of **alpha (a) = 0.4111**. In overall terms, the highest mean score referred to the preference of going to a different place on each holiday trip (item 11) followed by the requirement for flexibility during ecotourism holidays (item 2) [see table 4.6].

Table 4.6 Frequency scores of the philosophies of the overseas trip

Question One	NAI*	LI*	MI*	VI*	EI*	Mean
	%	%	%	%	%	
1. Getting value for money	-	7.7	33.3	35.9	23.1	3.744
2. Flexibility on eco-holiday	-	5.1	35.9	35.9	23.1	3.769
3. Travel on all-inclusive holiday **	46.2	25.6	20.5	7.7	-	1.897
4. Environmental sensitivity of travel agent	12.8	20.5	48.7	15.4	2.6	2.744
5. Take short holidays abroad	28.2	17.9	25.6	17.9	10.3	2.641
6. Take holidays of two weeks or less	20.5	15.4	25.6	23.1	15.4	2.974
7. Arrangements made in advance **	10.3	12.8	30.8	23.1	23.1	3.359
8. Enjoy outdoor activities	7.7	10.3	28.2	33.3	20.5	3.487
9. Importance of inexpensive air tickets	-	15.4	33.3	20.5	30.8	3.667
10. Cheap destinations	25.6	30.8	33.3	10.3	-	2.282
11. Go to a different place on each new holiday trip	2.6	7.7	17.9	41	30.8	3.897
12. Going to the protected areas or national parks	7.7	17.9	33.3	33.3	7.7	3.154
13. Travel with only one person **	12.8	20.5	30.8	17.9	17.9	3.077

Please note:

* NAI: Not at all important;
VI: Very important;

LI: Little importance;
EI: Extremely important.

MI: Moderately importance;

* **items to be deleted at the next stage

The results showed low reliability rates which meant that either the scale had to be deleted completely or certain alterations within its items should be made. Taking the latter view, cluster analysis based on the categorization of variables was performed. Two major cluster's were identified between the thirteen variables (see appendix 2):

Cluster A: (2, 9, 1, 8, 11, 7)

Cluster B: (10, 3, 4, 5, 12, 13, 6)

Cluster A, forms all the general motives of travel. This cluster appeared to be more appealing to ecotourists but these results could not be generalized at this stage. As far as the grouping of variables is concerned, when item 7 was deleted (I like to have my arrangements made before I leave to go abroad) the reliability increased to $\alpha=0.5336$.

In addition, the correlation of this variable is also low highlighting that item seven (7) should be deleted from further analysis (see table 4.7).

Cluster B includes all the 'environmental oriented' motives together with a few general motives of travel. Item 10 (cheap destination) is part of this cluster which shows some similarities as far the literature is concerned. The literature showed some indications that ecotourists could represent high income groups. If this is the case, further evidence should be obtained as to whether or not **price** is an important motive for ecotourists. Furthermore, in terms of their mean score these elements showed values ranging around the little importance level (2), except element 12 whose mean was 3.154 (see table 4.6). Thus, this cluster of variables is not that important to ecotourists. It is also worth considering that the reliability of this section was not that high and that item 3, (I usually travel on all-inclusive package holidays) not only had the lowest mean score (1.897) but also had a low correlation with the other variables (see table 4.7). In addition item 13 (I prefer to travel within the destination with only one person) also had a low correlation with the other variables, as well as its elimination increased the total reliability to $\alpha=0.5220$ (see table 4.7). *As a result items three, seven and thirteen were deleted from further analysis.*

Table 4.7 Correlation scores of deleted items of the question one

Items	Q1	Q.10	Q.11	Q.12	Q.13	Q.2	Q.6	Q.7
Question 3	-.0880	.1124	.0412	-.3326	-.1995	-.1493	--	--
Question 7	-.0779	.0011	.0292	-.2176	-.1646	-.4946	-.0097	--
Question 13	-.2078	-.5234	.0864	.0296	--	--	--	--

4.7.3 Continents of travel (question two)

The majority of the respondents considered Europe as their first choice of holiday (51.3%), followed by Africa (15.4%), the Americas (15.4%) then Asia (12.8%) and Australia/ New Zealand/ Pacific (5.1%). Emphasis in the main survey will be given to 'ecotourism holiday' not holidays in general. As a result, this question was moved to Section C.

4.7.4 Elements of the ecotourism holiday (question three)

The questions asked at this stage related to attributes and consequences of an ecotourism holiday. All the items in this question reflected the three components of the ecotourism holidays which were extracted from a number of different studies (see chapter 2) in an attempt to identify the purpose of an occasional visit to an ecotourism setting. In the first instance, the reliability results revealed a score of $\alpha=0.8387$ indicating a very high score. On examining the mean scores of these items, 'the experience of new and different lifestyles' (4.154) and 'opportunities to increase one's knowledge' (4.103) were the highest rated elements (see table 4.8). Here, although the reliability results were quite high a cluster analysis was performed in order to categorise the variables and to determine their effectiveness. Two groups of cluster's were identified (see appendix 3):

Cluster A: (G, I, A, B, C, H, D, U, F, K, Q)

Cluster B: (O, R, J, T, P, S, M, N, X, E, L, V, W)

Cluster A, included all the ecotourism related attributes. Their mean score was the highest amongst the other variables and represented the 'hard' group of ecotourists. The reliability and correlation of the items were very high and did not pose any consideration for deletion. *The only item which was deleted however was that of A (going places, I have not visited before), as it coincided with the general items in question 1.* Cluster B, was a combination of some 'ecotourism' attributes (x,w) as well as attributes closely related to alternative forms of tourism (s, p,n, r), but could also be debated as ecotourism related. The rest of the elements (o, t, l, m, j, e) relate to the general attributes of travel. Here, few changes were made in terms of price and natural based experience:

- Item x (to stay at the ecolodge) was moved to Section C (type of accommodation). Its mean score (2.526) and significance with other variables was marginal ($p > 0.05$);

Table 4.8 Elements considered for an ecotourism holiday

Question Two	NAI*	LI*	MI*	VI*	EI*	Mean
a) Going places I have visited before **	-	5.1	28.2	33.3	33.3	3.949
b) Meeting new and different people	2.6	5.1	35.9	41	15.4	3.615
c) Opportunities to increase one's knowledge	-	7.7	12.8	41	38.5	4.103
d) Interesting rural countryside	2.6	12.8	23.1	43.6	17.9	3.615
e) Destinations that provide value for money **	2.6	10.3	30.8	46.2	10.3	3.513
f) To experience the tranquillity	2.6	7.7	35.9	38.5	15.4	3.564
g) To visit cultural attractions	2.6	7.7	12.8	53.8	23.1	3.872
h) Experiencing new and different lifestyles	-	-	20.5	43.6	35.9	4.154
i) To explore the area and be educated	2.6	7.7	15.4	38.5	35.9	3.974
j) To become more energetic	15.4	20.5	23.1	28.2	12.8	3.026
k) To enjoy the lakes and streams	2.6	17.9	28.2	38.5	12.8	3.410
l) The best deal I could get **	12.8	17.9	38.5	28.2	2.6	2.897
m) To be with others who enjoy the same	12.8	20.5	33.3	20.5	12.8	3.000
n) To go to local festivals and events	12.8	12.8	41.0	20.5	12.8	3.077
o) Nice weather	7.7	5.1	33.3	38.5	15.4	3.484
p) Outdoor recreation activities	17.9	7.7	38.5	25.6	10.3	3.026
q) To visit the national parks	5.1	12.8	15.4	48.7	17.9	3.615
r) To rest and relax physically	15.4	5.1	41	23.1	12.8	3.132
s) To develop my skills and abilities	23.1	17.9	28.2	17.9	12.8	2.795
t) To do something with my family **	12.8	12.8	33.3	30.8	7.7	3.079
u) To be in an undisturbed natural area	5.1	12.8	38.5	30.8	12.8	3.333
v) To shop in the local stores	25.6	15.4	38.5	15.4	5.1	2.590
w) To enjoy the guided tours in the natural areas	17.9	23.1	38.5	20.5	-	2.615
x) To stay at the ecolodge	23.1	17.9	41	12.8	2.6	2.526

Please note:

* **NAI:** Not at all important;
VI: Very important;

LI: Little importance; **MI:** Moderately importance;
EI: Extremely important.

* **items to be deleted at the next stage

- The second cluster group marked price as an important element (e, l) in choice (Destinations that provide value for my holiday money; The best deal I could get). *However, this clearly overlapped with the general motives of overseas travel, and as such these two items were deleted from further examination.* Alternatively, a new question was created to explore the significance of price in ecotourism settings:
New item: *Inexpensive entrance fees to national parks;*
- Regarding the tour guide element, an issue which arose was related to whether ecotourists plan or intend to have an educate/interpretative experience in the natural area. As a result a new question was asked:
New item: *Intend to study and admire an undisturbed area; and*
- *Item t* (to do something with my family) was deleted as this result could be obtained from Section C.

In addition to these alterations, Spearman's correlation between Question One and Three was performed in order to determine the categorisation of these variables. The first variable to be noted referred to 'the enjoyment of undertaking outdoor recreational activities' (question 1.8). Here, the following relationships arose with the following items, all confirming a relationship with items of a similar nature:

- | | | |
|--|------------|-------------|
| • to be with others who enjoy the same | (item 3 m) | p<0.05; |
| • to visit the national parks | (item 3 q) | p<0.05; |
| • outdoor recreational activities | (item 3 p) | p>0.0001; |
| • to develop my skills and abilities | (item 3 s) | p> 0.0001; |
| • to do something with my family | (item 3 t) | p< 0.05; |
| • to be in an undisturbed area | (item 3 u) | p<0.05; and |
| • to stay at the ecolodge | (item 3 x) | p<0.05. |

The second variable to be noted referred to 'inexpensive air tickets to the destination' (question 1.9). The following relationships were elicited suggesting that the price of an air ticket has an impact on the social behavior of occasional ecotourists:

- to be with others who enjoy the same (item 3 m) $p < 0.05$; and
- to visit the national parks (item 3 q) $p < 0.05$.

The third variable to be noted referred to the item of 'getting value for my holiday money' (question 1.1). The relationships which emerged related to three variables of the ecotourism holiday which were deleted from further analysis. These results, clearly reinforce the exclusion of these items:

- destinations that provide value for my holiday money (item 3e) $p < 0.0001$;
- the best deal I could get (item 3l) $p < 0.005$;
- to do something with my family (item 3t) $p < 0.05$.

Finally, the variable of 'I usually prefer to go to a different place on each new holiday trip' (question 1.11) is related to 'going places that I have visited before' (item 3.a) $p < 0.00001$. This high association also confirms the exclusion of the item from the third question as it can be explained from the overseas travel motives.

4.7.5 Personal Involvement Inventory (question four)

This question required the respondents to circle the number of their choice to finish the statement '*To me ecotourism holidays are...*'. The ten items of the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) were then given scores ranging from one to seven, with one representing the negative aspect of the examined element and seven illustrating the positive side. There are three main categories where scores of the third question can vary in order to determine involvement: Low [10-29]; Medium [30-50]; and High [51-70]. Overall, the reliability results produced very high standards ($\alpha = 0.94$). This question revealed that ecotourists were highly involved with their ecotourism holidays (total mean score 50.1) Overall, question four had a high mean score and reliability which supported its use in the main survey (see table 4.9).

Table 4.9 PII elements perceived towards the concept of ecotourism

<i>PII elements</i>	<i>1*</i> %	<i>2</i> %	<i>3</i> %	<i>4</i> %	<i>5</i> %	<i>6</i> %	<i>7</i> %	<i>Mean</i>
Important	7.7	2.6	2.6	15.4	38.5	15.4	15.4	4.868
Interesting	-	2.6	7.7	17.9	28.2	30.8	10.3	5.105
Relevant	-	5.1	15.4	10.3	20.5	28.2	17.9	5.079
Exciting	-	2.6	10.3	23.1	30.8	25.6	5.1	4.842
Means a lot to me	2.6	-	15.4	12.8	33.3	25.6	7.7	4.868
Appealing	-	2.6	10.3	20.5	28.2	33.3	2.6	4.895
Fascinating	2.6	2.6	10.3	12.8	28.2	38.5	2.6	4.921
Valuable	-	2.6	7.7	2.6	35.9	35.9	12.8	5.368
Involving	-	5.1	7.7	12.8	17.9	46.2	5.1	5.135
Needed	-	2.6	5.1	10.3	20.5	28.2	30.8	5.632

*: Unimportant, Boring, Irrelevant, Unexciting, Means Nothing, Unappealing, Mundane, Worthless, Uninvolving, Not needed.

4.7.6 Values of an ecotourism holiday (question five)

The second scale of this section related to the assessment of nine values, namely the List of Values (LOV). In general terms these values either have an internal or external orientation (Kahle et al, 1986, 1988; Kamakura and Novak, 1992). The former case includes the values of *self-respect, self-fulfillment, sense of accomplishment, fun and enjoyment in life, excitement, warm relationships with others* (Madriral and Kahle, 1994; Homer and Kahle, 1988; Madrigal, 1995; Muller, 1989, 1991, 1995; Kamakura and Novak, 1992). Individuals with such values tend to be internally motivated by achievement, self-direction, pleasure and the belief that they can influence events and control outcomes in their lives (Dalen, 1989; Madrinal and Kahle, 1994: 23; Madrigal, 1995; Grunert and Scherhorn, 1990). The latter case includes the values of *sense of belonging, being well respected and security*, and these individuals tend to feel powerless in the sense that they rely more on external circumstances for success and solutions to problems (Dalen, 1989; Madrigal and Kahle, 1994: 23; Grunert and Scherhorn, 1990). The overall reliability results were at high standards with a score of **alpha =0.8314**.

Table 4.10 Values of an ecotourism holiday

<i>Question Five</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>Mean</i>
1. Self- respect	2.6	-	10.3	7.7	25.6	20.5	15.4	7.7	7.7	5.684
2. Self-fulfillment	2.6	-	2.6	12.8	12.8	17.9	28.2	17.9	2.6	6.132
3. Sense of accomplishment	5.1	2.6	5.1	-	12.8	23.1	25.6	17.9	5.1	6.132
4. Being well respected	12.8	-	10.3	2.6	15.4	30.8	10.3	7.7	7.7	5.316
5. Fun and enjoyment in life	2.6	2.6	5.1	5.1	20.5	12.8	15.4	12.8	20.5	6.342
6. Excitement	-	2.6	7.7	7.7	10.3	23.1	10.3	17.9	17.9	6.421
7. Sense of belonging	2.6	5.1	5.1	7.7	12.8	20.5	28.2	7.7	7.7	5.895
8. Warm relationships with others	2.6	7.7	5.1	5.1	23.1	23.1	17.9	10.3	2.6	5.526
9. Security	12.8	5.1	12.8	7.7	25.6	12.8	12.8	5.1	2.6	4.632

In terms of mean scores, excitement (6.421) and fun and enjoyment in life (6.342) were the two leading values, followed by sense of accomplishment and fulfillment (6.132 each) [see table 4.10]. Although the results were quite high, a cluster analysis was conducted to highlight the overall groupings of the items. The cluster analysis identified two major clusters (see appendix 3):

Cluster A: (2, 3, 1, 5, 6)

Cluster B: (7, 8, 4, 9)

Cluster A confirmed that the values Excitement, Fun and Enjoyment in life are the favorites amongst occasional ecotourists. The literature suggests that people giving these values a lower priority possibly drink, entertain, dine out, and participate in more sporty events (Beaty et al 1985; Muller, 1989, 1991, 1995). In contrast, people who give highest priority to these two values are aesthetically sensitive, unconventional, expressive and seek autonomy and self-sufficiency (Dalen 1989; Madrigal and Kahle, 1994). From the latter set of values it can be seen that they are occasional ecotourists. On the other hand, Cluster B showed the security and respect driven values which do not seem that appealing.

In overall terms, for inclusion in the design of the questionnaire for the primary study on occasional ecotourists a question on *income* needs to be asked in order to allow

comparisons to be made with other socio-demographic variables. This will also be accompanied by a *Likert five point scale* placed in all of the questions ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. This will allow certain comparisons to be made across the questions during the quantitative analysis, as well as increase the appeal of the questionnaire to the selected sample.

In addition, there were certain limitations with the pilot analysis of the occasional ecotourists:

- *Firstly*, although as a preliminary study it serves its aims, the small sample size does not allow any conclusive profiles of ecotourists to emerge;
- *Secondly*, biased sample factors emerged in the form of financial limitations to purchase any databases of ecotourists. The ecotourists were pre-selected based on the willingness of the travel enterprises to contribute to this research project and as such does not represent a complete picture of the demand side of the UK's ecotourism industry. However, this would not affect the main survey as the elected sample would also be biased, in the sense that they were drawn simultaneously by all the companies; and
- *Thirdly*, the subject bias factor appeared in that ecotourists were informed about the nature of this study during the pre-selection period of their occasional and frequent presence in an undisturbed area. Hence, there is a possibility that they were subconsciously selecting all the ideal or important answers.

In sum, this pilot study pointed out that there are a group of occasional ecotourists who have certain characteristics and as such ought to be considered as an independent segment. The overall results highlighted certain elements which were deleted or replaced with new items in an attempt to increase the effectiveness of the main survey. The trend which appears to emerge within the pilot study is that of the young age of the ecotourists which should also be seen in the main survey.

4.8 OCCASIONAL ECOTOURIST PROFILE (I)

The revised questionnaire was distributed to *610 ecotourists and of these 247 were returned illustrating a response rate of 40.5%.*

The overall objective of this research instrument was to explore the overseas travel motives, different ecotourism elements, values associated with ecotourists, activities and socio-demographics (see appendix 4). In addition a scale which measured involvement as a single index was also questioned and used as a main indicator and determinant of ecotourism throughout the analysis. The main scale used to determine these effects was a Likert Five Point Scale placed in all of the questions, except the PII, ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. As a result, the purpose of this analysis is to present the characteristics of ecotourists in the UK and magnify those elements related to the different levels of involvement. An understanding of these elements will partially explain the reasoning behind occasional ecotourists' preference as well as their motivational domains.

4.9 FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS- LADDERING INTERVIEWS

The critical phase in this process, is to specify the dimensions ecotourists apply when evaluating this form of travel. In order to examine these dimensions, eighty frequent (n=80) ecotourists were initially contacted by using the results of the self-ranking task. Prior to the interview a telephone conversation introduced each respondent to the purpose of the research. This medium also minimized any misunderstandings the respondent had on the examined topic. In order to become acquainted with the laddering procedure and the potential limitations associated with its application, the researcher conducted a prestudy of three interviews (n=3). The objective of the pilot interviews was to practice the variety of laddering research methods in order to be familiar with the procedures during the main interviews. The interviewer introduced the concept of ecotourism to the respondent by explicitly focusing on:

- a) the general impacts of mass tourism and package holidays;
- b) the nature of alternative forms of tourism; and

- c) the natural-based component of ecotourism: no attempt was made to introduce, the remaining two elements (sustainability and education), as the appearance of all the components could have increased the level of biased.

Consistent with the laddering methodology, respondents were asked to think about the time spent in natural undisturbed areas. They were asked about the importance of their presence in that setting, what they were doing, and who they were with. From these questions a number of attributes were indicated, which allowed the interview process to begin.

As a result of this initial interviewing process, the eight different distinctions were used simultaneously in order to elicit the ladders. The adoption of these particular techniques suggested that the researcher should not be restricted to a particular technique as the foundation for creating a ladder (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988; Reynolds et al, 1990, 1995; Laaksonen, 1994). The creation of a ladder can be formed either on the basis of judgment or on the basis of the importance ratings of the distinctions (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988; Laaksonen, 1994). However, these particular suggestions do not take into account the breadth of the individual product knowledge structure. On the other hand, considering that consumers form their knowledge structure at the abstract level, then an application of all elicited differences as potential tools for revealing the ladders should be administered.

With this distinction in mind, *fifty-five (n=55) interviews with frequent ecotourists* were conducted during a period of seven months in order to reveal their means-end chain concepts [July 1996-February 1997]. In addition to the frequent criteria of the sample, *all the interviews were conducted in the South-East of England due to financial restrictions of using a sample across the UK*. Next, each individual interview was tape recorded which assisted during the content analysis of the interviews. At this stage, the process of revealing the levels of the means-end chain concepts was actioned after passing through three initial stages: the authors analysis of the interviews; an independent analysis of the interviews by a tourism lecturer; and a comparison of the results between the first and second stage resolving any disagreements. Each individual ladder data was then inserted into the Laddermapping program for final examination. The cut-off value established for inserting each item

was one, that is each respondent had to mention each element more than one time in order to be regarded as relevant for the interviews. As a result of this process 33 elements were elicited which included eleven attributes (a=11), thirteen consequences (c=13) and nine values (v=9) [see tables 4.11a, b, c ; appendix 5].

Table 4.11a *The means-end chain's attributes of ecotourism*

Concepts	Elements
Attributes	1. To visit historical attractions [ATTR]
	2. An expensive holiday [EXP]
	3. Experience local culture [LC]
	4. To see the natural environment and protected areas [NA]
	5. To participate in outdoor/recreational activities [ORA]
	6. To go somewhere that is not solely commercial [SC]
	7. To do a survey and/or study of natural habitats [SNH]
	8. To experience traditional and natural lifestyles [TNL]
	9. To travel to third world countries [TWC]
	10. To experience unique exclusive place [UEP]
	11. To travel to wild places or unprotected areas [WP]

Table 4.11b The means-end chain's consequences of ecotourism

Elements	Concepts
Consequences	1. Have an awareness of the world's natural environment [AWE]
	2. To be concerned that your presence there may damage the environment [CDE]
	3. To contribute actively in conservation of these areas [CONS]
	4. To be more energetic and adventurous [EA]
	5. To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday [EEEH]
	6. To educate and be educated by local people [EELP]
	7. To go again, when possible [GOAGA]
	8. To create a memory that normal holidays could not give me [LTM]
	9. To feel relaxed and calm [RC]
	10. It was recommended by friends [RECFR]
	11. To respect the local population and indigenous people [RLPIP]
	12. To maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers [SFHM]
	13. I felt that travel companies just use the word ecoholidays to attract more people [TCWA]

Table 4.11c The means-end chain's values of ecotourism

Elements	Concepts
Values	1. Get a sense of accomplishment [ACC]
	2. Appreciate and respect the world we live in [AWOB]
	3. Have fun and enjoyment in life [ENJOY]
	4. Get excitement [EXC]
	5. Get self fulfillment [FUL]
	6. Get value for money [GVFM]
	7. Experience warm relationships with other [GWRO]
	8. Achieve happiness [HAP]
	9. Become more knowledgeable [KNOW]

In addition, all the direct and indirect relationships were also analysed by the Laddermapping program, thus no additional analysis was performed. Moreover, the respondents were classified into certain levels of involvement by using the PII scale. Based on their PII scores, subjects were assigned into three non-overlapping involvement groups: Low [PII=10-29; n=7], Medium [PII=30-50; n=22], and High [PII= 51-70; n=26]. The final steps assigned the criteria for designing the questionnaire for the frequent ecotourists as well as helped analyse the laddering interviews based on both the structure and content elements of the means-end chains.

4.10 FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS PROFILE (II)

A questionnaire was designed based on ecotourists product knowledge structure and was distributed to 970 ecotourists, and of these 379 were returned detailing a response rate of 39.1%. The overall objective of this research instrument was to explore the attributes, consequences and values associated with ecotourists, activities and socio-demographics (see appendix 6). In addition a scale which measured involvement as a single index was also questioned and used as a main indicator and determinant of ecotourism throughout the analysis. The main scale used to determine these effects was a Likert Five Point Scale placed in all of the questions, except the PII, ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

In the first instance, the inclusion of the items elicited during the laddering interviews will present the profiles of ecotourists based on views associated directly with the characteristics of the concept mentioned by the frequent ecotourists, rather than characteristics adopted from other research studies. While the means-end chain in the qualitative analysis provided the depth and the associations with frequent ecotourists knowledge structure, this section will assess these elements in a wider context and will outline the preferred domains of the knowledge structure. This will identify which groups of frequent ecotourists have greater levels of involvement based on the performance of both consequences and values or the means-end chain perspective of involvement. In the second instance, a comparison of the unidimensional and means-end chain perspective of involvement will attest if these two distinct measures are

comparable, in other words if these techniques underline similar levels of involvement (i.e. high or medium).

4.11 DATA ANALYSIS

The data analysis plan was divided into two main stages, the first referenced the qualitative treatment and the second analysed the two sets of quantitative data. The laddering interviews were analysed by the Laddermapping program focusing on the structural elements of the mean-end chains, whereas the content elements were performed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Certain elements of the laddering interview results were recorded and inserted into SPSS for the purposes of the Scheffe and -2log likelihood statistic tests. The two quantitative instruments were subject to similar treatments, in particular that of descriptive statistics, factor and cluster analysis, regression and one-way Anova and Manova.

4.12 THE EMPIRICAL QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

The qualitative data was analysed in terms of both content and structure. The objective of the content analysis was to reveal the *variations of concepts across the ladders* (Mulvey et al, 1994) by taking a numerical comparative view based on the SPSS program. In the first instance the 'Scheffe test' of the analysis of variance was performed in order to underline the differences amongst ecotourists. The Scheffe test or 'between-subject Anova' (Wright, 1997) is most commonly used for relatively small sample sizes (Stevens, 1996; Wright, 1997: 130) where one dependent variable in this case the levels of involvement, is compared with a number of independent variables (de Vaus, 1991). For the purpose of this analysis the independent variables selected were: attributes (a); consequences (c); values (v); total involvement (a+c+v); and the length of the means-end chain.

The dependent variable has to be at the interval level (i.e. the items have a natural ranking and it is possible to quantify the differences between the items), where the number of categories of independent variables computed for comparisons have to be meaningful (de Vaus, 1991; Wright, 1997). Further, the test examines any complex

comparisons between the means of the variables, as well as all pairwise group comparisons for each dependent variable (Stevens, 1996: 198-199). The aim of the means comparison is to identify which elements within the means-end chain exhibit statistically significant differences. These differences are mainly deduced from the F-ratio (Stevens, 1996; de Vaus, 1991; Wright, 1997). Here, the F-ratio gauges the differences between the means, and is calculated on the basis of: the higher the score, the greater the significance; also indicated by the F-probability (SPSS, 1993a; Ryan, 1995; Wright, 1997). One critical limitation of this test is that it is 'too conservative' (Wright, 1997: 130) in the sense that it is likely to miss out many significant pairwise differences (Fife-Schaw, 1995a; Stevens, 1996; de Vaus, 1991). However, the use of the F-ratio and F-probability provides a useful indicator for highlighting certain pairwise differences between groups (Ryan, 1995; Wright, 1997: 130-131).

Another indicator used to reveal the differences between the levels of involvement is the logistic regression procedure (Wright, 1997; Hair et al, 1995:132; SPSS, 1993a). The principal aim at this stage is to identify the percentage that a certain item in the means-end chain (i.e. attributes) is more likely to be mentioned by a certain type of ecotourist (i.e. low as opposed to high involvement group). In this instance the logistic regression analysis was employed to measure coefficients by maximizing the likelihood that an event will occur (Hair et al, 1995). For the purpose of this analysis the emphasis will be on assessing 'the goodness of fit of the model' (SPSS, 1993a, b) by examining the likelihood of ecotourists pinpointing certain items under a certain level. The measure used to assess the model fit is the *likelihood value or -2 log likelihood* (Hair et al, 1995; Wright, 1997; SPSS, 1993a, b).

In the coding process the items of the chain were treated as dichotomous variables taking on value [1] if ecotourists indicated their existence, [2] otherwise. Then these variables were inserted into the SPSS program in order to produce the results. This has been mainly used in revealing the differences between males and females as well as between low, medium and high involvement groups. Overall the summary results of the -2 log likelihood probability ranged from 10%- 69.5% of likelihood with the probability ranging from $p < 0.05$ - $p < 0.12$ (see table 4.12).

Table 4.12 Results of the -2 Log likelihood probability of the laddering interviews

No of times mentioned by the ecotourists on the maps	Likelihood results	Levels of probability
n=1	10%	p<0.05
n=2	17.2%	p<0.05
n=3	23.3%	p<0.05
n=4	28.6%	p<0.05
n=5	33.5%	p<0.05
n=6	37.9%	p<0.05
n=7	41.9%	p<0.05
n=8	45.6%	p<0.05
n=9	49%	p<0.05
n=10	52.1%	p<0.05
n=13	60.1%	p<0.05
n=14	62.5%	p<0.05
n=15	64.4%	p<0.05
n=18	69.5%	p<0.12

Looking at the **structure analysis** the objective is to reveal the *interrelationships between the different items* of the means-end chain within the Laddermap program (Mulvey et al, 1994). Subsequently, a structural analytical emphasis is administered underlining the unique linkages of the means-end chain (see appendix 7).

In the first instance the results of the interviews are presented in the Hierarchical Value Map (HVM). The map serves as a presentation tool for the interviews, designed in the form of circles by the Laddermap program. Here, the **white circles** are *attributes*, **gray circles** are *consequences* and **black circles** are *values*. The size of the circle is proportional to the number of people who mentioned the item. The circles are connected with a line, and the thickness of the line is commensurate with the strength of the association between items mentioned by ecotourists. By taking the above into account, one important element at this stage is to also measure the dimensionally, relatedness and centrality of product knowledge (Laaksonen, 1994):

- Dimensionality was calculated by measuring the unique values mentioned by each group. In cases however, where a person mentioned a specific value several times, it was only coded once.
- Relatedness accounted for the strength of the association by measuring how many unique consequences are linked with unique values. In the coding process, if a respondent referred to a certain consequence several times, it was calculated only once; and
- Centrality, on the other hand was measured by assigning respondents a three-step scale to determine the importance of each unique value: [1] somewhat important, [2] important, [3] extremely important.

4.13 THE QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was the tool used for analysing the quantitative data (SPSS, 1993a, b, 1994). Initially, this research used descriptive statistics to summarise the characteristics of the sample, in this case the univariable [mean, standard deviation, and percentages], and bivariable types [crosstabulations] (SPSS, 1993a, b, 1994; Bryman and Cramer, 1997; Stevens, 1996; Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989; Hair et al, 1995) [see figure 4.2].

In addition factor and cluster analysis, regression and one-way Anova and Manova were used in both the occasional and frequent samples (Kass and Tinsley, 1979; Hackett and Foxall, 1994; Ford et al, 1986; Rothman, 1996; Duntelman, 1994; Tacq, 1997; Beaman and Vaske, 1995; Green and Krieger, 1995) [see figure 4.2].

4.13.1 Descriptive statistics

The method used for this research contains a number of descriptive statistics, that of measures of central tendency and dispersion (Hair et al, 1995; Stevens, 1996; SPSS, 1993a, b; Bryman and Cramer, 1997). The method used to attain the central tendency was the mean while measures of dispersion were calculated through standard deviation. Prior to this, frequency distribution was produced for all the variables based on SPSS for Windows (SPSS, 1993a, b).

4.13.2 Cross tabulations: chi-square analysis

Crosstabulations is a commonly used tool to explore the relationships or correlation between two sets of variables based on a contingency table (Bryman and Cramer, 1997; SPSS, 1993a, b; Hair et al, 1995). Here, the so-called chi-square (χ^2) test utilises the statistical significance between the variables, in that it examines the extent to which the relationship between the variables may have been affected by change (Bryman and Cramer, 1997: 168-172; SPSS, 1993a, b; Hair et al, 1995). This test examines the null hypothesis that no relationship exists between two variables (Bryman and Cramer, 1997: 168). In this instance, depending upon the nature of the variables certain techniques can be assessed. Variables are divided into four specific categories (de Vaus, 1991: 130-131; Bryman and Cramer, 1997: 58):

- a) *Nominal*: it distinguishes between categories of variables as it cannot be ranked in order or classified into discrete categories (i.e. gender, marital status);
- b) *Ordinal*: it ranks the items in order but the difference cannot be identified in numerical terms (i.e. type of work);
- c) *Interval*: it ranks the items in a numerical order so that differences between the variables can be identified (i.e. age, income);
- d) *Dichotomous*: it ranks the items in two categories (i.e. yes/no)

As such, if the examination concerns two interval variables it is indicated by measures of the relationship, that of the correlation or Pearson chi-square test. This tests tends to compare the observed frequency of cases against the expected frequency of the variables (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). In addition this measure of significance is also indicated by the probability (p), which dictates that the higher the values are, the higher the relationship is (Ryan, 1995; Hair et al, 1995; Bryman and Cramer, 1997). Between two ordinal variables and in the case of a small sample size (i.e. pilot analysis), the so-called Spearman's rho or Kendall's tau can be used to measure the association (Ryan, 1995; Hair et al, 1995; Bryman and Cramer, 1997).

Between two nominal, two dichotomous, interval-nominal or interval-dichotomous variables, the contingency table analysis based on chi-square and significance can be used (Ryan, 1995; Hair et al, 1995; Bryman and Cramer, 1997). Finally, between

ordinal versus interval variables it is assessed only in a large sample by the Spearman's rho correlation measure of the association between two variables (Ryan, 1995; Hair et al, 1995; Bryman and Cramer, 1997).

In all the cases, each of these types of measurements were used during the quantitative analysis. It is worth also noting, that the cross-tabulations in SPSS can be used with more than two variables, as a function of 'controlling a variable' allows the range of measurement to expand to three categories. For example, when a measurement of income versus gender versus education is examined, this can be done by examining each gender type (males/female) versus all the other variables. *This particular tool, was used to produce the cross-tabulations during the cluster analysis.*

4.13.3 Reliability analysis

The reliability assessment deals with the internal consistency of the scale or a set of variables that have been devised (Peterson, 1994; Litwin, 1995; Traub, 1994; Ryan, 1995; Churchill, 1979; Hair et al, 1995; Finn and Kayande, 1997; Sykes, 1990). In addition, it elaborates issues which are free from errors and are bonded with consistency so that its reputation can underline similar results (Traub, 1994; Churchill, 1979; Peter, 1979; Perreault and Leigh, 1989; Huges and Garrett, 1990; Coolican, 1990; Yin, 1989). The most common test used to express the reliability of the sample within SPSS is the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient (α) (SPSS, 1993a, b; Traub, 1994).

Theoretically speaking, the coefficient alpha 'is an intraclass correlation coefficient corresponding identically in a numerical value to a dependability index defined with relative error, in which persons is the facet of differentiation and test items is the facet of instrumentation' (Brennan, 1983 in Hughes and Garrett, 1990: 192).

The main advantage of the assessment of reliability within a given study is that of the assessment of its internal consistency, whereas among the weaknesses of this assessment are that its inherent characteristics are not conducive to replicability (Sykes, 1990: 309). In general terms, the exact reliability scores which show the effectiveness of the scale vary among the marketing studies (Finn and Kayande, 1997). For instance, Peterson (1994) indicates alpha values in five marketing sources to range from 0.76-0.81 while others suggests that values above 0.60 tend to be significant (Stevens, 1996)

or above 0.70 (Ryan, 1995; Churchill, 1979; Wright, 1997). In addition, all the ecotourism segmentation studies lack any reliability assessment and as such pose certain shortcomings in terms of their consistency. Hence, in the case of this study, *values of approximately 0.7 or above were considered as critical elements enabling advanced statistical analysis to take place* (i.e. factor, cluster etc.).

4.13.4 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a data simplification technique with the primary purpose of reducing a set of observed variables in new categories, the so-called factors (Kass and Tinsley, 1979; Hackett and Foxall, 1994; Ford et al, 1986; Rothman, 1996; Kim and Mueller, 1994a, b; Duntelman, 1994; Bryman and Cramer, 1997; SPSS, 1994; Stevens, 1996; Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989; Kline, 1994; Tacq, 1997; Child, 1990). Thus, relationships among sets of interrelated variables are examined and represented in terms of a few underlining factors which are salient and uncorrelated variables to replace the original set of correlated variables (Kim and Mueller, 1994a, b; Hair et al, 1995; Kline, 1994; Child, 1990).

The overall application of factor analysis within tourism behavioral research was suggested as more appropriate if seen as an additional tool for statistical analysis (Ryan, 1995: 260). In particular, it was suggested that if it is the only tool in the analysis, there is a danger of over estimating the 'truth' behind tourist typologies (Ryan, 1995: 260). Hence, the present study treated factor analysis as an additional tool for multivariate observations in order to avoid the concerns expressed when analysing tourist typology patterns (Ryan, 1995). Generally speaking, there are a number of issues which ought to be considered in any factor analysis, in particular factor models, tests of factorial data, criteria for factors, factors rotation and loading.

The *factor model* includes two different approaches, that of the common and component factor analysis (SPSS, 1994; Kline, 1994; Ford et al, 1986; Kim and Mueller, 1994a, b; Rothman, 1996; Child, 1990). The former type analyses the covariance among the variables together with the variability of each variable that is due to common factors (Ford et al, 1986: 293; Wright, 1997; Kline, 1994; Kim and Mueller, 1994a, b). The latter type illustrates a set of observed variables which are transformed

into a new set of variables, which are linear composites of the observed variables (Ford et al, 1986: 293; Wright, 1997; Kline, 1994; Kim and Mueller, 1994a, b). This requires two sets of values (Kline, 1994: 29-30): the characteristics vectors of the matrix or latent vectors; and the characteristics roots or eigenvalues. These factor types have their advantages and disadvantages (Ford et al, 1986), all of which depend upon the setting in which they are established (Wright, 1997; Kline, 1994; Kim and Mueller, 1994a, b; Hair et al, 1995). In all instances, the component model is more relevant in explaining the variance between the observed variables whereas the common model tends to measure variables that were assumed to be a linear function of a set of unmeasured variables (Ford et al, 1986: 293-294). *In light of these suggestions, principal component analysis was used as a main choice for the factor model.*

There are two commonly used techniques to test the factorial correlation data matrix, that of sampling adequacy and sphericity (Ryan, 1995: 256; Hair et al, 1995; Kline, 1994; Stevens, 1996; Bryman and Cramer, 1997; Kim and Mueller, 1994a, b; Duntelman, 1994; Child, 1990):

- *Firstly*, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure outlines the sampling adequacy of a ratio of the sum of squared correlation's to the sum of squared correlation plus the sum of squared partial correlation's. The ratio results range from zero to one, with values above 0.6 appointed for factor analysis. In particular, values at: 0.6 range are 'mediocre'; 0.7 are middling; 0.8 are 'meritorious'; and above 0.9 are 'marvelous';
- *Secondly*, Barlett's Test for Sphericity (BTS) sets up the null hypothesis that the sample correlation matrix forms an identity as it measures the degree of difference from zero of the off-diagonal values of the correlation matrix. In practice, the test outlines a statistic and a probability, and the former should illustrate a large value while the latter should contain a low value.

In this case, both the KMO and the BTS tests were used to measure the effectiveness of the factorial data.

Next, the *outcome of the factor analysis is dependent upon the number of factors established prior to rotation*. However, on this point the criterion for retention of factors is uncertain with a number of studies reflecting different solutions (Kass and Tinsley, 1979; Hackett and Foxall, 1994; Ford et al, 1986; Rothman, 1996; Kim and Mueller, 1994a, b; Stevens, 1996; Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989; Kline, 1994; Tacq, 1997; Hammond, 1995; Child, 1990). There are four different types of criterion, that of the (Hair et al, 1995):

- a) *priori criterion*: determines the number of factors to extract based on earlier studies;
- b) *the latent root criterion*: is associated with an eigenvalues variance approach in that values greater than one suggest that a greater amount of variance is explained by the factor than by an individual item or variable. Here, it was suggested that the eigenvalues are more reliable when the number of variables is between 20 and 50 (Hair et al, 1995). Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) argue that the number of factors with eigenvalues greater than one are usually somewhere between the number of variables divided by three and the number of variables divided by five. Therefore, for the seventeen item scale the latent root criterion might suggest between three and six factors. Ford et al (1986) suggest that this type of criterion is most appropriate for principal component analysis especially when the sample to variable ratio is large;
- c) *the salient test criterion*: examines the pattern of eigenvalues for breaks or discontinuities. Here, the views about the effectiveness of this test are mixed based on their subjectivity and effectiveness (Ford et al, 1986) ; and
- d) *percentage of variance criterion*: examines the scenario where as the number of factors increases, the amount of variance explained by the solution increases. With this test, it has been suggested that the analyst generally considers a solution of sixty percent of the total variance (and in some instances even less) as a satisfactory solution (Hair et al, 1995).

It follows that the most commonly used technique has been the latent root criterion (Hair et al, 1995). Others suggested that a combination of all the methods and an investigation of the resultant factor matrices is often necessary for the production of a

viable solution (Wright, 1997; Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989; Stevens, 1996). There are also views which determine that researchers should examine the highest to lowest number of factors until the most interpretable solution is found (Ford et al, 1986: 295). *In light of these suggestions this study used the latent root criterion with eigenvalues greater than one as a final choice for factor structure. In addition, the lowest and highest factor scores were also tested until an appropriate solution was found.*

The *choice of factor rotation* is used to improve three issues within the factor analysis, that of the psychological meaningfulness, reliability, and reproductivity of factors (Ford et al, 1986: 295; Rothman, 1996). Generally speaking, there are two types of solution available, that of the Obligue and Orthogonal (Kline, 1994; Wright, 1997; Hair et al, 1995; Kim and Mueller, 1994a, b; Stevens, 1996; Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989). Obligue rotation is based on the generation of pattern and structural matrixes signified by correlated factor solutions (Ford et al, 1986; Kline, 1994; Hair et al, 1995). Obligue rotation is a complicated form of factor analysis as it is difficult to consistently explain all the factor intercorrelations, in addition to the inability of using it in subsequent statistical analysis (Ford et al, 1986; Kline, 1994). The most common types used for oblique rotations are (SPSS, 1994; Hair et al, 1995; Ford et al, 1986; Child, 1990): promax; direct oblimin; and the Harris-Kaiser othoblique approach.

On the other hand orthogonal rotations produce factors which are statistically uncorrelated or independent from each other (Hair et al, 1995; Ford et al, 1986; Kline, 1994). Proponents of orthogonal rotation raise its simplicity, clarity and utilization in additional statistical analysis (Kline, 1994; Hair et al, 1995; Ford et al, 1986). A typical tool under this type of rotation is the so-called Varimax rotation which aims to maximize the sum of variance of loadings in factor matrixes (Hair et al, 1995: 383; Kline, 1994: 68; Wright, 1997; Hammond, 1995: 377). Overall, the varimax values can range from -1 to +1, and the proximity to the value one indicates a positive or negative association (Hair et al, 1995; Child, 1990). In addition, values close to 0 indicate a lack of an overall association (Hair et al, 1995). *This study used the Varimax rotation as a tool for factor rotation in all the quantitatively treated samples.*

With regards to *factor loadings*, values above ± 0.30 are considered to meet minimal levels, ± 0.40 are considered more important, and above ± 0.50 are very significant (Hair et al, 1995: 384-385; Ford et al, 1986; Stevens, 1996; Kline, 1994). Furthermore, Hair et al (1995) suggested that loadings of at least ± 0.19 and ± 0.26 are recommended for the five and one percent levels of significance when the sample size is one hundred and for a sample size of 200, ± 0.14 and ± 0.18 respectively. The significance of loadings also varies according to the number of variables under investigation, and should be adjusted downwards for larger samples (Stevens, 1996; Wright, 1997).

More complex methods are also available such as the Burt-Banks formula which adjusted the standard error of loading to take into account the number of variables and the degree of unique variance and is illustrated as the number of factor increases (Child, 1990; Tacq, 1997). However, considering the number of factor solutions, the variety of sample sizes and the objectives of comparison that these involve, a thumb rule approach was adopted in this study. *Hence, only variables with loadings greater than ± 0.40 were considered to be acceptable in all the solutions presented in Chapters five and seven.*

Finally, the application of the factor analysis to any study requires sample sizes to be quite large, that of above 200 respondents in order to avoid the limitations surrounding sampling errors (Ford et al, 1986; Ryan, 1995; Hair et al, 1995; Stevens, 1996; Kline, 1994; Wright, 1997). In addition, the number of examined variables have to correspond with the sample size with a minimum use of ten variables per examined scale (Ryan, 1995: 258). For instance, with a minimum of ten variables the corresponding sample size should be 150 respondents (Ryan, 1995). In most of the cases this study used more than ten variables in each examined area, except in the LOV scale within the occasional ecotourists sample (I) which contained nine values. Although the LOV is a standard scale the limitations surrounding the total number of variables were overcome as a result of a large sample size available for analysis ($N=247$). In all the cases factor analysis was used as an additional tool for the examination of both the occasional and frequent ecotourists samples.

4.13.5 Cluster analysis

Cluster analysis is a statistical technique which aims to group or sort items into a number of homogeneous groups (Hammond, 1995; Bailey, 1994; Saunders, 1994; Punj and Steward, 1983; Milligan and Cooper, 1987, 1988; Beaman and Vaske, 1995; Green and Krieger, 1995; Green et al, 1988; Hair et al, 1995; Stevens, 1996; Ryan, 1995; Wind, 1978; Everitt, 1993).

Theoretically speaking, this type of analysis contains a number of different techniques which reflect the classification theme within the social sciences of placing entities into groups on the basis of their similarities (Bailey, 1994; Hair et al, 1995; Stevens, 1996; Everitt, 1993). From the general classification perspective the aim is to minimise 'within group variance', while maximizing 'between group variance' (Bailey, 1994). This suggests that an arrangement is taking place in which a set of entities are placed into groups with the condition that each group is different and unique for all other groups as well as internally homogeneous (Bailey, 1994; Hammond, 1995). In adopting the classification process, the advantages generally stem from their (Bailey, 1994): description, reduction of complexity; identification of similarities and differences; presenting an exhaustive list of dimensions; comparison of different types; the inventory and management of types; the study of relationships; and versatility.

On the other hand, among the disadvantages are (Bailey, 1994): the descriptive classification; pre-explanatory or non-explanatory; reification; static classification; identification of cases and variables; unmanageability; and logic of classes. Given their pros and cons, its application spans across a variety of market segmentation studies (Wind, 1978; Saunders, 1994; Punj and Steward, 1983) like the development of new product opportunities, identification of relatively homogeneous and comparable test markets (Punj and Steward, 1983) and tourism studies (Ryan, 1995). Looking at the usage of cluster analysis in a more detail fashion the main aim is to explore a given relationship between objects and subjects without a dependent variable being selected (Hammond, 1995; Saunders, 1994; Punj and Steward, 1983; Wind, 1978; Green and Krieger, 1995; Everitt, 1993). Here, except the general pros and cons surrounding the classification process there is also a confusion within the cluster analysis, limitations which derive from all the multivariate statistics (Saunders, 1994). For instance, there are

certain concerns about the selection of appropriate measures of similarities and the number of clusters (Green et al, 1988), as well as others pin pointing concerns of utilising this approach unless very different homogeneous groups exist (Wells, 1975; Saunders, 1994). The application of clustering analysis could be devised from the hierarchical cluster procedure which concentrates on the construction of a treelike hierarchy structure and is applicable to any sample size (Bailey, 1994; Stevens, 1996; Hair et al, 1995). Alternatively there is a non-hierarchical cluster procedure which does not involve the treelike diagram, and is suitable only in large sample sizes (Bailey, 1994; Stevens, 1996; Hair et al, 1995).

Within this study, due to the small sample size of the pilot analysis (n=39) a hierarchical procedure was utilised. For the two larger samples (n= 247; n=379), a non-hierarchical procedure was used.

For the hierarchical procedure four main criteria were relevant for the pilot analysis (Bailey, 1994; Hair et al, 1995:438-440):

- Firstly, the issue of *agglomerative versus divisive*. The former views the sample as containing N separate clusters that can combine and recombine into a small set of clusters, whereas the latter tends to see the sample as a set of N objects comprising a large single cluster. *In such a setting the pilot study used an agglomerative method;*
- Secondly, the issue of *single versus hierarchical*. Here, the most recommended method for the agglomerative models is the hierarchical which involves successive clustering and reclustering at different levels. *As such a hierarchical model was used;*
- Thirdly, the issue of *form of linkage*. There are three different types of linkages, that of the single, complete and average criterion. The single procedure is based on a minimum distance between the objects which is admitted to a cluster if it has a correlation with only a single member of that cluster that is higher than its correlation with any object not in the cluster. The complete linkage procedure is similar to the single procedure except the criterion is based on maximum distance. In particular, there has to be a higher correlation with every member of the cluster than with any object not in that cluster, which gives a compact form of clustering. The average

linkage method is between the two latter forms whereby the cluster criterion is the average distance from all individuals in one cluster to all individuals in another. As such, *the average linkage method was selected as criterion within the pilot study as it tends to provide tighter clusters*; and

- Fourthly, the issue of *subjective versus objective similarity levels*. Within the former type, all the levels of similarity represent a subjective set at which a prospective member will enter into a cluster. Within the latter type either highest similarity or lowest dissimilarity levels will enter into a cluster, which in turn yields the maximum homogeneity for the cluster. As such, *the objective method was used within the pilot analysis due to the difficulty in determining the exact procedures of the levels of similarity*.

As a result the method used within the pilot analysis which elaborates all the latter choices, that of the agglomerative, objective, average and hierarchical, is the so-called *Ward method* (Hair et al, 1995: 440). Briefly, this method combines clusters with small observations in which the distance between two clusters is the sum of squares between the two clusters summed by all the variables (Hair et al, 1995: 440). A recommended distance between the clusters for the Ward method is the so-called *Square Euclidean*, in which the distance value is the sum of the squared difference without taking the square root (Hair et al, 1995: 432).

For the two main samples, a non-hierarchical clustering procedure was used in order to group respondents according to their similarities based on certain selection criterion (Hair et al, 1995; Stevens, 1996; Tacq, 1997). In particular, a quick cluster *or K-means clustering procedure was utilised*, in order to group a large number of cases into a requested number of groups (SPSS, 1994; Hair et al, 1995; Milligan and Cooper, 1987, 1988; Beaman and Vaske, 1995; Green and Krieger, 1995; Everitt, 1993). The process begins in specifying the cluster seed into a pre requested number of clusters (SPSS, 1994) Here, there are three approaches in assigning the observation selected within this procedure (Hair et al, 1995: 440-441; Everitt, 1993):

- a) The *sequential threshold method*: concentrates on choosing one cluster seed which includes all the objects within the pre-established distance;

- b) The *parallel threshold method*: concentrates on choosing a number of cluster seeds and assigns objects within the nearest distance to the nearest seed;
- c) The *optimizing method*: the process illustrates a cluster by finding its central point or seed based on the values of the cluster variables and by assigning cases to the closest center points.

In the light of these approaches, this study selected the *optimizing procedure* to accompany the K-means cluster. One of the main limitations of this approach however is that of establishing the cluster seeds within the analysis, a limitation which could partially overcome by giving a number of different cluster solutions and comparing both amounts of cases as well as the distance between the clusters (Hair et al, 1995).

In addition to this approach, a variety of researchers suggested that cluster analysis should follow factor analysis in a manner that the factor scores can be treated as the input variables rather than the items of a specific scale (Moscardo et al, 1996; Bailey, 1994; Hair et al, 1995; Stevens, 1996). The benefit proclaimed with this approach is the reduction of variables which have to be analysed as well as that the results of the factor analysis could assist with the interpretation of the clusters (Saunders, 1994). Others however suggested that it is more efficient to use the items of the scale to produce the K-mean clusters rather than the factor scores, as there is a danger of certain statements becoming highly loaded in more than one of the factor scores (Loker-Murphy, 1996). As such, *the results of the factor analysis across the occasional and frequent ecotourism samples suggested that specific items rather than the factor scores were treated as input variables for the quick clustering procedure*. In assisting with the final selection of the cluster analysis a one-way Anova test was also used.

4.13.6 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)

The one-way analysis of variance or Anova is a statistical technique which compares a group of variables across groups of observation (Hammond, 1995; Hair et al, 1995; Stevens, 1996; Wright, 1997; Tacq, 1997; Bryman and Cramer, 1997). One-way Anova is applied as a technique to measure the null hypothesis that certain group differences occurred by change. In particular, one-way Anova compares means of variables among groups of observations by 'determining whether the whole set of sample means suggests that the samples were derived from the same general population' (Hair et al, 1995: 262). This type of Anova estimates the 'within-groups' and 'between-groups' variance of the sample (SPSS, 1993a; Hair et al, 1995; Ryan, 1995).

In addition, in circumstances where there are more than two independent variables to compare, one-way Anova measures the systematic differences between the sample means or the differences occurrence by change (SPSS, 1993a; Hair et al, 1995; Hammond, 1995). Here, the Anova data is given by the F-ratio, and F-probability (Ryan, 1995; Bryman and Cramer, 1997). The F-ratio tends to measure the difference of the means of the sub-groups by which values of around 1.00 illustrate that the null hypothesis is true, thus the differences are random variations (Ryan, 1995; Hammond, 1995). On the other hand, values greater than 1.00 showed that the null hypothesis is false and that the differences are not by change (Ryan, 1995; Hammond, 1995). In short, both F-ratio and F-probability are based on the rule of the higher the score the higher their significance is (Ryan, 1995). Within the One-way Anova command in SPSS, there are a variety of tests such as Scheffe's test, and Duncan's multiple-range test which can identify which comparisons among groups have significant differences (SPSS, 1993a; Hair et al, 1995; Bryman and Cramer, 1997). Among the advantages of such measures is their flexibility in assessing the data in different research designs (Hammond, 1995), whereas their weakness is the low levels of power (Hair et al, 1995).

For the purpose of this study, *a one-way Anova using Duncan's multiple-range test took place in the cluster, and MANOVA analysis in order to identify which pair of clusters and elements have significantly different mean importance ratings (at $p=0.05$ level).*

4.13.7 Regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis is a technique which tends to examine the relationship between a dependent variable and a set of independent variables (Hair et al, 1995; Bryman and Cramer, 1997). The aim of regression analysis is to predict the importance of the independent variables in the prediction of the dependent variable (Hair et al, 1995). The use of this tool is closely associated with the research problem by which both the magnitude and direction (positive or negative) of each independent variable is assessed (Hair et al, 1995: 100-105; Bryman and Cramer, 1997: 256-268). In addition, the nature of the relationship between the variables can also be determined based on the correlation between the dependent and independent measures. In this case, there are three statistical scores which determine its effectiveness (Hair et al, 1995; Bryman and Cramer, 1997):

- *Firstly*, the R square (R^2) which is the coefficient determination by measuring the variance of the independent variables;
- *Secondly*, the unstandard regression coefficients (B) which illustrate how a single increment in the independent variables affects the dependent variables; and
- *Thirdly*, the standardized regression coefficient (Beta) which measures the relative importance of the independent variables as well as their direction.

In all the cases, the significance is attested by the F-ratio which gauges the differences between the means, and is calculated on the basis of: the higher the score, the greater the significance (Hair et al, 1995). Looking at the data requirements, the dependent variables have to be at the dichotomous level (yes/no) in order to examine the overall variance. In addition, both total scale variables as well as factor scores can be included into the list of independent variables (Hair et al, 1995; Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989). The treatment of factor scores as independent variables however, was described as a 'quick and dirty' estimate of factor scores and as entirely inadequate for many research purposes (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989). Other more sophisticated approaches are available but these were not utilised in order to maintain compatibility among the two different surveys (I, II).

For the purpose of this research, *the high and medium levels of involvement were treated as dependent variables among the two surveys. These variables were recorded in order to meet the criteria, with 1: to illustrate their appearance and 2: otherwise. The independent variables were mainly the factor scores and the socio-demographics, except in the case of the occasional ecotourists first scale analysis. In particular, the motives of overseas travel results showed low reliability rates and as such factor analysis did not come into effect. As a result the total variables of this section were treated as independent variables instead of the factor scores.*

4.13.8 Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)

The multivariate analysis of variance model is a technique which stems from the generalisation of the analysis of variance (Bray and Maxwell, 1985; Novak, 1995; Hair et al, 1995; Stevens, 1996; Wright, 1997; Hammond, 1995). It assessed the multivariate difference across groups based on testing a null hypothesis of the mean differences of a set of dependent variables (Bray and Maxwell, 1985; Novak, 1995; Hair et al, 1995). The utilisation of MANOVA was considered in four themes of marketing practices (Novak, 1995: 357-361): in relation to control measures of reliability levels; the examination of within-group factors with three or more levels; in developing composite variables that increase group differences; and the investigation of multidimensional patterns of group differences based on a set of dependent variables.

In most of these studies the commonly used statistic is that of the Wilks' lambda (Hair et al, 1995). In particular 'it examines whether groups are somehow different without being concerned with whether they differ on at least one linear combination of the dependent variables' (Hair et al, 1995: 277). The higher the values of Wilk's lambda the higher the significant differences are, indicated also by the F statistic (SPSS, 1994; Hair et al 1995). Overall, its advantages lie on its appropriateness for experimental design problems, on assessing the multiple factors and their interaction; and that it provides tests with a statistical significance relevant to the nature and dimensionality of group differences (Novak, 1995). On other hand, its weakness lies on the platform of the so-called causation effectiveness in the experiential design settings (Hair et al, 1995: 283-284).

In this study, MANOVA was used in both the *occasional and frequent* ecotourism samples. In the case of *occasional ecotourists*, a comparison between the elements of the ecotourism holidays and the values was conducted in order to reveal certain similarities and differences among the examined elements. The hypothesis to be tested was that value scores will differ in their agreement ratings in ecotourism segments. In addition, the ecotourism segments were treated as the independent variables and the value factors as dependent variables. In the *frequent ecotourist case*, MANOVA was applied at two different occasions:

- *Firstly*, to illustrate a comparison between the attributes of the ecotourism holidays and the consequences in order to reveal this connection. The procedure involved an assessment of the factor scores of the attributes (dependent) with the consequences-clusters (independent). Here, the hypothesis to be tested was that the consequence segments will differ in their agreement ratings of ecotourism attributes; and
- *Secondly*, a comparison between the consequences of an ecotourism holiday and the values was conducted in order to reveal the connection between consequences and values. The procedure involved an assessment of factor scores of values (dependent) with the consequences-clusters (independent). Here, the hypothesis to be tested was that consequences segments will differ in their agreement ratings of ecotourism-related values.

In sum, the utilisation of MANOVA in both samples was carried out for comparison purposes, especially in the test which concerned the treatment of values as dependent variables. This allowed distinct differences between occasional and frequent ecotourists to surface.

4.14 EVALUATION AND LIMITATIONS

The empirical research design of this study was associated with both the quantitative and qualitative treatments of the sample of ecotourists. The adoption of such approaches was primarily associated with the satisfaction of the research question and its objectives, and as such highlighted the main advantage of this research study. That of the assessment of two distinct types of ecotourists, the occasional and the frequent. With regard to the occasional ecotourists sample treatment, its features related to the samples motivational characteristics, values and their involvement levels and, as such highlighted their basic views about ecotourism holidays. On the other hand, the frequent ecotourist sample was the main group under investigation in this study, and a combination of both their detailed product knowledge structure, as well as an assessment of their product components enabled a thorough examination to take place. The findings on both occasional and frequent samples not only provided additional evidence of the distinct profiles of ecotourists but also outlined patterns of their involvement levels. Regardless of the advantages of the adoption of such research tools, there were a number of limitations encountered with the methodological procedures:

- *Financial and time restrictions in obtaining a larger sample:* the sample obtained for the analysis was given by the companies which allowed the researcher to exercise a self ranking test of the consumers. Databases of the consumers are normally purchased from a particular agency and as such this option was dropped based on the expensive price of such databases. The tight timing of the field work process made it difficult to approach other organisations and request more databases;
- *Confidentiality of the questionnaires and interviews restricted further examination of certain issues which arose during the data analysis:* during the analysis of the questionnaires certain statements were made which needed further clarification. These statements were either additional comments or no responses, and as such both of these types have been excluded from the analysis;

- *Deciding the questions asked in section one in the occasional ecotourist questionnaire:* this section comprised of both overseas travel motives as well as an ecotourist characteristics assessment. Most of the items were elicited from the literature on ecotourism and in particular from studies with similar scope. All the items were related to ecotourism's three main components and as such were in line with the literature on ecotourism;
- *Difficulty in applying more statistical techniques due to time restrictions:* certain statistical techniques such as t-tests, multidimensional scaling and two-way Anova were initially considered for the data analysis. Due to the time restriction of the study's completion, these techniques were not implemented in the current analysis;
- *Inability to question 'general' tourists for a comparison with ecotourists:* to obtain a database for the general tourist is not only a time consuming process but also an expensive approach. Its financial limitations arise from the costs surrounding of the purchase of a database if collaboration with travel companies is not possible, and the implementation of the field work. In all the cases, the aim of the current research was to assess the profiles of the ecotourists and as such a comparison with general tourists did not tally with the scope of this research;
- *Difficulty in asking more ecotourism relevant questions due to risks associated with the length of the questionnaires:* the criteria of the design of a questionnaire suggests that its length has to be limited within an appropriate time. Certain elements of ecotourism holidays such as money spend, specific 'sustainable actions' could have been asked but were dropped as they were going to increase the length of the questionnaire; and
- *Inability to conduct interviews across the UK due to limited financial budget:* ideally the interviews were going to be conducted across the UK in order to obtain an equal representation. Considering the budget available for traveling the country, it was decided to conduct interviews in an affordable travel proximity.

4.15 SUMMARY

The methodological tools selected within this research detailed the strengths and weaknesses with both the quantitative and qualitative research types. In addition, the sample criteria of selecting the ecotourists was also discussed which allowed the selection of ecotourists to be made based on two types of presence within an undisturbed area. Here, the two distinct types elicited were that of frequent and occasional ecotourists. The former type was subject to both quantitative and qualitative treatments whereas the latter was only subject to a quantitative analysis. As such the different issues and tools for data collection and analysis were discussed and presented in an attempt to lay out all the criteria associated with the methodology of this research.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE PROFILES OF OCCASIONAL ECOTOURISTS: A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS (I)

5.0 The profiles of occasional ecotourists: a quantitative analysis (I)

5.1 INTRODUCTION

As the worldwide interest in ecotourism has grown, so too has criticism of the failure of ecotourism to meet the different elements that it should support. These criticisms go beyond ecotourism management at the destination level, to also include the need to understand the characteristics of ecotourists. In particular an unexplored domain within the ecotourism market that has generated interest is the need to comprehend the intrinsic factors affecting its customers. In doing so, this research measures two different types of ecotourists, those of occasional and frequent nature. This chapter will present the results of occasional ecotourists. To start with, a questionnaire was distributed to *610 occasional ecotourists and of these 247 were returned, generating a response rate of 40.5%* (appendix 4). The overall objectives of this research instrument were to explore:

- the overseas travel motives;
- the different elements of ecotourism;
- the values of occasional ecotourists;
- the activities; and
- the socio-demographics of occasional ecotourists.

In order to illustrate the profiles of occasional ecotourists in terms of their involvement, a scale which measures involvement as a single index was questioned and used as a main indicator and determinant of ecotourism throughout the analysis. The structure of this chapter initially outlines the socio-demographic characteristics of ecotourists, followed by an overview of their motivations towards an ecotourism overseas trip. Next, the elements which comprised their ecotourism experience will be detailed as well as the nature of their involvement. Finally, the values of ecotourists will be explored together with their relationships with the elements of the ecotourism product. As a result, a variety of tests and statistics will be presented in an effort to identify the profiles of occasional ecotourists.

5.2 AN ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF OCCASIONAL ECOTOURISTS

The aim of this part of the research is to explore the differences among the involvement categories, to compare them with demographics and to measure the relationships between the variables. An analysis of the socio-demographic variables was carried out in two main stages. The first stage illustrates the frequency distribution of the sample, while the second stage includes the results of chi-square with crosstabulations. In doing so, a number of computations took place in order to meet the conditions of chi-square:

- The *age classifications* were labeled as: (1) Young aged, between [17-34]; (2) Middle aged, between [35-54]; and (3) Old aged, between [55-65+]; and
- *Income* was seen as: (1) Low range for [less than £10,000-£15,000]; (2) Mid range for [£15,000-£25,000]; and (3) High range for [£25,000-£30,000+].

The actual involvement level of occasional ecotourists (high, medium, or low), was measured using the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII), measured involvement levels [see also section 5.12]. Here, the ten items of the scale were summed and then divided by ten to find average scores. Based on these scores, subjects were assigned into three non-overlapping involvement groups: *Low* [10-29]; *Medium* [30-50]; and *High* [51-70].

5.2.1 Age and income levels

The measurement of the two interval variables revealed that age and income were very significant. The majority of occasional ecotourist respondents *were aged between 17-34 years* [55.8%]. It follows that 32.8% were middle-aged [35-54], while the remaining 11.3% were over 55 years of age (see table 5.1).

The income levels showed that *33.2% of the sample earned less than £10,000*. The next income group was for incomes over £30,000 (17.8%) followed by an even split of 14.2% for incomes between [£15,000-£20,000] and [£20,000-£25,000], and finally 8.9% earned between [£25,000-£30,000]. In measuring the relationship between these

two variables, a null hypothesis was created of non difference between age and income of occasional ecotourists:

- The results showed that income was affected by age ($\chi^2 = 51.31$), where 63.8% of young occasional ecotourists generated lower incomes [of less than £ 10,000 to £ 15,000] ($p=0.0000$). In addition, 46.9% of the middle aged occasional ecotourists enjoyed higher incomes [£ 25,000- £30,000+]. Forty two point nine percent (42.9%) of the older aged occasional ecotourists indicated incomes in the mid-range category [£15,000- £ 25,000] and 35.7% indicated incomes between £ 25,000-30,000+. Overall the results suggested that the majority of the young occasional ecotourists had low incomes, and the *association* of these two variables was at significant levels ($r= 0.38$). The overall outcome *demonstrated that according to the age of occasional ecotourists, incomes varied more or less accordingly* ($p=0.00000$).

5.2.2 Gender

The results of the gender classification revealed that 56.7% of the examined sample were females (see table 5.1). In turn, relationships between gender and other demographics were only illustrated with :

- Age ($\chi^2= 9.42$): Here, 65.2% of the young age category comprised of females ($p< 0.001$). In the middle age category there was a distribution of 53.1% males and 46.9% females. In the older age category, 57.1% of the sample comprised of males. *Hence, it can be suggested that it was the young female occasional ecotourists as opposed to middle and older aged men who dominated the examined sample* ($p< 0.01$); and
- Income levels ($\chi^2= 10.01$): The results revealed that 53.6% of female occasional ecotourists generated lower incomes. In contrast their male counterparts demonstrated a more or less equal distribution of income, that of 33% in all the categories ($p<0.001$).

Table 5.1 The socio-demographics elements of the sample

Elements	Occasional ecotourists	%
Gender:		
Males	107	43.3
Females	140	56.7
Status:		
Single	134	54.3
Married	97	39.3
Divorced	16	6.5
People travel:		
One	156	63.2
Two	37	15
Three	21	8.5
Four	11	4.5
Other	22	8.8
Education:		
Secondary education	55	22.3
HND/Diploma	27	10.9
First degree	114	46.2
Postgraduate qualification	51	20.6
Age (years):		
17-24	69	27.9
25-34	69	27.9
35-44	40	16.2
45-54	41	16.6
55-64	18	7.3
65+++	10	4.0
Income (pounds):		
Less than 10,000	82	33.2
10,000-15,000	29	11.7
15,000-20,000	35	14.2
20,000-25,000	35	14.2
25,000-30,000	22	8.9
30,000++	44	17.8

5.2.3 Marital status and education

The marital status results revealed that 54.3% of occasional ecotourists were single, 39.3% were married/had partners or were widowed with the remaining 6.5% in the divorced and separated category (see table 5.1).

Looking at the educational background of these ecotourists, the majority of them had a first degree (46.2%), and 20.6% had pursued a postgraduate' qualification (see table 5.1). Twenty two point three percent (22.3%) were also educated to a secondary level and 10.9% pursued an HND or Diploma. At this stage a number of null hypothesis revealed the following significant relationships:

- Between marital status and age ($\chi^2 = 94.59$): Here, 79.7% of young occasional ecotourists [17-34] were single, 66.7% of the middle aged group [35-54] were married/partners/widowed, and 67.9% of the older ecotourists [55+] were also in the married category. *Hence, marital status varied with the age of the individuals* ($p = 0.0000$).
- Between education and income ($\chi^2 = 10.91$): Here, 54.5% of ecotourists with a secondary education and 47.4% of ecotourists with a first degree generated lower incomes ($p < 0.05$). In contrast, 37.3% of ecotourists with a postgraduate qualification earned higher incomes ($p < 0.05$). *Hence most of the occasional ecotourists, except those with a secondary education, generated middle incomes of above £ 15,000.*

5.2.4 Activities undertaken on an ecotourism holiday

There were a number of activities that occasional ecotourists considered during their holidays. The first two activities related to the *admiration of nature* ($n=187$; 75.7%) and the *observation of animals* ($n=176$; 71.3%). Clearly, these were very close to the definitional perspective of ecotourism which included the observation and admiration of nature and species (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987, 1991a, b).

Overall, occasional ecotourists were particularly interested in the following activities, underlining the emphasis on an educational experience:

- Snorkeling: 61.9% ($n=153$); Turtle watching: 25.9% ($n=64$);
- Educational guided tours: 60.3% ($n=149$); Horse riding: 20.6% ($n=51$);

- Natural photography: 51.4% (n=127); Rock climbing: 18.2% (n=45);
- Camping: 49% (n=121); Marine fishing: 11.3% (n=28).
- Scuba diving: 47.8% (n=118);
- Bush walking: 46.6% (n=115);
- Adventure tours: 36.8% (n=91);
- Observing flowers: 35.6% (n=88);
- Bird watching: 34.8% (n=86);
- Whale watching: 33.2% (n=82);
- White-water rafting: 27.5% (n=68);

5.2.5 Continents of travel

Most of the occasional ecotourists preferred to travel in Europe (30%). The other commonly stated destinations included: Asia (24.3%), Americas (23.1%), Africa (11.7%), and Australia/New Zealand/Pacific (10.9%). It is pertinent to make a brief comment on the tendency of occasional ecotourists to travel within Europe, as it appears that air travel expenses and distances played a role when choosing an eco-destination (see section 5.3).

5.2.6 Type and grade of accommodation

The type of accommodation played a significant role in the choice process of occasional ecotourists. When asked about their preference, they indicated a multitude of responses as more than one accommodation type was indicated. It was suggested that ecotourists were less concerned about their accommodation (Boo, 1990), indeed the current results acknowledged this suggestion by revealing their overall preference of staying in a tent (53.4%). The other preferred types of accommodation included:

- Hotels/motels (41.3%); Bed and breakfast (24.7%);
- Cabins (22.7%); Ecolodges (19.4%);
- Inns (10.1%); and Ranches (2.8%).

Among the other accommodation types mentioned were staying with friends and relatives, youth hostels and apartments. With respect to grade or luxury of these types of accommodation, 48.2 % preferred a mid-price range, 46.6% a basic budget and 6.9% luxurious.

5.2.7 Preference of traveling with companions

It appeared that the majority of occasional ecotourists traveled with only one person (63.2%) and in some instances with two (15.0%). There were however a number of ecotourists who showed preferences of traveling with more than two people (see table 5.1).

5.2.8 Membership of an environmental group

The results revealed that 63.2% of the occasional ecotourists were not members of any particular group or society. At this stage a number of null hypothesis revealed the following significant relationships:

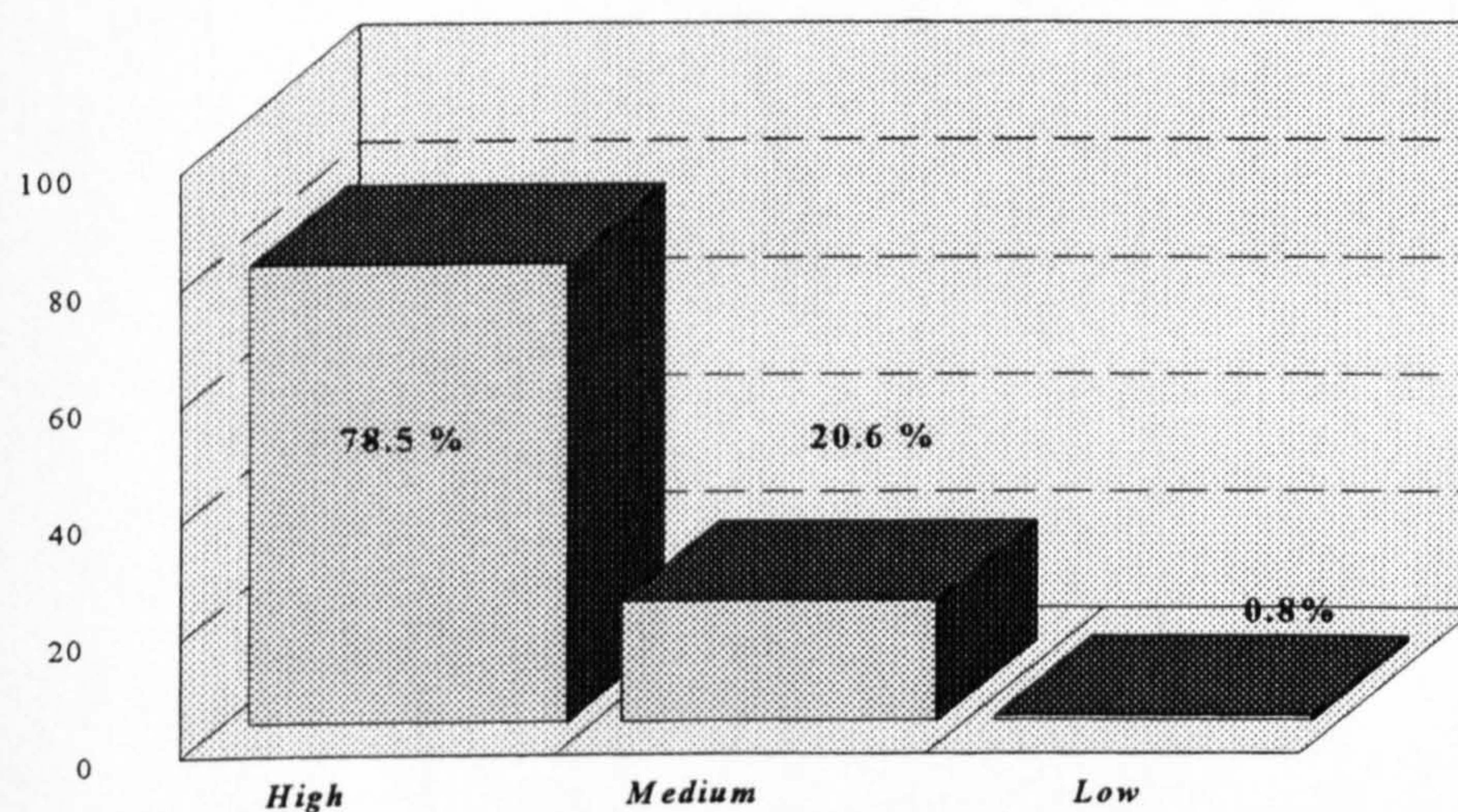
- With educational status ($\chi^2 = 7.30$): Forty nine percent (49.0%) of occasional ecotourists with a postgraduate qualification were members, as opposed to 38.6% with a degree, 22.2% with an HND/Diploma and 29.1% with a secondary education ($p < 0.05$). The *association* between these two variables was also significant at $p < 0.05$ ($\Phi = 0.17$);
- With marital status ($\chi^2 = 6.57$): Here, 44% of single occasional ecotourists were members as opposed to 27.8% of those who were married, and 31.8% of those in the divorced category ($p < 0.01$). In addition the *association* between them was also significant ($\Phi = 0.16$; $p < 0.01$); and
- With age ($\chi^2 = 4.88$): Reflecting the overall lack of membership of an environmental group or society, the age group with most members was that of the young occasional ecotourists [17-34]. In particular 42% were members, as opposed to 33.3% membership amongst middle-aged occasional ecotourists [35-54], and 21.4% membership amongst the older group [55+] ($p < 0.05$).

5.2.9 Levels of involvement

The levels of involvement were assessed based on the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) [see chapter 3, section 3.11]. The ten items of the PII were computed to find the different levels and were used as a main indicator of the level of involvement throughout the analysis (see section 5.12).

According to these scores, 78.5% of the occasional ecotourists were in the high involvement category ($n=194$), with the remaining 20.6 % allocated to the medium group ($n=51$). Only two occasional ecotourists were in the low involvement group which was therefore excluded from further analysis (see figure 5.1 and section 5.12).

Figure 5.1 *Levels of involvement*



At this stage, the only significant relationship for involvement was:

- With education ($\chi^2 = 7.03$): Here, 70.6% of high involved occasional ecotourists were educated to either degree or postgraduate levels as opposed to 74.5% of medium-involved occasional ecotourists who were educated either to secondary or degree levels ($p < 0.05$). In addition, the *association* with these two variables was significant ($\Phi = 0.16$; $p < 0.05$), *all demonstrating that high involvement occasional ecotourists had a higher educational background.*

5.3 MOTIVES OF AN OVERSEAS TRIP (QUESTION ONE, SECTION A)

Ten questions were asked, all of which aimed to identify the motivations behind an overseas ecotourism trip. The guidance used for statistical analysis was based on the reliability results. Taking into consideration that reliability values should be 0.7 or above the standardized item for the reliability results at this stage was $\alpha (a) = 0.52$. The reliability range varied from 0.42 to 0.54, an indication of the inability of these ten items to be subject to any further statistical analysis (i.e. factor, cluster, etc.). In particular, the following analysis of these statements was based on the frequencies scores, crosstabulations and the results of the regression technique.

Looking at the frequency analysis, mean scores varied with a minimum value of 2.50 and a maximum of 4.25 [average mean score of 3.65]. The *following presentation of the frequency scores is in descending order based on the mean scores* (see figure 5.2). Three questions exhibited means at the 'agree level' (4), five questions at the 'neutral level' (3) and the remaining two questions were at the 'disagree level' (2) [see table 5.2 and figure 5.2].

5.3.1 Mean scores at the agree level

Initially, respondents agreed on the importance of getting value for money from the holiday. This suggests that there was a general search for the need for value, illustrated by a 93.5% agreement (see table 5.2). With respect to the next favorable motives the emphasis was given to flexibility on the eco-holiday (a total agreement of 87.9%) and participation in outdoor recreational activities (a total agreement of 84.6%).

When the last motive was compared to the motives of value for money and flexibility, the overall disagreement was slightly higher (5.3%), although this result was not resilient enough to overshadow its importance (see table 5.2). Further, data that identifies motives attributable to ecotourism were revealed in the next five motives. Here, the mean contained a neutral answer (3), although two questions were closer to an agreement (4).

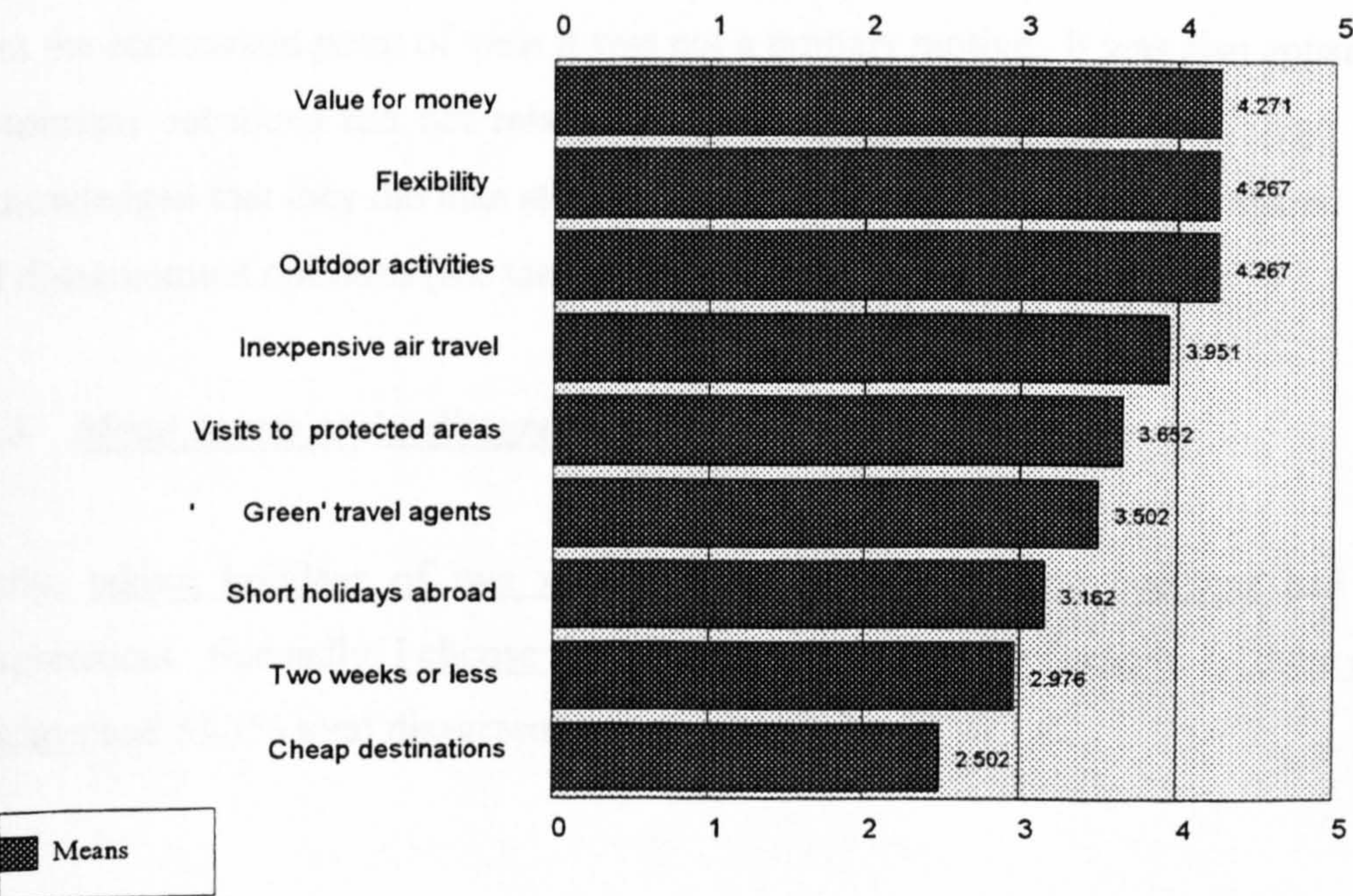
Table 5.2 Motives of an overseas trip

Question One	SD*	D*	N*	A*	SA*	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. Getting value for my holiday money	0.4	1.2	4.9	57.9	35.6	4.271	0.647
2. Flexibility on eco-holiday	---	1.2	10.9	47.8	40.1	4.267	0.69
3. Environmental sensitivity of travel agent	2.4	8.9	39.7	34	15	3.502	0.936
4. Take short holidays abroad	8.1	25.5	24.3	26.3	15.8	3.162	1.206
5. Take holidays of two weeks or less	11.3	32.4	16.2	27.5	12.6	2.976	1.249
6. Enjoy outdoor activities	0.8	4.5	10.1	36.4	48.2	4.267	0.875
7. Importance of inexpensive air tickets	3.2	6.5	19	34.4	36.8	3.951	1.054
8. Choose the destination because it is cheap	17	38.1	27.5	12.6	4.9	2.502	1.066
9. Go to a different place on each new holiday trip	1.2	8.5	16.2	38.5	35.6	3.988	0.986
10 Going to protected areas or national parks	0.8	9.3	32	39.7	18.2	3.652	0.911

Please note:

* SD: Strongly Disagree; D: Disagree; N: Neutral; A: Agree; SA: Strongly Agree

Figure 5.2 Mean values of motives of an overseas holiday



5.3.2 Mean scores at the neutral level

The pre-trip choices of occasional ecotourists included a preference for visiting a different place on each holiday trip. The total agreement with the latter statement was demonstrated by 74.1% of the sample (see table 5.2). The tendency to travel to a different resort was perhaps influenced by the price of the holiday. This may hold true if it was related to inexpensive air travel tickets, which captured 71.2% of total agreement (see table 5.2).

In addition, activities within the destination included visits to protected areas or national parks. Although the results typify an agreement of 57.9%, this finding illustrated that such visits to national parks which the literature advocates as a primary factor (see chapter 2, section 2.4) in this case had not been totally expressed. This could be because occasional ecotourists were considering the selection procedures of an overseas vacation, hence they pinpointed factors in the context of an affordable and pleasant vacation. In such a context visits to protected areas came as a secondary consideration, remaining an important factor but not a primary determinant.

The same holds true with the statement regarding the environmental sensitivity of the travel agent. Here, almost a quarter of the sample rated the 'neural' opinion and 49% shared a form of agreement. This indicates that they considered environmental practices such as codes of conduct and 'green' information provided to them. Whilst, such an agreement encourages the green practices of the tourism industry, it is suffice to say that from the ecotourism point of view it was not a primary motive. It was also apparent that ecotourism vacations did not relate to any short break holidays. Although 42.1 % acknowledged that they did take short eco-holiday breaks, the remaining shared neutral and disagreement opinions (see table 5.2).

5.3.3 Mean scores at the disagreement level

Firstly, taking holidays of two weeks or less when traveling overseas had 43.7% disagreement. Secondly, I choose the destination because it is cheap to be there on eco-holidays had 55.1% total disagreement (see table 5.2).

With regards to these statements, the occasional ecotourists, who were young with lower incomes, were discouraged by cheap destinations and short vacations. Only a portion of ecotourism customers were likely to select their holidays based on these factors. Rather than relying on such incentives to partake in eco-holidays abroad, the majority of occasional ecotourists initial motivations were to get value for money, flexibility during their holiday and partake in outdoor recreational activities. This further suggested that during their pre-trip evaluations the emphasis was less on the traditional incentive methods used by travel companies to attract customers (i.e. cheap destinations), and more on factors related to obtaining an overall affordable eco-holiday (i.e. value for money).

5.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVES OF AN OVERSEAS TRIP AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between motives of an overseas trip and the sociodemographic variables, a set of null hypothesis were tested. Selecting age, education, income, gender and level of involvement as independent variables the aim at this stage was to manifest the different preferences according to these variables. Overall the results indicated that age followed by the levels of involvement were the most influential variables (see appendix 8a).

5.5 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF MOTIVES FOR OVERSEAS TRAVEL AND INVOLVEMENT

Regression analysis was employed to measure the relationship between involvement and overseas motives. In all cases, the two examined levels of involvement (medium and high) were selected as dependent variables in an attempt to identify the variance among the independent variables (motives of an overseas trip). In the first instance high involvement was the dependent variable in which the results supported the notion that most of the existing variance in high involvement was explained by *visits to national parks and protected areas* ($p < 0.00005$) [see table 5.3].

There were three main motives related to high involvement (F ratio = 21,20; $p < 0.00005$). In particular, 20.8% of the high involvement variance was explained by the following sequence (R Square= 0.2088):

- national parks and protected areas (15.4%);
- consideration of environmental sensitivity of travel agents (3.1%); and
- getting value for money from an eco-holiday (2.3%).

On examining the unstandard regression coefficient (B), it suggested that for every increment of visits to national parks and protected areas, high involvement increased by 0.14. The same holds true for the environmental sensitivity of travel agents. Here, for every request of codes or guides, high involvement increased by 0.08. Value for money, on the other hand, had the lowest impact on high involvement which was negative, indicating that more value for money engenders less high involvement ($B = -0.09$). The standard regression coefficients (Beta) confirmed the positive impact of visits to national parks and protected areas in addition to the environmental sensitivity of travel agents, and the negative impact was getting value for money (see table 5.3). In addition, this highlighted that visits to environmental areas were the highest contributor and element of high involvement.

Table 5.3 Regression analysis for levels of involvement and motives for overseas travel

Questions	High involvement		Medium involvement	
	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Going to protected areas or national parks	0.3153	$p < 0.00005$	-0.3153	$p < 0.00005$
Environmental sensitivity of travel agent	0.2019	$p < 0.001$	-0.2019	$p < 0.001$
Getting value for my holiday money	-0.1541	$p < 0.005$	0.1541	$p < 0.005$

In medium involvement analysis the same sequence of variables was selected. The F-ratio was 21,20 ($p < 0.00005$) and R Square was 0.208, in that 20.8% of the variance in medium involvement was explained by three variables. In contrast however, the impact of visits to national parks and protected areas and the need for environmentally sensitive

travel agents was negative. In particular the unstandard regression coefficient (B) suggested that for every increment of national parks and protected areas, medium involvement decreased by -0.14. A decrease was also expressed by the search for environmentally sensitive travel agents (-0.08). The main contributor to medium involvement was getting value for money, in that for every increment of this motive medium involvement increased by 0.09. On the other hand, Betas values confirmed the negative contribution of the first two motives, and the positive impact of getting value for money (see table 5.3).

In sum, high involvement was influenced by visits to national parks and protected areas, and the search for environmental guidelines from travel agents. Medium involvement was only affected in a positive way by getting value for money, rather than any environmentally-flavored motives.

5.5.1 Regression analysis of motives for overseas travel, involvement and education

An additional regression analysis was performed by choosing education as an independent variable. The reason behind the inclusion of education was that it was the only socio-demographic variable which had a relationship with the levels of involvement (see section 5.2.9). At this stage, the procedure of regression in terms of the selection of a dependent variable was more or less the same. The independent variable selection included only the three previous motives, as well as education. For the high involvement group, 22.8% of the total variance was explained by the following four variables (R Square= 0.228):

- visits to national parks and protected areas (15.4%);
- consideration of environmental sensitivity of travel agents (3.1%);
- getting value from eco-holidays (2.3%); and
- education (2%).

In comparing these results with those of the last regression analysis, all the motives carried a similar R-Square. Education did not seem to be the primary influence on high involvement but contributed to it by producing a positive impact. It follows that for every increment in education high involvement increased by 0.05. Similarly with the last

regression analysis, obtaining value for money had a negative impact in that high involvement decreased by 0.09. The same observations were also confirmed with the Betas values illustrating that the level of education contributed to high involvement, subsequent to visits to national parks/protected areas and the environmental sensitivity of travel agencies (see table 5.4).

Table 5.4 Regression analysis for levels of involvement / overseas motives and education

Questions	High involvement		Medium involvement	
	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Going to protected areas or national parks	0.3036	p<0.00005	-0.3036	p<0.00005
Environmental sensitivity of travel agent	0.2050	p<0.0005	-0.2050	p<0.0005
Getting value for my holiday money	-0.1520	p<0.005	0.1520	p<0.005
Education	0.1414	p<0.05	-0.1414	p<0.05

For medium involvement, 22.8% of the total variance was illustrated by the examined four variables (R Square= 0.228). The only positive impact was that of getting value for money, in that for every increment of it, medium involvement increased by 0.09. All the other motives and education had a negative impact on medium involvement, with their Betas values confirming such results (see table 5.4). Overall, *high involvement was related to environmentally orientated motives and the educational background of occasional ecotourists. Medium involvement was strongly limited to the motive of getting value for money.*

5.6 ELEMENTS OF AN ECOTOURISM HOLIDAY (QUESTION TWO, SECTION A)

The questions asked in this section related to the different elements (attributes and consequences) of ecotourism holidays. These elements were extracted from a number of studies and questioned in an attempt to identify the most agreeable items. In the first instance, the reliability results revealed a score of $\alpha = 0.85$, indicating not only a very high score but that the examined items could be subject to further statistical analysis. In particular, the following analysis of these statements was based on frequency scores, crosstabulations, factor analysis, regression analysis and cluster analysis.

Looking at the frequency analysis, the overall mean score of 3.75 [with a minimum value of 3.03 and a maximum value of 4.21] revealed an above neutral opinion in all the responses. *The following presentation of the frequency scores is in descending order based on the mean scores* (see figure 5.3). There were four questions where the means exhibited scores at the agree level (4) with the remaining seventeen questions demonstrating a neutral opinion (3) [see table 5.5 and figure 5.3].

5.6.1 Mean scores at the agree level

The first element considered was experiencing new and different lifestyles (total agreement of 85.5%). Such experiences were only denied by 2% of the ecotourism market suggesting that this element was directly related to ecotourism holidays. Next, emphasis was given to the educational elements of ecotourism. In particular, the second most popular element was exploration of an area and to be educated (total agreement of 85.4%). This was also demonstrated in the next element which was the opportunity to increase one's knowledge displaying 83.8% total agreement.

Finally, interest in the social interaction component was illustrated by meeting new and different people (total agreement of 79.4%). In short, the most popular ecotourism elements showed eco-holidays to be primarily associated with *social and educational experiences* (see table 5.5 and figure 5.3).

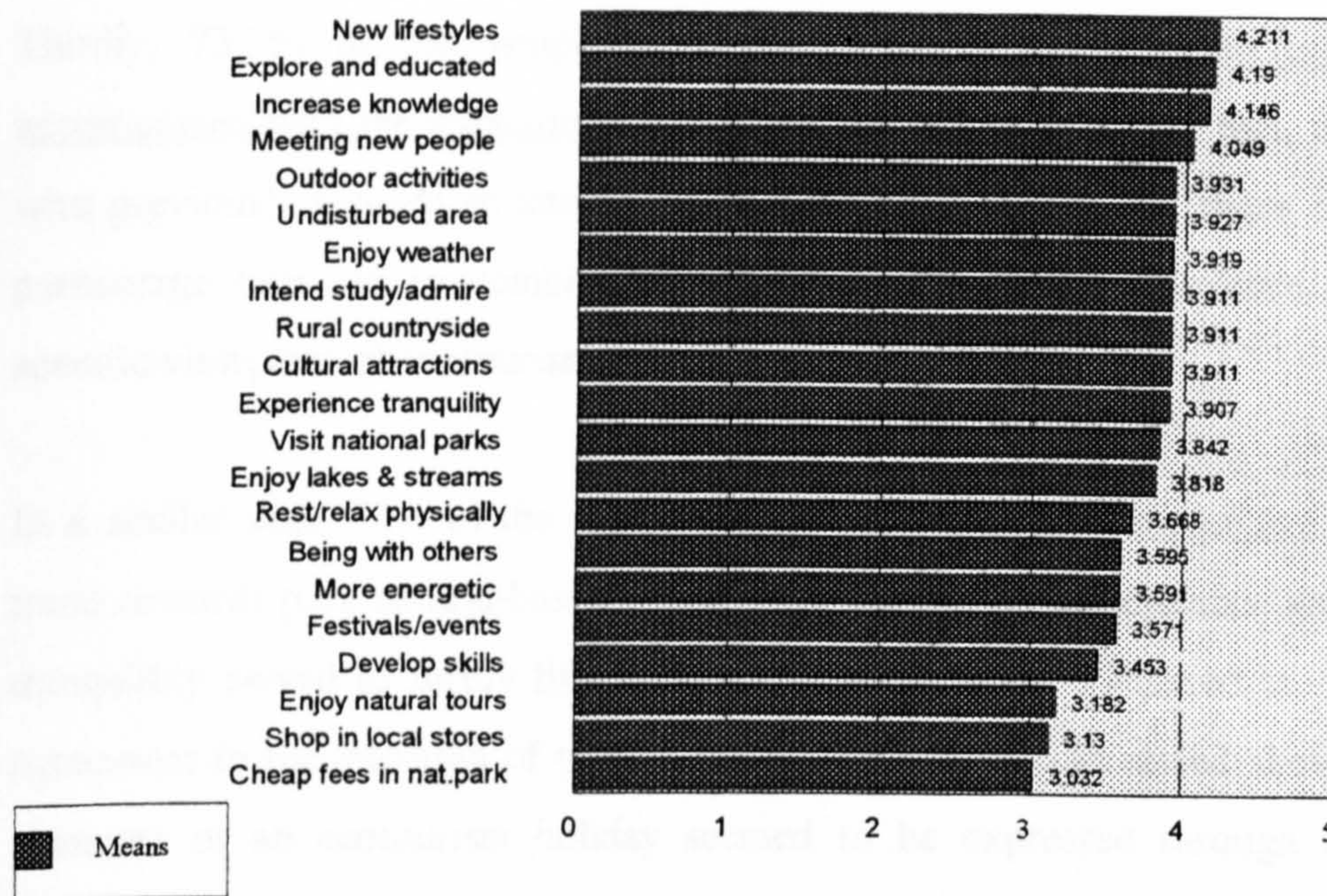
Table 5.5 Elements considered for an ecotourism holiday

Question Two	SD*	D*	N*	A*	SA*	Mean	Standard Deviation
a)Meeting new and different people	---	4.5	16.2	49.4	30.0	4.049	0.800
b)Intend to study and admire an undisturbed area	0.8	4.9	21.1	49.0	24.3	3.911	0.846
c)Interesting rural countryside	1.2	4.9	19.8	49.8	24.3	3.911	0.860
d)To experience the tranquillity	1.6	4.5	21.9	45.7	26.3	3.907	0.895
e)To visit cultural attractions	0.4	4.5	21.9	50.2	23.1	3.911	0.812
f)Experiencing new and different lifestyles	---	2.0	12.6	47.8	37.7	4.211	0.735
g)To explore the area and be educated	0.4	0.8	13.4	50.2	35.2	4.190	0.721
h)To become more energetic	3.6	12.1	26.7	36.4	21.1	3.591	1.062
i)To enjoy the lakes and streams	---	5.3	27.1	48.2	19.4	3.818	0.803
j)To be with others who enjoy the same	3.2	10.1	27.9	41.3	17.4	3.595	0.995
k)To go to local festivals and events	1.6	9.7	34.0	39.3	15.4	3.571	0.921
l)To enjoy the weather	0.8	4.5	21.9	47.8	25.1	3.919	0.847
m)Outdoor recreation activities	1.2	5.7	20.2	44.5	28.3	3.931	0.906
n)To visit the national parks	---	3.6	26.7	51.4	18.2	3.842	0.757
o)To rest and relax physically	2.4	10.9	27.1	36.4	23.1	3.668	1.026
p)To develop my skills and abilities	1.6	15.8	34.8	31.2	16.6	3.453	0.998
q)Inexpensive entrance fees to national parks	7.7	19.8	43.3	19.8	9.3	3.032	1.039
r)To be in an undisturbed natural area	1.6	2.4	19.8	53.8	22.3	3.927	0.813
s)To shop in the local stores	6.5	22.7	33.2	26.7	10.9	3.130	1.085
t) To enjoy the guided tours in the natural areas	7.3	15.0	38.1	31.6	8.1	3.182	1.026
u)Opportunities to increase one's knowledge	0.4	0.8	15.0	51.4	32.4	4.146	0.723

Please note:

* SD: Strongly Disagree; D: Disagree; N: Neutral; A: Agree; SA: Strongly Agree

Figure 5.3 Mean values of elements considered for an ecotourism holiday



5.6.2 Mean scores at the neutral level

The preceding analysis indicated thirteen elements with mean scores above 3.50 and four elements with scores below that. Implicit in many discussions of ecotourism is the claim that consumers actually demand outdoor activities as part of the ecotourism package (see chapter 2). In this study it appeared to capture an agreement of 72.8% (see table 5.5).

Further, occasional ecotourists revealed that they would like to be in undisturbed natural areas. As one would expect, their presence in such a setting represents the core element of their experience, confirmed also by 76.1% of this sample (see table 5.5). To varying degrees, evidence suggested that ecotourism holidays incorporated both adventure and natural elements, balancing on a pivot between partaking in outdoor activities and being in an undisturbed natural environment. Next, occasional ecotourists appeared to be attracted by the weather conditions. Overall, 72.9% agreed, underlining the importance

of this element, even with eco-tourism holidays. An additional indication of factors influencing ecotourism demand was illustrated by the next three elements (see table 5.5). Firstly, 74.1% of the sample showed an overall agreement to visiting rural countryside's. Secondly, 73.3% revealed agreeable opinions to visits to cultural attractions. Thirdly, 73.3% of the sample were supportive of being in an undisturbed area accompanied with the intention to study and admire the place. In fact, from the 76.1% who previously showed an interest to be in an undisturbed area, more or less an equal percentage intended to combine this with an educational experience, detailing their specific viewpoint of ecotourism.

In a similar vein, 72% of the sample wanted to experience tranquillity. There was a trend towards pure natural-based experiences among the respondents, and experiencing tranquillity served to fortify this trend. This can also be compared to 69.5% overall agreement to the intention of visiting the national parks. As stated above, the primary elements of an ecotourism holiday seemed to be expressed through the pursuit of experiences such as learning about nature and social interaction, and this was further reinforced by visits to national parks. More interest was revealed amongst specific elements of natural-based experiences, that of enjoying lakes and streams. Here, 67.6% intended to visit such aspects of the natural landscapes illustrating a range of experiences directly related to nature. This was not surprising as a further 59.5% overall agreed that ecotourism holidays were associated with attempts to rest and relax physically. It appeared that occasional ecotourists were more interested in individualistic experiences related to natural-orientated attributes and consequences, and were less concerned about attributes and consequences of the social component of ecotourism, such as (see table 5.5):

- being with others who enjoy the same interests (57.8% overall agreed);
- become more energetic (57.5% overall agreed);
- going to festivals and events (54.7% overall agreed);
- developing their skills and abilities (47.8% overall agreed); and
- enjoyment of the guided tours in the natural area (39.7% overall agreed).

Occasional ecotourists were less likely to shop in local stores at the destination (neutral opinion and total disagreement of 62.4%). Although they seemed to be less likely to spend money at the enterprises in the destinations, this did not necessarily mean that they were price conscious. This was reinforced, from their responses to inexpensive entrance fees to national parks, where 70.8% of the ecotourists revealed neutral and disagreement opinions (see table 5.5).

In sum, none of the ecotourism educational-orientated elements were not revealed as the primary motivational elements. It appears that occasional ecotourists gave more emphasis to social experiences which included both the lifestyles and the people. Consequently, such interactions led to a natural-based experience with strong social and educational components.

5.7 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELEMENTS OF AN ECOTOURISM HOLIDAY AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between the ecotourism elements (dependent variables), and selected sociodemographics (age, education, income, gender and involvement) a number of hypothesis were tested based on the same computations which were recorded for the motives of an overseas trip. The most influential variables on the ecotourism elements related to the income of occasional ecotourists, followed by the levels of involvement, age or gender and education. *It is quite interesting to note that all the relationships with the levels of involvement only related to the natural-orientated elements*, suggesting the importance of involvement in the selection of the natural based aspects of ecotourism (see appendix 8b).

5.8 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE ELEMENTS OF ECOTOURISM HOLIDAYS

Principal component analysis using Varimax rotation was conducted on the set of 21 elements of ecotourism holidays in order to identify the underlying data structure and to test the appropriateness of these elements. In the first instance two tests were performed in order to check the sampling adequacy and sphericity (see chapter 4 and section 4.13.4):

- The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test outlines the sampling adequacy where results range from zero to one, with values above 0.6 required for factor analysis. In particular values at: 0.6 range are 'mediocre'; 0.7 are middling; 0.8 are 'meritorious'; and above 0.9 are 'marvelous'. The results of the test on the 'ecotourism' data was at **KMO= 0.84**, suggesting that both the number of variables and the sample size was suitable for factor analysis.
- The Barletts' Test for Sphericity (BTS) was performed. This test outlines a statistic and a probability, in which the former should illustrate a large value and the latter should contain a low value. The Bartlett test result in this case indicated a value of **BTS= 1824, 1884, p=0.00000**, suggesting the suitability of the current sample.

Next in selecting the factors, loadings at above ± 0.30 are considered moderate, ± 0.40 are considered important, and at above ± 0.50 are of particular significance (see chapter 4 and section 4.13.4). Here, the loading selected was at above ± 0.45 , which is situated at the importance level. The majority of the scores were above 0.50, with the exception of 'cheap fees to national parks'. This suggests that this element was not so appealing if compared with all the elements of ecotourism holidays. Moreover, in all cases the factor correlation matrix illustrated that the interaction between the factors is zero, and the independence of the factors was confirmed (see table 5.6). The results of the Varimax rotated factor analysis outlined five factors explaining 60.7% of the total variance, with overall reliability scores at significant levels (see table 5.7):

- Factor 1, illustrated an eigenvalue of 5.59, 26.7 % of the variance and an overall reliability of 0.79;

- Factor 2, illustrated an eigenvalue of 2,34, 11.1% of the variance and an overall reliability of 0.77;
- Factor 3, illustrated an eigenvalue 1.92, 9.2% of variance and reliability of 0.72;
- Factor 4, illustrated an eigenvalue of 1.84, 8.8% of variance and reliability of 0.69;
- Factor 5, illustrated an eigenvalue of 1.03, 4.9% of variance and reliability of 0.60.

Table 5.6 Factor correlation matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Factor 1	1,00000				
Factor 2	,00000	1,00000			
Factor 3	,00000	,00000	1,00000		
Factor 4	,00000	,00000	,00000	1,00000	
Factor 5	,00000	,00000	,00000	,00000	1,00000

Table 5.7 Factor loading matrix for the elements considered for an ecotourism holiday

Elements*	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Rural countryside	0.73417	0.24525	0.17061	0.01982	-0.14296
Lakes/ streams	0.72871	0.12231	0.05008	0.06130	0.12851
National parks	0.70876	-0.04958	0.13519	-0.03384	0.21782
Undisturbed area	0.66012	-0.07133	0.36442	0.14795	-0.06951
Tranquillity	0.61416	0.25520	0.06655	0.27346	-0.27796
Tour guides in natural areas	0.50777	0.14072	0.08209	0.42111	0.28095
Cultural attractions	0.14200	0.83122	0.02775	0.16243	-0.06169
New lifestyles	0.07536	0.81978	0.23082	0.01002	0.11872
Festivals/events	0.08883	0.56818	0.08729	0.24695	0.43248
Explore area be educated	0.34641	0.52496	0.42674	-0.13561	-0.00296
Intent study/admire	0.37563	0.06380	0.73933	-0.09061	-0.01973
Increase knowledge	0.21382	0.27282	0.68015	0.02846	0.06305
Develop skills/abilities	0.09579	0.00281	0.67304	0.10515	0.40513
Meeting new people	0.00632	0.47967	0.53192	0.12735	0.10330
Enjoy weather	-0.03544	-0.03880	0.13994	0.79752	0.05221
Rest/relax physically	0.12263	0.05421	-0.11181	0.78696	0.02158
Shop in local stores	0.11768	0.40934	-0.06448	0.58472	0.10293
Cheap fees national parks	0.25859	0.13521	0.22409	0.45850	0.38032
Energetic	-0.07378	0.20700	-0.19924	0.04918	0.74620
Outdoor activities	0.09466	-0.22627	0.21735	0.07819	0.68882
Being with others	0.00281	0.18821	0.28863	0.07594	0.61898
Variance explained	26.7%	11.1%	9.2%	8.8%	4.9%
Alpha (a)	0.79	0.77	0.72	0.69	0.60

* Factor 1: c, i, n, r, d, t; Factor 2: e, f, k, g; Factor 3: b, u, p, a; Factor 4: l, o, s, q; Factor 5: h, m, j.

5.8.1 Factor scores of ecotourism holidays

Factor 1 detailed the *natural attraction components* (see table 5.7). The natural-based component of ecotourism detailed the different elements considered for such an experience, suggesting that due to an overriding interest in rural areas all the natural attraction elements were formed in that way. Partially, this factor confirmed earlier indications of the significance attached to these elements, in particular of 'being in an undisturbed' area, suggesting that there was a basic understanding of the setting in which ecotourism operates.

Factor 2 detailed the *cultural/social component with an educational orientation* (see table 5.7). It points out that all the elements were positive, detailing that cultural and social interests gave rise to participation in cultural activities with an attempt to be educated. It further illustrates that not only are the educational elements met (confirming the viewpoint that ecotourism is a learning process), but the exploration of the area appeared because of the socio-cultural interest of occasional ecotourists.

Factor 3 detailed the *educational component* (see table 5.7). This factor signified the mainstream ecotourism product which was the strong educational component of ecotourism arising from presence in an undisturbed natural areas. Occasional ecotourists who considered this component aimed to develop their skills and abilities in terms of an educational experience, and their social interaction also seemed to be educationally orientated.

Factor 4 detailed the *relaxation component* (see table 5.7). Clearly, although ecotourism was a natural/educational/socio-cultural product, this did not necessarily imply that there were not elements of a typical holiday which were considered. In this case, it was unrealistic to expect occasional ecotourists not to consider the climatic motivations, indeed it was important to note that there was a sub-group of ecotourists who did consider such domains. Another issue to note was that the search for '*cheap fees in national parks*' was considered in the relaxation time, rather than in any other components of the ecotourism product, indirectly confirming their occasional presence in the natural settings.

Factor 5 detailed the *outdoor component* (see table 5.7). This indicated that there was an element in ecotourism characterised by outdoor activities, which also contained a

social flavor. By considering that the concept of ecotourism had been debated on the platform of its similarities with adventure tourism (see chapter 2, section 2.3), at least on this point, it was the view of this research that 'outdoors' was a distinct tourism product, although it remained a subset of the ecotourism concept. In comparing the factors in most of the cases, there was a clear split between them. There were, however, a number of elements with relatively strong loadings with a number of other factors, outside their group (see appendix 8b).

In short, the results suggested that *as a concept ecotourism seemed to contain a multiple base of: natural attractions, educational, cultural, social, relaxation and outdoors*. The extent to which this sample had utilized more than one of the elements in any particular involvement group will be seen in the regression analysis. The cluster analysis will also reveal how the elements were utilised in the segments.

5.9 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF FACTOR SCORES AND INVOLVEMENT

In selecting levels of involvement (high and medium) as dependent variables and the five factors as independent, linear regression analysis was performed to measure the extent to which any factors are related with certain levels of involvement. Here, there were three factors in the equation of regression, and two factors failed to be connected (F ratio= 32,05; $p < 0.0001$). In particular, 28.5% of the variance in high involvement was explained by the following sequence (R square= 0.28525):

- Factor 1: natural attraction component (16.2%);
- Factor 3: educational component (8.4%); and
- Factor 4: relaxation component (3.9%).

The use of the unstandard regression coefficients (B) illustrated that for every increment in the natural attraction component, high involvement increased by 0.16 (B=0.163905). Similarly, for every increment in educational elements, high involvement increased by 0.11 (B=0.117598). On the other hand for every increase of the relaxation component, high involvement demonstrated a decrease of 0.07 (B= -0.079802).

Looking at the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), the positive contribution of the natural attraction and educational elements was confirmed, together with the

negative impact on high-involved occasional ecotourists of the relaxation component (see table 5.8). It seemed that high-involved occasional ecotourists were extremely conscious of the natural-orientated base of ecotourism, which included both the attractions ($p < 0.0001$) and education ($p < 0.0001$). The relaxation component reduced high involvement, suggesting that this component was not particularly attractive to occasional ecotourists.

For the medium involvement occasional ecotourists, the reverse scenario was outlined. The F-ratio was 32,05 ($p < 0.0001$) and R square was 0.28525, in that 28.5% of the variance in medium involvement was explained by the last mentioned three variables (Factor 1, 3, 4). However, the impact of the natural attraction component was negative, in that it revealed a decrease on medium involvement by 0.16 ($B = -0.163905$), as did the educational component ($B = -0.117598$). For the medium-involved subjects, the major contributor was the relaxation component of ecotourism which highlighted that with every increment of relaxation items, medium involvement increased by 0.07 ($B = 0.079802$). It would appear then that Beta values utilized the negative impact of the first two factors and the positive contribution of the relaxation components ($p < 0.0005$). The extent to which medium-involved occasional ecotourists were not keen on the natural component of ecotourism remains to be discovered in the cluster analysis.

On the other hand, the failure of the other two factors (Factor 2: cultural/social and Factor 5: outdoor) to show any connection with either high and medium involvement, illustrated that when all the factors were brought into the equation, only three factors gave rise to any impact (positive or negative), hence illustrating their importance to involvement (see table 5.8). Further, when a number of sociodemographics were considered (age, education, income and gender), they failed to appear to have an impact on involvement. Therefore it seemed that when certain groups of core elements of ecotourism were tested, certain sociodemographics did not really influence involvement.

Table 5.8 Regression analysis for levels of involvement and elements of ecotourism

Factors	High involvement		Medium involvement	
	Betas	Significance	Betas	Significance
Factor 1: Natural attractions component	0.400778	p<0.0001	-0.400778	p<0.0001
Factor 3: Educational component	0.289437	p<0.0001	-0.289437	p<0.0001
Factor 4: Relaxation component	-0.196893	p<0.0005	0.196893	p<0.0005

In sum, the results differentiated high involvement subjects from medium ones. High involvement was specifically enhanced with experiences in conjunction with the core base of the ecotourism product experience process, and medium involvement was concerned with the enhanced and augmented components of the ecotourism experience process.

5.10 CLUSTER ANALYSIS OF THE ELEMENTS OF ECOTOURISM HOLIDAYS

Cluster analysis was used in order to group respondents according to their similarities, based on certain selection criterion. In particular, a quick cluster or K- means clustering procedure was utilized which is a non-hierarchical method of efficiently grouping a large number of cases into a requested number of groups (see chapter 4 and section 4.13.5).

Initially, three and five cluster solutions were determined and then dropped as they did not contain a comparable amount of cases and the distance between the clusters was too high. Hence, a four cluster solution was performed based on the twenty-one elements of the ecotourism holiday (see table 5.5), rather than on the five factor scores. The decision was made to include all the elements rather than the factors, due to the number of elements that loaded relatively highly on more than one factor and to provide a clearer view of the complete 'occasional ecotourists profile' of resulting segments. The outcome was the creation of four clusters or segments of occasional ecotourists (see table 5.9). In order to pinpoint the differences in data composition among the clusters initially a one-way Anova was considered, followed by cluster descriptions and

crosstabulations of the clusters with the selected sociodemographic variables (age, education, income, gender and levels of involvement) (see appendix 8c).

Table 5.9 Ecotourism clusters comparison of mean scores

<i>Elements</i>	<i>Cluster 1</i>	<i>Cluster 2</i>	<i>Cluster 3</i>	<i>Cluster 4</i>
Meeting new people	3.61	4.24	3.77	4.70
Intend to study and admire an undisturbed area	4.18	3.87	3.39	4.62
Rural countryside	4.12	3.96	3.27	4.75
Tranquillity	4.08	3.93	3.32	4.72
Cultural attractions	3.51	4.13	3.59	4.55
New and different lifestyles	3.67	4.42	4.00	4.80
Explore the area and be educated	4.24	4.30	3.71	4.80
Energetic	2.61	3.48	3.98	4.25
Lakes and streams	3.87	3.90	3.28	4.57
Being with others who enjoy the same	2.85	3.65	3.56	4.42
Festivals and events	2.67	4.02	3.27	4.30
Enjoy the weather	3.55	4.08	3.71	4.42
Outdoor recreation activities	3.61	3.90	3.85	4.52
Visit the national parks	3.95	3.89	3.36	4.50
To rest and relax physically	3.08	3.95	3.43	4.25
Develop skills / abilities	3.24	3.65	2.98	4.17
Cheap fees to national parks	2.40	3.26	2.63	4.07
Being in an undisturbed natural area	4.14	4.03	3.36	4.50
To shop in the local stores	2.14	3.46	2.93	4.02
Tour guides in the natural area	2.75	3.45	2.59	4.27
Increase one's knowledge	4.14	4.31	3.65	4.72
<i>Number of respondents</i>	<i>n= 49</i>	<i>n=82</i>	<i>n=76</i>	<i>n=40</i>
<i>Percentage of total sample</i>	<i>19.9%</i>	<i>33.2%</i>	<i>30.7%</i>	<i>16.2%</i>

5.10.1 Clusters of ecotourism holidays

Based on the pattern of mean importance ratings, cluster 1 was labeled as *natural-based seekers* (see table 5.9). It represented only a quarter of the current sample, outlining scores of above the agree level (4), all of which were natural-orientated attributes and consequences. For example, this cluster was dominated by the 'exploration of the area and be educated', followed by the 'intention to study and admire an undisturbed area', 'being in an undisturbed natural area', and 'opportunities to increase one's knowledge'. This segment outlined the pure natural-based experiences and explained its importance in terms of its natural educational experiences. It was a 'hard group' of occasional ecotourists devoted only to the natural component of the concept.

Cluster 2 represented the largest segment of the current sample which was labeled as *social/natural/educational seekers* (see table 5.9). This group of occasional ecotourists focused primarily on social interactions, followed by natural and cultural experiences. It was dominated by 'new and different lifestyles', 'opportunities to increase one's knowledge', 'to explore the area and to be educated', 'to meet new and different people', and 'to visit cultural attractions'. Individuals in cluster 2 sought different experiences which were educationally orientated. They addressed different roles, during their trip which did not include self-enhancing experiences i.e. 'being with others who enjoy the same', 'develop skills and abilities', instead they focused on experiences containing multidimensional social-natural-educational interactions. Finally, they participated in 'outdoor activities' as an attempt to experience another role.

Cluster 3 represented the second largest segment, which was labeled as *social/outdoor seekers* (see table 5.9). This group of travelers demonstrated their particular interests only in experiences combining social and outdoor interactions. For example, they highly rated 'experiences of new and different lifestyles', 'being more energetic', 'participating in outdoor recreational activities', and 'meeting new and different people'. Their objective was to become more energetic, illustrating not just their endorsement and outdoor interactions, but their educational and explorational needs in an attempt to increase their overall knowledge. Overall, their quest for ecotourism was outdoor-orientated, and their learning process was socially directed.

Finally cluster 4 represented the *imaginative seekers* (see table 5.9). Ecotourists in this group had the highest ratings on all elements, with 'exploration of an area and be educated', 'experience new and different lifestyles', 'experience rural countryside' and 'experience the tranquillity', the driving forces of their experiences.

5.11 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CLUSTERS OF OCCASIONAL ECOTOURISTS AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between the four clusters and selected socio-demographics (age, education, income, gender, involvement and marital status), a number of hypotheses were tested based on non-difference between the socio-demographics and the clusters. The most influential variable over the clusters was related to the degree of involvement of occasional ecotourists (see tables 5.10 a, b, c, d, e). It is interesting to note that no relationship was found between the educational background of occasional ecotourists and the segments. It seems all the occasional ecotourists despite their educational status took part in each of the clusters.

The most pronounced differences between the clusters concerned the rejection of the null hypothesis between the clusters and the levels of involvement ($\chi^2=36.44$) [see table 5.10a]. The results revealed that the *medium involvement group of occasional ecotourists were more concerned with the social-outdoor orientation of ecotourism rather than a natural-based experience, combined with a social, cultural and educational flavor. In turn, high-involved occasional ecotourists monopolized most of the clusters, although it seemed that they were less concerned with the social outdoor interaction* ($p<0.00001$).

Table 5. 10a Crosstabulation of clusters and level of involvement

Clusters	Medium involvement	High involvement	Row Total
1 <i>Natural- based seekers</i>	5 9.8%	44 22.7%	49 20%
2 <i>Social/natural/ educational seekers</i>	11 21.6%	70 36.1%	81 33.1%
3 <i>Social/outdoor seekers</i>	33 64.7%	42 21.6%	75 30.6%
4 <i>Imaginative seekers</i>	2 3.9%	38 19.6%	40 16.3%
Column Total	51 20.8%	194 79.2%	245* 100%

* Two missing observations of low involved occasional ecotourists in clusters 2, 3.

The next variable considered was the relationship between the clusters and the age of the occasional ecotourists ($\chi^2=26.39$) [see table 5.10b]. In most of the clusters, the young group of occasional ecotourists were the pioneering group reflecting the overall sample distribution. In particular, *the majority of the imaginative seekers were young occasional ecotourists, with the other age categories sharing a minor percentage* ($p<0.0005$). *On the other hand, the majority of the natural-based seekers were middle aged with fewer young and older occasional ecotourists, and the majority of social/natural/educational and social outdoor seekers comprised of both young and middle aged occasional ecotourists* ($p<0.0005$).

Table 5.10b Crosstabulation of clusters and age of occasional ecotourists

Clusters	Young [17-34 years]	Middle [35-54 years]	Older [55+ years]	Row Total
1 Natural-based seekers	14 10.1%	24 29.6%	11 39.3%	49 19.8%
2 Social/natural/ educational seekers	48 34.8%	27 33.3%	7 25%	82 33.2%
3 Social/outdoor seekers	50 36.2%	23 28.4%	3 10.7%	76 30.8%
4 Imaginative seekers	26 18.8%	7 8.6%	7 25%	40 16.2%
Column Total	138 55.9%	81 8.6%	28 11.3%	247 100%

The next hypothesis that no difference existed between the clusters and the income of occasional ecotourists was rejected ($\chi^2=23.79$) [see table 5.10c]. Overall the evidence suggested that *the majority of the natural-based seekers had higher incomes and the greatest share of the social/natural/educational seekers had low and middle range incomes. The majority of the social outdoor seekers had low and high range incomes and the imaginative seekers had only low and mid range incomes* ($p<0.001$).

Table 5.10c Crosstabulation of clusters and income of occasional ecotourists

Clusters	Low range [Less than 10,000-15,000]	Mid range [15,000-25,000]	High range [25,000+]	Row Total
1 Natural-based seekers	14 12.6%	13 18.6%	22 33.3%	49 19.8%
2 Social/natural/ educational seekers	44 39.6%	20 28.6%	18 27.3%	82 33.2%
3 Social/outdoor seekers	33 29.7%	19 27.1%	24 36.4%	76 30.8%
4 Imaginative seekers	20 18%	18 25.7%	2 3 %	40 16.2%
Column Total	111 44.9%	70 28.3%	66 26.7%	247 100%

The next hypothesis that no difference existed between the clusters and the marital status of occasional ecotourists was rejected ($\chi^2=18.54$) [see table 5.10d]. Overall the evidence suggested that *the majority of the natural-based seekers were married/partners, the largest share of the social/natural/educational seekers were single, the majority of the social outdoor seekers were single and the imaginative seekers tended to be single and married* ($p<0.001$).

Table 5.10d Crosstabulation of clusters and marital status of occasional ecotourists

Clusters	Single	Married/partners	Widowed/divorced/separated	Row Total
1 <i>Natural-based seekers</i>	16 32.7%	29 59.2%	4 8.2%	49 19.8%
2 <i>Social/natural/educational seekers</i>	46 56.1%	28 34.1%	8 9.8%	82 33.2%
3 <i>Social/outdoor seekers</i>	52 68.4%	22 28.9%	2 2.6%	76 30.8%
4 <i>Imaginative seekers</i>	20 50%	18 45%	2 5.0%	40 16.2%
Column Total	134 54.3%	97 39.3%	16 6.5%	247 100%

Finally, a relationship was illustrated between the gender of occasional ecotourists and the clusters ($\chi^2=9.01$) [see table 5.10e]. This suggested that *the majority of natural-based seekers were males, the majority of social/natural/educational seekers were females, a more or less equal number of males and females were social/outdoor seekers, and the majority of the imaginative seekers were females* ($p<0.05$).

Table 5.10e Crosstabulation of clusters and gender of occasional ecotourists

Clusters	Male	Female	Row Total
1 <i>Natural-based seekers</i>	28 26.2%	21 15%	49 19.8%
2 <i>Social/natural/ educational seekers</i>	32 29.9%	50 35.7%	82 33.2%
3 <i>Social/outdoor seekers</i>	36 33.6%	40 28.6%	76 30.8%
4 <i>Imaginative seekers</i>	11 10.3%	29 20.7%	40 16.2%
Column Total	107 43.3%	140 56.7%	247 100%

Next, an additional crosstabulation analysis was conducted by controlling certain socio-demographic variables and the only relationship found related to the clusters of age and gender (see table 5.11a, b). Firstly, the null hypothesis that no relationship existed between males, age and the four clusters was rejected ($\chi^2 = 11.86$). The majority of young males were in cluster 3 and cluster 2. The middle aged males spanned across cluster 3, cluster 1, and cluster 2 and the older aged males were situated mainly in cluster 1. In sum, the results regarding male natural-based seekers disclosed that they were *middle and older aged, and in all the other clusters they were young and middle aged seekers* ($p < 0.1$) [see table 5.11a].

Table 5.11a Crosstabulation of males, age, and clusters

Clusters	Young [17-34 years]	Middle [35-54 years]	Older [55+ years]	Row Total
1 Natural-based seekers	6 12.5%	14 32.6%	8 50.0%	28 26.2%
2 Social/natural/ educational seekers	17 35.4%	11 25.6%	4 25.0%	32 29.9%
3 Social/outdoor seekers	19 39.6%	15 34.9%	2 12.5%	36 33.6%
4 Imaginative seekers	6 12.5%	3 7.0%	2 12.5%	11 10.3%
Column Total	48 44.9%	43 40.2%	16 15%	107 100%

Secondly, the null hypothesis that no relationship existed between females, age, and clusters was rejected ($\chi^2 = 15.25$). The majority of young females were in cluster 2 and 3 as well as in cluster 4. The sequence in the middle aged category was in cluster 2, cluster 1, cluster 3 and although there were a few older female occasional ecotourists, the majority of them were in cluster 4. In sum, in most of the cases it was *the young and middle aged who formed the clusters, except in the outdoor seekers cluster where they were predominantly young* ($p < 0.05$) [see table 5.11b].

Table 5.11b Crosstabulation of females, age, and clusters

Clusters	Young [17-34 years]	Middle [35-54 years]	Older [55+ years]	Row Total
1 Natural-based seekers	8 8.9%	10 26.3%	3 25%	21 15%
2 Social/natural/ educational seekers	31 34.4%	16 42.1%	3 25%	50 35.7%
3 Social/outdoor seekers	31 34.4%	8 21.1%	1 8.3%	40 28.6%
4 Imaginative seekers	20 22.2%	4 10.5%	5 41.7%	29 20.7%
Column Total	90 64.3%	38 27.1%	12 8.6%	140 100%

Finally, a variety of tests concerning the relationships between clusters and the activities, destination continents of travel, type of accommodation and level of luxury were performed. Significant differences were found between the activities, and type of accommodation. There were six activities which showed relationships with the value-clusters:

- a) Admiring nature ($x^2 = 20.42$): Eighty nine point eight percent (89.8%) of natural based seekers, 82.5% of imaginative seekers, 80.5% of social/natural/educational seekers, and 57.9% of social/outdoor seekers preferred this activity. This suggested that admiring nature was common practice amongst all occasional ecotourists, with perhaps the exception of social/outdoor seekers ($p < 0.0005$);
- b) Bird watching ($x^2 = 17.66$): Bird watching was mainly undertaken by 55.1% of natural-based seekers, with all the other segments showing less interest ($p < 0.001$);
- c) Bush walking ($x^2 = 10.25$): Sixty five percent (65%) of imaginative seekers and 53.1% of natural-based seekers considered this activity ($p < 0.05$);
- d) Diving ($x^2 = 9.39$): Only 59.2% of social/outdoor seekers considered this activity ($p < 0.05$);
- e) Observing flowers ($x^2 = 7.92$): Fifty nine point two percent (59.2%) of natural based seekers and 50% of the imaginative seekers selected this activity ($p < 0.05$); and
- f) Camping ($x^2 = 6.28$): Sixty five percent (65%) of imaginative seekers and 53.1% of natural-based seekers selected this activity ($p < 0.1$).

Next, there were two different types of accommodation related to the ecotourism clusters:

1. Cabin ($x^2 = 9.37$): Of the occasional ecotourists who selected this type of accommodation, 32.1% were natural-based seekers, 30.4% were social/natural/educational seekers, and 30.4% were social/outdoor seekers ($p < 0.05$);
2. Bed and breakfast ($x^2 = 9.37$): Of the occasional ecotourists who selected this type of accommodation, 32.8% were social/natural/educational seekers, 26.2% were

imaginative seekers, 21.3% were natural-based seekers and 19.7% were outdoor seekers ($p < 0.05$).

In conclusion, occasional ecotourists were not a homogeneous group of travelers with regards to their treatment of holidays, instead they outlined a variety of ecotourism elements (attributes and consequences) by *revealing their overall wealth of product knowledge and experience*. Although it was apparent that they shared the view that ecotourism was a learning process, in an attempt to increase their overall knowledge structure, the rationale behind achieving this was quite different among the groups. This was reflected in the creation of four different clusters, combining these unique characteristics of the demand side of ecotourism:

- ***natural-based seekers:*** Middle and older aged males and young and middle aged females, married with higher incomes and high levels of involvement with a sole interest in natural based experiences;
Activities:
Admiring nature, bird watching, bush walking, observing flowers, camping.
Type of accommodation:
Mainly in cabins followed by bed and breakfast.

- ***social/ natural / educational seekers:*** Young and middle aged males and females, single with low and mid range incomes and high levels of involvement, sharing the interest of social experiences combined also with natural and educational interactions;
Activity:
Admiring nature.
Type of accommodation:
Mainly in bed and breakfast followed by cabin.

- *social/outdoor seekers:* Young and middle aged males and young females, single with low and high incomes and medium levels of involvement, who shared an interest of social experience which is outdoor recreational orientated;

Activities:

Diving and admiring nature.

Type of accommodation:

Mainly in cabin followed by bed and breakfast.

- *imaginative seekers:* A major share were young aged females, single and married/partners status, with low and middle incomes and high levels of involvement interested in a variety of elements of the ecotourism holiday.

Activities:

Admiring nature, bush walking, observing flowers, camping.

Type of accommodation:

Bed and breakfast.

5.12 AN ANALYSIS OF THE PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT INVENTORY SCALE IN RELATION TO ECOTOURISM (QUESTION THREE, SECTION B)

The first scale in this section comprised of an analysis of the unidimensional perspective of involvement (see chapter 3 and section 3.11). This question required respondents to circle the number of their choice to finish the statement 'To me ecotourism holidays are:.'. The ten items of the PII were then given scores ranging from one to seven, with one representing the negative aspect of the examined element and seven illustrating the positive side (see table 5.12).

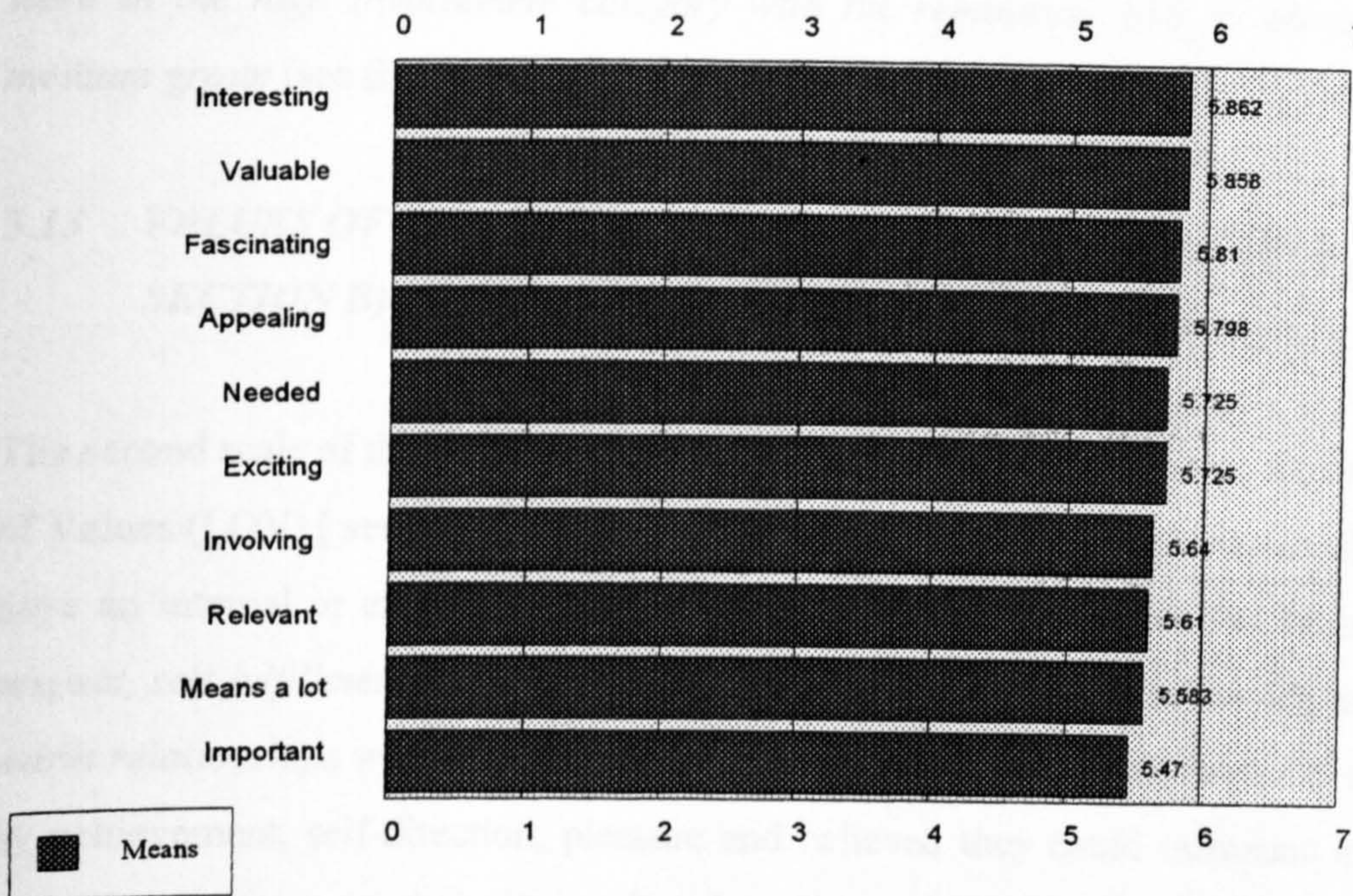
Looking at the results of the scale, the overall reliability was at very high standard ($\alpha = 0.93$), with mean values ranging from a minimum of 5.46 to a maximum of 5.86 [average mean score of 5.70]. The interesting, valuable, and fascinating items of the scale were found in the highest scores, which highlighted respondents' perception of ecotourism holidays, as well as the items which caused the unidimensional nature of involvement to appear (see table 5.12 and figure 5.4).

Table 5.12 PII elements perceived towards the concept of ecotourism

PII elements	1*	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mean	Standard Deviation
Important	-	0.4	4.5	14.6	28.7	32	19.8	5.470	1.222
Interesting	-	2.4	2.8	7.3	17.4	33.6	36.4	5.862	1.209
Relevant	0.8	0.8	2.8	10.9	23.9	38.1	22.7	5.611	1.159
Exciting	0.8	0.8	2.8	10.9	20.6	33.2	30.8	5.725	1.212
Means a lot to me	0.8	2.0	2.0	14.2	20.6	34.8	25.5	5.583	1.253
Appealing	1.2	1.2	2.8	6.9	16.2	42.5	29.1	5.798	1.203
Fascinating	0.8	0.8	3.6	8.9	17.0	34.8	34.0	5.810	1.223
Valuable	0.8	0.8	1.6	8.1	18.6	37.2	32.8	5.858	1.141
Involving	0.8	0.8	3.6	13.8	17.8	35.6	27.5	5.640	1.241
Needed	2.0	0.8	2.4	10.9	17.4	34.0	32.4	5.725	1.312

*: Unimportant, Boring, Irrelevant, Unexciting, Means Nothing, Unappealing, Mundane, Worthless, Uninvolving, Not needed.

Figure 5.4 PII mean values perceived towards the concept of ecotourism



5.12.1 Mean scores of PII

All ten items of the PII results manifested mean scores at the high involvement range which indicated the significance of ecotourism (see figure 5.4 and table 5.12). The first item to be considered was that ecotourism holidays are interesting. It appeared that 87.4% scored at the high involvement range [scores 5-7] with the remaining shared between the medium and low involvement categories. Next, ecotourism holidays were seen to be valuable and fascinating all capturing scores at the high involvement level (88.6% versus 85.8% respectively). Further the perception of occasional ecotourists also outlined that the holidays were:

1. Appealing [87.8% in high involvement];
2. Needed [83.8% in high involvement];
3. Exciting [84.6% in high involvement];
4. Involving [80.9% in high involvement];
5. Relevant [84.7% in high involvement];
6. Means a lot [80.9% in high involvement];
7. Important [80.5% in high involvement].

In sum, the results confirmed that all the examined items of the scale were at high involvement margins which further illustrated that *79.2% of the occasional ecotourists were in the high involvement category with the remaining 20.8 % allocated to the medium group* (see figure 5.1).

5.13 VALUES OF AN ECOTOURISM HOLIDAY (QUESTION FOUR, SECTION B)

The second scale of this section related to the assessment of nine values, namely the List of Values (LOV) [see chapter 3 and section 3.5.1]. In general terms these values either have an internal or external orientation. The former case included the values of *self-respect, self-fulfillment, sense of accomplishment, fun and enjoyment in life, excitement, warm relationships with others*. Individuals with such values were internally motivated by achievement, self-direction, pleasure and believed they could influence events and control outcomes in their lives. The latter case included the values of *sense of belonging, being well respected, and security*, and these individuals tended to feel powerless in the sense that may rely more on external circumstances for success and solutions to problems.

At this stage the reliability results were at high standards with a score of $\alpha=0.83$, an indication of the ability of these nine values to be subject to further statistical analysis. In particular, the following analysis was based on the frequency scores, crosstabulations, factor, regression, and cluster analysis. Looking at the frequency analysis, mean scores varied with a minimum value of 3.01 and a maximum of 4.20 [an average mean score of 3.71]. *The following presentation of these scores is in descending order based on the mean scores* (see figure 5.5). Overall four values exhibited scores at the agree level (4), with the remaining values receiving neutral opinions (see table 5.13, figure 5.5).

5.13.1 Mean scores at the agree level

The first value to be considered was that of sense of accomplishment. Overall, 83% of occasional ecotourists shared a form of agreement, and the remaining had neutral opinions, and a form of disagreement. In its most basic indication, ecotourism holidays were concerned with learning about nature, social and cultural aspects of the destinations, which the driving value referred to as the accomplishment of such learning interaction elements. This also gave rise to three values captured at this stage (see table 5.13):

- Excitement [83.8% shared a form of agreement];
- Fun and enjoyment in life [83.8 % shared a form of agreement]; and
- Self-fulfillment [80.1% shared a form of agreement].

In all the cases, these four values represented the major influences on the behavior of occasional ecotourists, which served as a standard of conduct for ecotourism holidays.

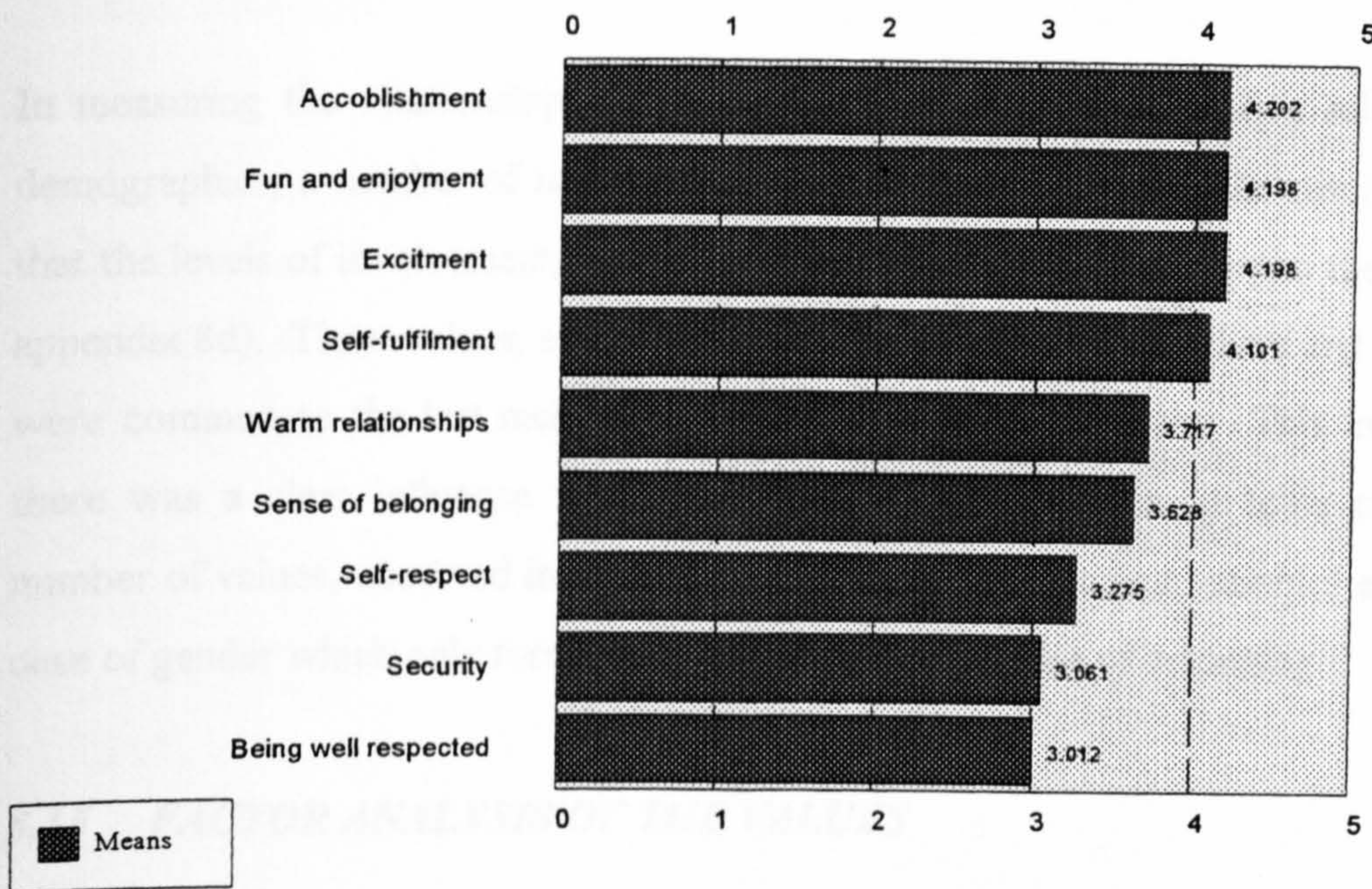
Table 5.13 Values of ecotourism holidays

Question Five	SD*	D*	N*	A*	SA*	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. Self-respect	8.5	7.3	40.9	34.8	8.5	3.275	1.015
2. Self-fulfillment	2.0	2.0	15.8	44.1	36.0	4.101	0.880
3. Sense of accomplishment	2.4	2.0	12.6	38.9	44.1	4.202	0.910
4. Being well respected	14.2	13.4	38.9	24.3	9.3	3.012	1.149
5. Fun and enjoyment in life	2.4	3.2	10.5	39.7	44.1	4.198	0.927
6. Excitement	1.6	4.0	10.5	40.5	43.3	4.198	0.900
7. Sense of belonging	4.0	8.5	29.6	36.4	21.5	3.628	1.039
8. Warm relationships with others	6.5	8.1	19.8	38.5	27.1	3.717	1.141
9. Security	13.0	16.6	35.2	21.9	13.4	3.061	1.200

Please note:

* **SD**: Strongly Disagree; **D**: Disagree; **N**: Neutral; **A**: Agree; **SA**: Strongly Agree

Figure 5.5 Mean scores of values of ecotourism holidays



5.13.2 Mean scores at the neutral level

Warm relationships with others was the first value to be considered with a neutral opinion [65.6% shared a form of agreement]. This value mainly reflected the social component of ecotourism where occasional ecotourists believed implicitly in the ideal of forming such relationships. Further, nearly half of the sample of occasional ecotourists (57.9%) shared a form of agreement with the value of sense of belonging. This indicated the possibility that individuals may form such a value through interaction with nature. Although this hypothesis will be explored in a latter stage of this analysis, all the latter mentioned values concerned the impact which ecotourism holidays advocate to its customers.

To some extent, the values reflected extrinsic interactions which did not concern the issues of enhancing one's intrinsic system: self-respect [43.3% share a type of agreement]; security [35.3% share a type of agreement]; and being well respected [33.6% shared a type of agreement]. Thus, *ecotourism holidays gave rise mainly to values concerning internal/enjoyment orientation and less on external orientation, such as sense of belonging, being well respected and security.*

5.14 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VALUES AND SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between the list of values and the five selected socio-demographics, a number of null hypothesis were tested. Overall, the results illustrated that the levels of involvement, age and income had a major impact upon the values (see appendix 8d). Three values, excitement, warm relationships with others and self-respect, were common to the last mentioned socio-demographic variables. This indicated that there was a clear influence from a combination of socio-demographic criteria on a number of values, observed in most of the examined independent variables except in the case of gender which only formed a relationship with a sense of belonging.

5.15 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE VALUES

Principal factor analysis using Varimax rotation was conducted on the list of values to identify the domains underlining the value structure. The two tests used for the factors' efficiency were quite high, indicating the overall suitability of the current sample:

- **KMO = 0.74** was at the middling levels; and
- **BTS=966,920, p=0.00000**.

Further, the loading selected at the current stage was at above +/- **0.50** which was of particular significance with an overall factor independency (see table 5.14a). The overall results illustrated two factors explaining 61.7% of the total variance with overall reliability scores at the significant levels (see table 5.14b):

- Factor 1, illustrated an eigenvalue of 3,82, 42.5% of the variance with an overall reliability of $\alpha=0.83$; and
- Factor 2, illustrated an eigenvalue of 1,72, 19.2% of the variance with an overall reliability of $\alpha=0.78$.

Table 5.14a. Factor correlation matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2
Factor 1	1,00000	
Factor 2	,00000	1,00000

Table 5.14b Factor loading matrix for the values for an ecotourism holiday

Values	Factor 1	Factor 2
Excitement	0.83860	0.08114
Fun and enjoyment in life	0.82855	0.05697
Sense of accomplishment	0.77803	0.23608
Self-fulfillment	0.76955	0.21292
Being well respected	0.06380	0.77871
Security	-0.09750	0.75939
Sense of belonging	0.26755	0.71521
Self-respect	0.26108	0.68233
Warm relationships with others	0.36944	0.63510
<i>Variance explained</i>	<i>42.5%</i>	<i>61.7%</i>
<i>Alpha (a)</i>	<i>0.8339</i>	<i>0.7845</i>

5.15.1 Factor value scores of the occasional ecotourists

Factor 1 detailed the *pleasure and achievement internal domains* (see table 5.14b). In the first instance the sample viewed ecotourism with a sense of excitement and enjoyment illustrating their basic physiological gratification. This gave rise to the achievement domain, pointing that these individuals were self-actualizers caring about social recognition and admiration (Madrigal and Kahle, 1994; Kahle et al, 1986, 1988; Muller, 1989, 1991, 1995). The extent to which occasional ecotourists illustrated the pleasure and achievement domains as the first factor, showed that this type of holiday primarily aroused the internal interests of its consumers.

Factor 2 detailed the *external/personal domains* (see table 5.14b). This factor indicated that the external domain which represented a psychological insecurity and dependency on the opinion of others, was linked to certain internal orientated values, which provided an evaluation of one's behavior and an attempt to form interpersonal relationships. Occasional ecotourists who considered these groups of values were affected by the external environment and established a rapport with other tourists and/or locals in an attempt to satisfy their respect and security-driven values. Quite interestingly however, the value of 'warm relationships with others' had a relatively strong loading with factor 1

(0.36), an indication that this value could give rise to the pleasure and achievement internal domain.

Results from previous studies demonstrated the dilemma which exists with this examined value (Kamakura and Novak, 1992). 'Warm relationship with others' may be interpreted as long-term enduring relationships or as close enjoyable friendships (Kamakura and Novak, 1992). Thus, it is recommended that the ideal interpretation of values should be accompanied with their linkages to the product attributes (Madrigal and Kahle, 1994), or their means end chains (Gutman, 1982). The evidence of the current factor analysis suggested that there was a clear distinction between internal and external orientated domains, and occasional ecotourists could satisfy either of them. The distinction which came to light was that two internal values (self respect and warm relationships with others) had diversified to the external domain, suggesting that occasional ecotourists were interested in forming personal relationships as a result of externally-motivated values. This was quite similar with previous evidence on values, and although the internal and external domains tended to be robust, the relationship between internal values was situationally-specific (Homer and Kahle, 1988; Madrigal and Kahle, 1994; Madrigal, 1995). Hence, it follows that there was an interaction between the two personal internal values (warm relationship with others, self-respect) and the external ones. Finally, in identifying which involvement groups were likely to consider the values, a regression analysis was used based on the factor's scores.

5.16 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF VALUES AND INVOLVEMENT

Linear regression analysis was conducted among the levels of involvement (dependent variables) and the two factors (independent variables). Here, there was only one factor in the equation of regression, as the other failed to be connected (F ratio= 38,73; $p < 0.0001$). In particular, 13.7% of the variance in high involvement was explained by:

- Factor 1: Pleasure and achievement internal domain (13.7%).

Both the use of the unstandard regression coefficients (B) and standardized regression coefficients (Beta), illustrated the positive contribution of the pleasure and achievement domain to high-involved occasional ecotourists ($B = 0.150576$; $Beta = 0.370802$). Hence, high-involved occasional ecotourists were motivated by the internal values of pleasure and achievement and were not related to the external and personal domains ($p < 0.0001$) [see table 5.15a]. The reverse scenario occurred with the medium involvement group. Here, the F-ratio was 38,73 and R square was 0.13749, in that 13.7% of the variance in medium involvement was explained by the pleasure and achievement domain.

However, the impact of this factor to medium-involved occasional ecotourists was negative, both in terms of the unstandard regression coefficients ($B = -0.150576$) and standardized regression coefficients (see table 5.15a). Further, there was some evidence that education played an important role in the individual's personal value structure (Reynolds et al, 1990). Indeed, the results of this sample supported this claim when education appeared in the regression equation as an independent variable. It is worth noting however, that the remaining socio-demographics failed to appear in the equation of regression suggesting that age, income and gender did not influence the levels of involvement at this stage.

Table 5.15a Regression analysis for levels of involvement and values

Factors	High involvement		Medium involvement	
	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Factor 1: Pleasure and achievement internal domains	0.370802	$p < 0.0001$	-0.370802	$p < 0.0001$

5.16.1 Regression analysis of values, involvement, and education

The procedure of additional regression analysis revealed that education was related to high-involvement occasional ecotourists, of which 15.2% of the total variance was explained by the following two variables (R Square= 0.15225):

- Factor 1: pleasure and achievement internal domains (13.7%); and
- Education (1.5%).

Further, the relationship between the two variables with high involvement was positive, in that for every increment in the pleasure and achievement internal domains, high involvement increased by 0.14 ($B = 0.144025$), and by a minor 0.04 ($B = 0.047822$) as a result of the educational background of occasional ecotourists. Looking at the Beta values the positive contribution of the two examined variables to high involvement subjects was confirmed, as well as the overall negative contribution to the medium involvement occasional ecotourists (see table 5.15b).

Table 5.15b Regression analysis for levels of involvement, values and education

<i>Factors</i>	<i>High involvement</i>		<i>Medium involvement</i>	
	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Factor 1: Pleasure and achievement internal domains	0.354670	$p < 0.0001$	-0.354670	$p < 0.0001$
Education	0.122551	$p < 0.05$	-0.122551	$p < 0.05$

In sum, the results suggested that high involvement occasional ecotourists were greatly influenced by the pleasure and achievement internal domains ($p < 0.0001$), and to a lesser degree by educational background ($p < 0.05$). The medium involvement occasional ecotourists were not influenced by any particular factor, although this did not necessarily mean that they were not influenced by any single value. In order to identify which values are related to high and medium involvement occasional ecotourists and to the sample in general a cluster analysis was performed.

5.17 CLUSTER ANALYSIS OF THE VALUES OF THE ECOTOURISM HOLIDAYS

A K-means cluster analysis was conducted on all the elements of the list of values in order to identify the similarities of values among the occasional ecotourists. Initially, two, four and five cluster solutions were determined and eventually dropped, as they did not contain comparable amounts of cases. Eventually, a three cluster solution was determined to be the most appropriate presentation of the segment of values among occasional ecotourists (see table 5.16). In order to illustrate the differences among the three segments, a one-way Anova with the Duncan multiple range test was conducted, (see appendix 8e) followed by cluster descriptions, and chi-square analysis both in terms of socio-demographics as well as in terms of similarities with the four segments of the elements of ecotourism holidays.

Table 5.16 Ecotourism segments based on values

<i>Values</i>	<i>Cluster 1</i>	<i>Cluster 2</i>	<i>Cluster 3</i>
Self-respect	2.55	2.77	3.78
Self-fulfillment	2.92	4.31	4.33
Sense of accomplishment	2.95	4.35	4.49
Being well respected	2.45	2.07	3.72
Fun and enjoyment in life	2.92	4.56	4.37
Excitement	3.65	4.50	4.37
Sense of belonging	2.80	3.07	4.19
Warm relationships with others	2.52	3.26	4.34
Security	2.70	2.15	3.69
<i>Number of respondents</i>	<i>n=40</i>	<i>n=76</i>	<i>n=131</i>
<i>Percentage of total sample</i>	<i>16.2%</i>	<i>30.8%</i>	<i>53%</i>

5.17.1 Value clusters of the occasional ecotourists

Based on the patterns of mean importance ratings, Cluster 1 was labeled as *excitement seekers* (see table 5.16). This cluster had little interest in other internal and external values as it represented a small group of travelers endorsed by the value of excitement. Excitement seekers tended to be highly self-centered individuals, searching for pleasure and escape from the familiar.

Cluster 2 represented the second largest segment of the sample, which was labeled as *enjoyment and achievement seekers* (see table 5.16). This group of occasional ecotourists was motivated by the pleasurable aspects of life, outlined by high levels of both self-direction and self-actualization. For example, the primary values of this group endorsed 'fun and enjoyment in life', 'excitement', 'sense of accomplishment' and 'self-fulfillment'. This segment had little interest in the external values and interpersonal relationships (i.e. warm relationships with others), and their treatment of ecotourism holidays was represented with sensory needs also illustrated by a variety of goals such as intellectual and physical interactions.

Cluster 3 represented the first largest segment of the sample, which was labeled as *multi-values seekers with lower security and respect* (see table 5.16). The results indicated that these people were less concerned with the security aspects of ecotourism, the opinion of others, and their egocentrism domain. For example, the leading value of this group was that of 'sense of accomplishment', and the less important ones were 'security', 'being well respected', and 'self-respect'. This indicated that although these occasional ecotourists tended to choose a variety of internal-orientated values, they tended to be less security and respect orientated. In turn, *the only external value to appear was 'sense of belonging', which revealed their dependency on other social recognition*. This was also supported by the emphasis on 'warm relationship with others' expressing their overall search for interpersonal relationships.

In comparing all the segments it was evident that their common tenet was the value of 'excitement'. The occasional ecotourists gave great emphasis to the hedonic dimension of ecotourism, which was supported by the achievement domain, reflecting the multiple base of the ecotourism product.

5.18 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VALUES CLUSTERS AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between the three value clusters and selected socio-demographics (age, education, income, gender, involvement and marital status), a number of hypotheses were tested. The most influential variable on the clusters related to the *degree of involvement* of the occasional ecotourists (see tables 5.17a, b, c). It is quite interesting to note that there were no relationships between education, gender, marital status and the segments. It seemed all the occasional ecotourists irrespective of these variables took part in each of the cluster.

The most pronounced differences between the clusters concerned the rejection of the null hypothesis between the clusters and the levels of involvement ($\chi^2=25.40$). The major differences were in clusters 2 and 3 (see table 5.17a). In particular *medium-involved occasional ecotourists tended to be multi-value seekers with lower security and respect as well as excitement seekers* ($p<0.00001$). In turn, *high-involved occasional ecotourists tended to be the leading group as enjoyment and achievement seekers and multi-values seekers with lower security and respect. It is worth noting that high-involved occasional ecotourists monopolized cluster 3, acknowledging their overall experience and dependency on values during decision making procedures* ($p<0.00001$).

Table 5.17a Crosstabulation of clusters and level of involvement

Clusters	Medium involvement	High involvement	Row Total
1	20	20	40
<i>Excitement seekers</i>	39.2%	10.3%	16.3%
2	9	66	75
<i>Enjoyment and achievement seekers</i>	17.6%	34%	30.6%
3	22	108	130
<i>Multi-values seekers with lower security and respect</i>	43.1%	55.7%	53.1%
Column Total	51	194	245*
	20.8%	79.2%	100%

* Two missing observations of low involved occasional ecotourists in clusters 2, 3.

The next hypothesis concerned the relationship between the clusters and the income of the occasional ecotourists ($\chi^2=20.88$) [see table 5.17b]. This relationship illustrated *that the excitement seekers had more or less similar levels of incomes, and the enjoyment and achievement seekers had both higher and lower incomes* ($p<0.0005$). *The great majority of the multi-values seekers with lower security and respect generated mainly lower and to a lesser extent mid range incomes* ($p<0.0005$).

Table 5.17b Crosstabulation of clusters and income of occasional ecotourists

Clusters	Low range [Less than 10,000-15,000]	Mid range [15,000-25,000]	High range [25,000+]	Row Total
1 Excitement seekers	14 12.6%	12 17.1%	14 21.2%	40 16.2%
2 Enjoyment and achievement seekers	25 22.5%	19 27.1%	32 48.5%	76 30.8%
3 Multi-values seekers with lower security and respect	72 64.9%	39 55.7%	20 30.3%	131 53%
Column Total	111 44.9%	70 28.3%	66 26.7%	247 100%

Further, the hypothesis that no difference exists between the clusters and the age of occasional ecotourists was rejected ($\chi^2=12.32$) [see table 5.17c]. Overall the evidence suggested that *the majority of excitement seekers were middle aged occasional ecotourists, enjoyment and achievement seekers were mainly young and middle aged, and despite the multi-based seekers with lower security and respect being represented by all the age groups, the majority of them were young* ($p<0.005$).

Table 5.17c Crosstabulation of clusters and age of occasional ecotourists

Clusters	Young [17-34 years]	Middle [35-54 years]	Older [55+ years]	Row Total
1 <i>Excitement seekers</i>	14 10.1%	20 24.7%	6 21.4%	40 16.2%
2 <i>Enjoyment and achievement seekers</i>	39 28.3%	28 34.6%	9 32.1%	76 30.8%
3 <i>Multi-values seekers with low security and respect/driven</i>	85 61.6%	33 40.7%	13 46.4%	131 53%
Column Total	138 55.9%	81 8.6%	28 11.3%	247 100%

Next, a variety of tests concerning destination continents, type of accommodation and level of luxury were performed. Significant differences were found between the activities, type of accommodation and level of luxury. Firstly, there was four activities that signified a relationship with the value-clusters:

- Camping ($\chi^2=12.32$): Fifty three point nine percent (53.9%) of the enjoyment and achievement seekers and 53.4% of the multi-based seekers with lower security and respect, selected this activity ($p<0.005$);
- Bird watching ($\chi^2=6.87$): Only 44.7% of the enjoyment and achievement seekers favored such an interest with all the other segments rejecting this activity ($p<0.05$);
- Snorkeling ($\chi^2=6.33$): Sixty eight point four percent (68.4%) of the enjoyment and achievement seekers and 63.4% of the multi-based seekers with lower security and respect, selected this activity ($p<0.05$); and
- Observing flowers ($\chi^2=6.16$): Only 46.1% of the enjoyment and achievement seekers, selected this activity ($p<0.05$).

Secondly, there were three types of accommodation and two levels of luxury related with the value-clusters:

1. Tent ($x^2=9.32$): Fifty four point five percent (54.5%) were multi-values seekers with low security and respect, as well as 35.6% of enjoyment and achievement seekers ($p<0.01$);
2. Ecolodge ($x^2=9.18$): Forty seven point nine percent (47.9%) were enjoyment and achievement seekers and 35.4% were multi-value seekers with low security and respect ($p<0.01$);
3. Hotel/motel ($x^2=5.25$): Forty eight percent (48%) were multi-value seekers with low security and respect/driven, as well as 29.4% enjoyment and achievement seekers ($p<0.1$);
4. Luxurious ($x^2=7.08$): Fifty two point nine percent (52.9%) were excitement seekers and 41.2% were multi-value seekers with low security and respect/driven ($p<0.0001$); and
5. Basic/budget level of luxury ($x^2=7.08$): Fifty eight point three percent (58.3%) were multi-value seekers with low security and respect/driven and 32.2% were enjoyment and achievement seekers ($p<0.05$).

The cluster analysis and chi-square test revealed the profiles of occasional ecotourists in terms of values and the justification of their behavior. Although an additional chi-square analysis by controlling certain socio-demographics failed to meet all the criteria of the test, the remaining results outlined comprehensive evidence. In particular, 83.8% of the total sample outlined more than one value (clusters 2 and 3), revealing not only the significant role of values in the ecotourism experience process and decision-making procedures, but most importantly the wealth of knowledge and high degree of experience. As a result, three distinct value-system segments emerged from this sample outlining their motivational domains:

- ***excitement seekers:*** Middle aged males and females with similar levels of incomes with both medium and high levels of involvement motivated by the value of excitement;
Level of accommodation:
Luxurious.

- ***enjoyment and achievement seekers:*** Young and middle aged males and females with higher and lower levels of incomes and high levels of involvement motivated by the enjoyment and achievement domains;
Activities:
Camping, bird watching, snorkeling, observing flowers.
Type of accommodation:
Mainly in ecolodge and tent, hotel/motel.
Level of accommodation:
Mainly basic/budget.

- ***Multi-values seekers with low security and respect/driven:*** Young males and females with low and mid range incomes and high levels of involvement motivated by all the external / internal orientated values, except the low security and respect/driven.
Activities:
Camping, snorkeling.
Type of accommodation:
Mainly tents, followed by hotel/motel and ecolodge.
Level of accommodation:
Mainly basic/budget and less luxurious.

5.19 COMPARISON BETWEEN ELEMENTS OF AN ECOTOURISM HOLIDAY AND VALUES

A comparison between the elements of the ecotourism holidays and the values was conducted in order to reveal certain similarities and differences among the examined elements in two main stages. The first stage included an exploration of the relationships between the **ecotourism clusters** and the **values factors**. Here, the hypothesis that was tested was that value scores will differ in their agreement ratings of ecotourism segments. In order to test this hypothesis, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted using the ecotourism segments as independent variables and the two value factors as dependent variables. The MANOVA procedure indicated that significant differences existed among the examined variables (Wilk's = 0.84, $F(6, 484) = 7.00$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, supporting the hypothesis that there were some differences between values and ecotourism segments.

Follow-up one way Anova was conducted based on a Duncan test in order to determine which specific segments differ from one another on the different components of values. Significant differences were found with regards to (see table 5.18):

- the *internal pleasure and achievement domains* (F statistic (3, 243)= 4.38; $p < 0.005$): This domain was not related to the social/outdoor seekers, instead it related to all the other ecotourism segments. In particular, it was more significantly associated with the imaginative seekers (occasional ecotourists who chose a variety of ecotourism elements); and
- the *external/personal domains* (F statistic (3, 243)= 9.62; $p < 0.005$): This domain was related only with two groups of occasional ecotourists that of imaginative seekers, and that of social/natural/educational seekers. The external domain had a negative influence on the natural-based seekers and on social/outdoor seekers, an illustration that this group of occasional ecotourists were not motivated by the values of :‘sense of belonging’, ‘self-respect’ and ‘warm relationship with others’.

In comparing the cases, it is interesting to note that occasional ecotourists who selected the *social/outdoor* orientated attributes and consequences of this sample, did not

connect with any values. This clearly indicates that these individuals were not experienced occasional ecotourists and their product knowledge and expertise for ecotourism holidays was limited. Occasional ecotourists who were familiar with more than one component of the ecotourism product (clusters 2 and 4), related with two value domains. However *occasional ecotourists in cluster 2*, mainly related with the external domain and to a lesser degree with the internal value domain. In addition the *natural-based seekers were motivated by a single domain, that of internal pleasure and achievement*. In this case, the values of: 'excitement'; 'fun and enjoyment in life'; 'a sense of accomplishment' and 'self-fulfillment' were all selected by natural-based seekers. The possession of these values by natural-based seekers not only indicated their selectivity, but most importantly their exclusiveness from the other group of occasional ecotourists.

In sum, occasional ecotourists with more than one interest in ecotourism components highlighted both value-domains, except in the case of social outdoor seekers, all an illustration of the importance of values during their decision-making procedures.

Table 5.18 One way Anova analysis between the mean of value components and ecotourism clusters

Value components	CLUSTER 1 Natural-based seekers	CLUSTER 2 Social/natural/educational seekers	CLUSTER 3 Social/outdoor seekers	CLUSTER 4 Imaginative seekers	Contrast
Internal pleasure and achievement domains	0.06	0.08	-0.31	0.33	III>III III>II III>I
External/personal domains	-0.51	0.23	-0.14	0.42	III>I III>II III>III

5.20 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the results of a comprehensive analysis of the demographic and motivational characteristics of occasional ecotourists, the elements that they identified in an ecotourism holiday and their levels of involvement. The techniques used have enabled the ecotourists to be clustered into several groups that combine the demand and supply-side preferences of ecotourists. In terms of their demographic profile, occasional ecotourists tended to be young, with moderate incomes and likely to be single. This was confirmed by the high percentage of single travelers in the sample. Educational levels were relatively high. Regarding their ecotourism activities, this group was likely to be involved in admiring nature and observing animals, followed by a range of active pursuits such as snorkeling. The levels of involvement of occasional ecotourists was either high (78.5%) or medium (20.6%), with education being significantly related to the high involvement group.

The analysis elicited a range of motivations for taking an ecotourism holiday, of which value for money, flexibility and participation in outdoor activities were the most cited. In terms of the elements of ecotourism holidays, the sample of occasional ecotourists gave more emphasis to social experiences leading to natural-based activities with strong social and educational components. Examining the values associated with an ecotourism holiday, occasional ecotourists identify internal values such as excitement and self-fulfillment, rather than external values such as security.

The relationship between involvement, motivation and demographics demonstrated that highly-involved occasional ecotourists cited environmentally-oriented motives, and that educational background was an important explanatory variable. For medium-involved occasional ecotourists, the relationship with value for money as a motivation was strong. Factor analysis identified that, as a concept ecotourism appears to contain a multiple base of natural attractions, educational, cultural, social elements and outdoor relaxation. For highly-involved ecotourists natural attractions and education were the key factors, whereas for medium-involved ecotourists relaxation came out as the key factor.

Finally a series of clusters were elicited from the analysis. Occasional ecotourists can be grouped as natural-based seekers, social/natural/educational seekers, social outdoor seekers and imaginative seekers. For each cluster it is possible to identify typical

demographic and involvement profiles. A further analysis of the values of occasional ecotourists elicits clusters of excitement seekers, enjoyment and achievement seekers and multi-values seekers. Overall, these clusters were related to the level of involvement, showing that involvement was a significant factor in their ecotourism holidays.

CHAPTER SIX

THE FREQUENT ECOTOURIST'S INVOLVEMENT PROFILE: A QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

6.0 The frequent ecotourist's involvement profile: a qualitative analysis

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The consumers' involvement profile serves as a basis for identifying both the content and structure underlying the concept of ecotourism. The purpose of such profiles is not only to support evidence that the internal nature of involvement is subject to the characteristics of product knowledge, but also to explore the different elements of such a knowledge structure. Much of the internal nature of involvement however, relies mainly on the means-end chain principle and its associated laddering process (see chapter 4, section 4.6.2). While the theoretical aspects of the latter concepts are detailed in different sections of this research it is worth considering a number of issues derived from the means-end chain review which are relevant to this part of the analysis:

- *experienced consumers reveal a wealth of both concrete and abstract knowledge;*
- *the focus of the chain is on the whole linkages structure as well as on the importance of consequences, rather than attributes;*
- *the values are expressed in a consumption-oriented manner to determine product involvement;*
- *consumers who do not consider the role of values in their decision-making process, only reveal a few values in a laddering interview; and*
- *from the decision-making perspective, the focus is not on the attribute per se but what the attribute means to consumers, which further forms the basis of consumers' motivation and product involvement.*

In addition to these issues, the characteristics of the content of product knowledge are subject to three elements of product-related cognitive structures:

1. **Centrality:** refers to the depth of the product knowledge structure as respondents are asked to rate the personal importance of each unique value;
2. **Dimensionality:** refers to the number of unique values engaged in a product; and
3. **Relatedness:** outlines the strength of the association between each value and product.

For the structure of this chapter, the focus will be on presenting the knowledge structure and profiles of frequent ecotourists derived from the laddering interviews. Two different sets of profiles will be outlined, that of male and female frequent ecotourists as well as medium and high involvement frequent ecotourists. The approach, therefore, will aim to bring to light the attributes, consequences and values of the concept of ecotourism. In addition, it will measure the three elements of the product-related cognitive structures in association with levels of involvement, as well as the different sets of awareness among ecotourists relative to their socio-economic characteristics.

6.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE SCOPE AND CRITERIA FOR THE INTERVIEWS

The framework of the means-end chain approach relies on the abstraction concept which in turn details certain hierarchical levels notably the concrete and abstract (Gutman, 1982, 1995; Peter and Olson, 1990, 1996; Reynolds et al, 1990; Reynolds and Gutman, 1988; Laaksonen, 1994). In order to reveal these elements, 55 interviews were conducted during a six months period. At this stage, the process of revealing these elements is by a content analysis of the laddering interviews (see appendix 7). During the content analysis, 33 elements were elicited which included eleven attributes ($a=11$), thirteen consequences ($c=13$), and nine values ($v=9$) (see tables 6.1a, 6.1b, 6.1c; appendix 5).

The respondents were classified into certain levels of involvement by using the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) scale. Based on their PII scores, subjects were assigned into three non-overlapping involvement groups: *Low* [$PII=10-29$; $n=7$], *Medium* [$PII=30-50$; $n=22$], and *High* [$PII=51-70$; $n=26$]. The final step assigned the selected criteria for presenting the laddering interviews in an attempt to identify both the structure and content elements of the means-end chains.

The laddering interviews were analysed in terms of content and structure:

- The purpose of the content analysis was to reveal the *variations of concepts across the ladders* by taking a numerical comparative view. Here, the 'Scheffe test' of the analysis of variance, known as likelihood value or -2 log likelihood was used; and

- The purpose of the structure analysis was to reveal the *interrelationships between the different items* of the means-end chain. Here, the results of the interviews were presented in an Hierarchical Value Map (HVM) where the **white circles** represented *attributes*, the **gray circles** were *consequences* and the **black circles** were *values*. The size of the circle was proportional to the number of people who selected the item. The circles were connected with a line, and the thickness of the line was commensurate with the strength of the association between items mentioned by frequent ecotourists.

In addition, one important element at this stage was to measure *the dimensionality, relatedness and centrality of product knowledge*. Dimensionality was calculated by measuring the unique values mentioned by each group. Relatedness calculated the strength of the association by measuring how many unique consequences were linked with unique values. Centrality, on the other hand was measured by assigning respondents a three-step scale to determine the importance of each unique value. In order to examine these issues an overview of the items of the means-end chain, and the content and structural characteristics of frequent ecotourists will be presented in an attempt to reveal their product knowledge.

Table 6.1a The means-end chain's attributes of ecotourism

Concepts	Elements
Attributes	1. To visit historical attractions [ATTR]
	2. An expensive holiday [EXP]
	3. Experience local culture [LC]
	4. To see the natural environment and protected areas [NA]
	5. To participate in outdoor/recreational activities [ORA]
	6. To go somewhere that is not solely commercial [SC]
	7. To do a survey and/or study of natural habitats [SNH]
	8. To experience traditional and natural lifestyles [TNL]
	9. To travel to third world countries [TWC]
	10. To experience unique exclusive place [UEP]
	11. To travel to wild places or unprotected areas [WP]

Table 6.1b The means-end chain's consequences of ecotourism

Elements	Concepts
Consequences	1. Have an awareness of the world's natural environment [AWE]
	2. To be concerned that your presence there may damage the environment [CDE]
	3. To contribute actively in conservation of these areas [CONS]
	4. To be more energetic and adventurous [EA]
	5. To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday [EEEH]
	6. To educate and be educated by local people [EELP]
	7. To go again, when possible [GOAGA]
	8. To create a memory that normal holidays could not give me [LTM]
	9. To feel relaxed and calm [RC]
	10. It was recommended by friends [RECFR]
	11. To respect the local population and indigenous people [RLPIP]
	12. To maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers [SFHM]
	13. I felt that travel companies just use the word ecoholidays to attract more people [TCWA]

Table 6.1c The means-end chain's values of ecotourism

Elements	Concepts
Values	1. Get a sense of accomplishment [ACC]
	2. Appreciate and respect the world we live in [AWOB]
	3. Have fun and enjoyment in life [ENJOY]
	4. Get excitement [EXC]
	5. Get self fulfillment [FUL]
	6. Get value for money [GVFM]
	7. Experience warm relationships with other [GWRO]
	8. Achieve happiness [HAP]
	9. Become more knowledgeable [KNOW]

6.3 AN ANALYSIS OF MALE AND FEMALE FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS

The majority of the frequent ecotourists interviewed were females (see table 6.2). Both males and females tended to travel with one person, with the latter gender group also opting to travel with two people. The educational standards of both groups at the undergraduate levels were comparable, however more males held a postgraduate qualification (see table 6.2).

The greatest differences between the two groups stemmed from the age and income classifications. Here, 67.7 % of females fell into the young age category (17-34 years) as opposed to 37.5 % of males, indicating *that females were a younger group of frequent ecotourists*. On the other hand, 62.5 % of males were middle-aged (35-54 years) as opposed to 29.0 % of females. For income, 79.1 % of males earned above £20,000 as opposed to 45.16% of females indicating *that males were a wealthier group of frequent ecotourists*. In contrast, 54.8 % of female's incomes were between 'less than £10,000 to £20,000 pounds', as opposed to 20.8 % of males with similar income levels (see table 6.2).

6.3.1 The content elements structure of male and female frequent ecotourists

The aim at this stage was to outline the profile of the gender groups without considering how the level of involvement could influence the choices of each gender group. At this stage of the analysis, the Scheffe test did not apply due to the nominal nature (i.e. the inability to rank the items in any order) of the socio-economic elements, thus opposing the requirements of the existence of a dependent variable to be at interval levels. The process of revealing the content structure of the chains primarily included the use of the -2 log Likelihood statistic. The analysis of the HVM of the two groups highlighted distinct differences (see figures 6.1a, 6.1b). The cognitive structure map for males accounted for 59% of all the direct and indirect relationships with a cut-off value of two. The females map showed 58% of the relationships, with an identical cut-off value. The examined groups of frequent ecotourists differed a great deal, not only at the attribute level but also for consequences and values.

Table 6.2 The socio-demographics elements of the sample

<i>Elements</i>	<i>Females</i>	<i>Males</i>
Gender	31	24
Status:		
Single	20	13
Married	10	9
Divorced	1	3
People travel:		
Alone	2	3
One	15	14
Two	10	5
Three	4	2
Education:		
Secondary education	4	1
HND/Diploma	7	1
First degree	15	13
Postgraduate qualification	5	9
Age (years):		
17-24	6	3
25-34	15	6
35-44	9	12
45-54	-	3
55-64	1	-
65+	-	-
Income (pounds):		
Less than 10,000	2	1
10,000-15,000	3	1
15,000-20,000	12	3
20,000-25,000	5	8
25,000-30,000	6	5
30,000++	3	6

6.3.2 Attributes

The assessment of the attribute level indicated that the variable 'to see the natural environment and protected areas' [NA] was the leading attribute among the two groups. In particular it was more likely to appear on the females' choice criteria for ecotourism holidays, as opposed to males (69.5%, $p < 0.12$ versus 52.2%, $p < 0.05$). Further, the 'expensive of holiday' [EXP] was mainly expressed by females (49.0% versus 33.5%; $p < 0.05$), as well as to visit 'not solely commercial areas' [SC] (41.9% versus 28.6%; $p < 0.05$).

The females, also preferred to travel to 'wild places or unprotected areas on earth' [WP] (52.2% versus 37.9%; $p < 0.05$) in order to participate in 'outdoor recreational activities' [ORA] (37.9% versus 33.5%; $p < 0.05$). Visits to 'historical attractions' were also favored by females [ATTR] (33.5% versus 23.5%; $p < 0.05$). However, they were impartial towards experiencing the 'local culture' [LC] (37.9% versus 37.9%; $p < 0.05$). In the male group of frequent ecotourists, the emphasis was given to the 'uniqueness of the place' [UEP] (49.0% versus 33.5%; $p < 0.05$) as well as on 'surveys of natural habitats' [SNH] (41.9% versus 33.5%; $p < 0.05$).

In sum, the number of attributes mentioned by males and females were equally shared ($a=11$) which underlined the wealth of product knowledge at the concrete level of the abstraction concept.

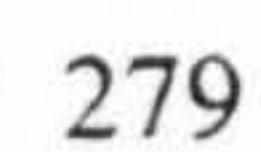
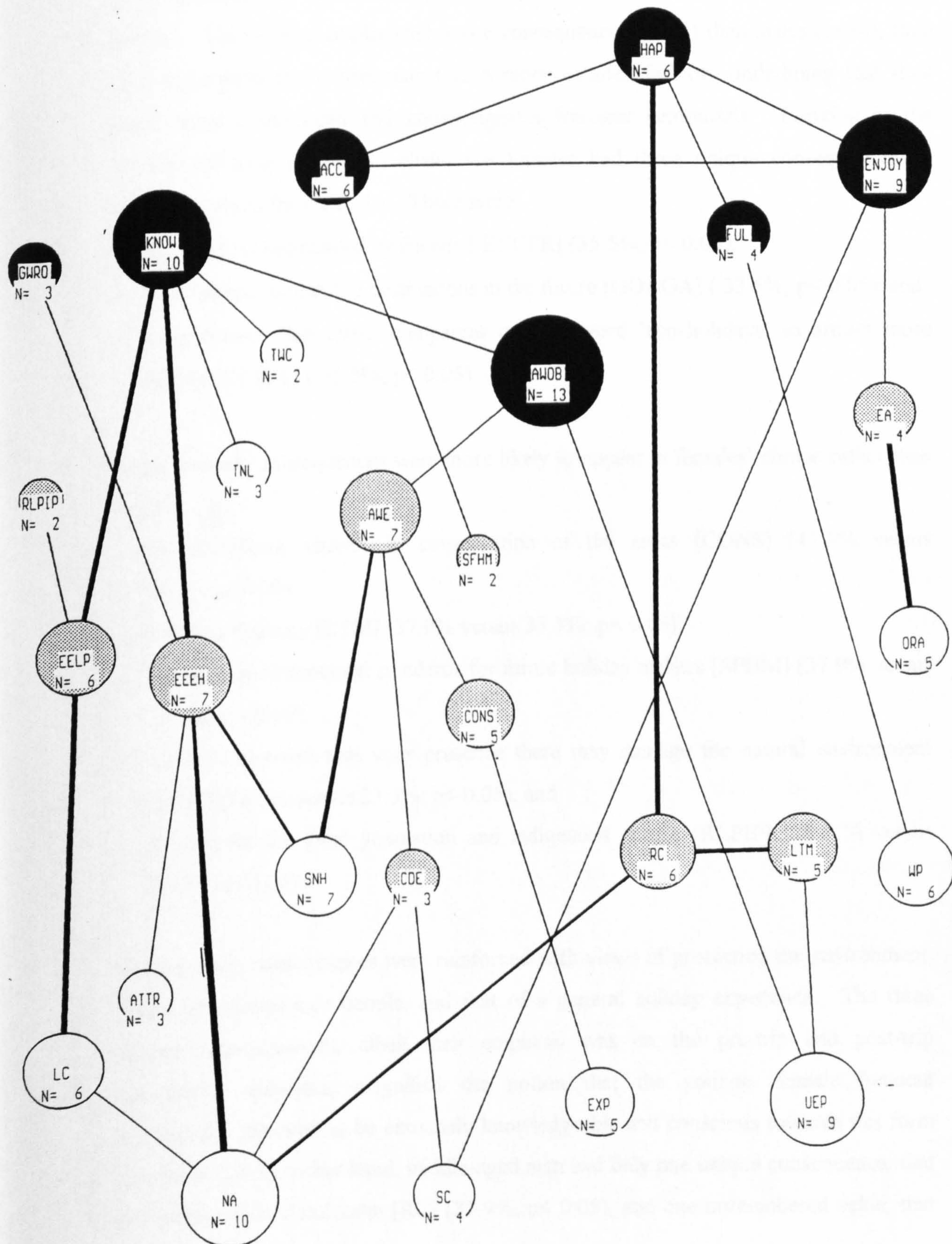


Figure 6.1b The hierarchical value map of male frequent ecotourists



6.3.3 Consequences

In comparison with the attributes, the total number of consequences showed a different pattern. The females emphasized more consequences ($c=12$) than males ($c=10$), they also segregated the consequences in a more-detailed fashion, underlining that they were more experienced and knowledgeable frequent ecotourists. Looking at the content of their means-end chain, the females had three unique consequences as opposed to one for the males. These were:

- They are recommended by friends [RECFR] (35.5%, $p < 0.05$);
- They intend to visit the destinations in the future [GOAGA] (33.5%, $p < 0.05$); and
- They believe that travel companies use the word 'eco-holidays' to attract more people [TCWA] (35.5%, $p < 0.05$).

In fact certain consequences were more likely to appear in females' choice rather than males:

1. To contribute actively in conservation of the areas [CONS] (41.9% versus 33.5%; $p < 0.05$);
2. Lifetime memory [LTM] (37.9% versus 33.5%; $p < 0.05$);
3. Maintain environmental standards for future holiday makers [SFHM] (37.9% versus 23.3%; $p < 0.05$);
4. To be concerned that your presence there may damage the natural environment [CDE] (33.5% versus 23.3%; $p < 0.05$); and
5. To respect the local population and indigenous people [RLPIP] (28.6 % versus 23.3%; $p < 0.05$).

Indeed these consequences were reinforced with views of protecting the environment, respecting indigenous people, and that of a general holiday experience. The three distinct consequences, albeit their emphasis was on the pre-trip and post-trip satisfaction elements, magnified the notion that the younger female frequent ecotourists appeared to be extremely knowledgeable and conscious towards this form of travel. On the other hand, middle-aged men had only one unique consequence, that of feeling relaxed and calm [RC] (37.9%, $p < 0.05$), and one outnumbered value, that

of awareness [AWE] (41.9% versus 37.9%; $p < 0.05$). Instead they hosted three consequences with an equal likelihood of consequences appearing:

- To be more energetic and adventurous [EA] (28.6%, $p < 0.05$ in both cases);
- To educate and be educated by local people [EELP] (37.9%, $p < 0.05$ in both cases); and
- To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday [EEEH] (41.9%, $p < 0.05$ in both cases).

In sum, at the consequences level, the females were more knowledgeable in ecotourism as opposed to males. Their consequences had the merit of demonstrating not only their favoritism towards ecotourism, but also their consciousness of negative ecotourism practices (such as misleading marketing practices by the travel companies) when comparing them to the males.

6.3.4 Values

A similar kind of interpretation occurred at the higher levels of the means-end chain. Initially, the total number of values for females ($v=9$) outnumbered those of males ($v=7$). Although this highlighted the difference between the two gender groups over the value generation, it revealed that both groups considered the role of values in their decision-making process. This was further evident by the large number of total values ($v=16$) revealed in the laddering interviews. In particular females revealed two unique values: excitement [EXC] (49.0%, $p < 0.05$); and get value for money [GVFM] (28.6 %, $p < 0.05$). Additionally the majority of the remaining values were more likely to appear in the females' ecotourism holiday choice:

- Appreciate and respect the world we live in [AWOB] (64.4% versus 60.1%; $p < 0.05$);
- Get a sense of accomplishment [ACC] (41.9 % versus 37.9 %; $p < 0.05$);
- Experience warm relationships with others [GWRO] (33.5 % versus 23.3 %; $p < 0.05$);
- Have fun and enjoyment in life [ENJOY] (60.1 % versus 49.0 %; $p < 0.05$); and
- Get self-fulfillment [FUL] (37.9 % versus 28.6 %; $p < 0.05$).

It is worth considering at this stage of the analysis that both gender groups highlighted the value of **'Appreciate and respect the world we live in'** [AWOB]. In some respects this could be expected from products such as ecotourism which have an environmental component. The interesting result however, was that it was the first choice of the two genders who differ greatly in their socio-economic characteristics (see table 6.2 and figures 6.1a, 6.1b). This difference was evident on examination of other values, where the younger group of females highlighted the value **'fun and enjoyment'** [ENJOY] as their second choice.

On this point at least, fewer middle-aged males considered **'fun and enjoyment'** as a leading value. For them, the second most important value was to **'become more knowledgeable'** [KNOW] (52.1 % versus 33.5 %; $p < 0.05$). Their overall results indicated the latter mentioned value with a higher likelihood of appearance, supported by **'achieve happiness'** [HAP] with an equal likelihood of appearance (37.9 %; $p < 0.05$ in both cases). Thus, there was not a unique value mentioned by the males when compared to the females' results.

Finally at the values level, the females again amplified a deeper breadth of knowledge and experience in ecotourism. Quite interestingly both groups highlighted a large number of values as well as appreciation and respect of the world [AWOB] as their leading value. This value also played a crucial role in the females' and males' structural linkages between the means-end chain concepts.

6.3.5 The product knowledge structure of male and female frequent ecotourists

At the structure elements of the means-end chain, the overall knowledge structure among the two examined groups entailed an involved rather than uninvolved stance towards ecotourism. This involvement stance can be indicated initially from the dimensionality, relatedness and centrality of the means-end chain concept (see table 6.3)

Table 6.3 The elements of ecotourism cognitive structure for males and females

<i>Group Gender</i>	<i>Dimensionality</i>			<i>Relatedness</i>			<i>Centrality</i>		
	No of Dimensions	No of Respondents	%	Score of Relatedness	No of Values	%	Rating of Centrality *	No of Values	%
Males	1	3	12.5	1	28	59.6	1	5	10.6
	2	13	54.2	2	17	36.2	2	22	46.8
	3	7	29.2	3	2	4.2	3	20	42.6
	4	1	4.1						
Total		24	100		47	100		47	100
Females	1	6	19.3	1	27	52.9	1	3	5.9
	2	16	51.6	2	24	47.1	2	17	33.3
	3	6	19.4	3	-		3	31	60.8
	4	3	9.7						
Total		31	100		51	100		51	100

* *Rating of centrality* : [1]: Somewhat important; [2]: Important; [3]: Extremely important.

Looking at the *dimensionality* results, it can be seen that they varied from [1] to [4]. Over half of the frequent ecotourists expressed two values during their laddering interviews. However 19.3% of the female frequent ecotourists mentioned only one value, as opposed to 12.5% of males. In overall terms, the dimensionality between the two groups was more or less comparable with the vast majority of people falling quite evenly into classes of two to three values (see table 6.3).

The *relatedness* scores were quite different. Initially, over half the frequent ecotourists associated a single (unique) consequence from the use of the ecotourism product to facilitate specific values. However for the females, 24 of their total values had connections to two consequences as opposed to 17 for the males. This indicated that females associated more consequences to satisfy their values for ecotourism, thus adopting a more thoughtful role towards ecotourism (see table 6.3).

Moreover, the depth of product knowledge was measured by *centrality*. Here, the vast majority of the respondents fall into the classes of 'important' and 'extremely important'. However, females tended to view the consumption values of ecotourism as more central to them. In this respect, females were slightly more involved in ecotourism. This was also evident from the results of centrality and more or less of dimensionality. Nevertheless, females associated more consequences to satisfy their values which in turn were classified as 'extremely important'. Hence, females' ecotourism knowledge structure was at much higher levels of ratings in comparison to males (see table 6.3).

6.3.5.1 An analysis of the hierarchical value maps

The following stage in the structural analysis is to evaluate the number of distinct concepts by using the HVM where the *strength of the relationship relies on the thickness of the line*. For example along the left side of the maps (see figure 6.1a, 6.1b) the upward paths from the attribute 'to see the natural environment and protected areas' [NA] were illustrated differently. For the males the latter item [NA] was connected with educational elements of the holiday, in an attempt to increase their knowledge [NA → EEEH → KNOW]. Another route was to experience the local culture as a way to enhance a mutual education with the local population in order to become more knowledgeable [NA → LC → EELP → KNOW].

In both cases, the achievement of the value [KNOW] was further related to an appreciation and respect of the world [KNOW → AWOB]. In contrast, during their visit to natural and protected areas females gave more of an emphasis on how to contribute to the preservation of the destinations. With the NA attribute as a starting point two strong ladders emerged:

- a) To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday because they tended to have an awareness of the world's natural environment as they appreciated and respected the world and aimed to increase their knowledge [NA → EEEH → AWE → AWOB → KNOW]; and
- b) To contribute actively in the conservation of these areas and maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers. These items, in turn were seen as instruments to help appreciate the world and increase their knowledge [NA → CONS → SFHM → AWOB → KNOW].

In comparing these paths it remained quite clear that the females had slightly more variables at the consequence level, thus adopting a more thoughtful view of ecotourism. This explained the overall ratings for relatedness and their unique criteria and/or elements used for their ecotourism travel activities. A related development for the experiences of males was the similar emphasis placed on values.

Theoretically speaking, values are expressed in a more consumption-oriented manner, and are the reasons behind the significance of the consequences of consumption (Reynolds et al, 1990; Laaksonen, 1994). Therefore, the output of the laddering process for the males on this attribute [NA], underlined that values determined their decision-making process when considering visiting the protected and natural areas. This was illustrated by the emphasis given to two values by both groups [AWOB, KNOW]. This attention did not conclude that females were more experienced individuals and males were novices. It rather reinforced the point that both gender groups belonged to an experienced category of frequent ecotourists in which the emphasis over certain elements of the means-end chain differed. As a result it revealed a similarity at the abstract level of the means-end chain and dimensionality ratings (see table 6.3), and further underlined the involvement stance of both groups towards ecotourism.

This stance was also evident from an additional interpretation in the concrete knowledge such as visits to natural environments and protected areas [NA]. Here, the males would go to such environments for relaxation and calmness in an attempt to become happy. The latter value was then connected to accomplishment and enjoyment

[NA → RC → ACC → ENJ]. Females on the other hand would go to natural settings as it was recommended to them by friends and relatives as they discovered that travel organizations mislead them and they wanted to obtain value for money from their holiday [NA → RECFR → TCWA → GVFM].

As the content analysis of the structural characteristics of the means-end chain indicated, the latter consequences had a likelihood of appearing only in the females' choices at 35.5% ($p < 0.05$) [see section 6.3.3]. Thus, it demonstrated an alternative aspect of the underlying knowledge structure of female consumers when traveling for an ecotourism holiday. Moreover, the female chains also illustrated their overall levels and types of expertise. For instance, although they weakly associated travel to third world countries as a way to experience the local culture, they quite strongly emphasized the need for a mutual education experience with the local population in an attempt to achieve accomplishment. The latter value was then connected to fulfillment and happiness [TWC → LC → EELP → ACC → FUL → HAP]. Moreover the two initial attributes (TWC and LC) were used as a means of respecting the local population and indigenous people, so they satisfied their end values of accomplishment, fulfillment and happiness [TWC → LC → RLPIP → ACC → FUL → HAP].

Quite differently however, another ladder was also revealed by achieving the end value of excitement [TWC → LC → EELP → EXC]. A similar pattern for the females occurred with regards to the price of the ecotourism holiday:

1. An expensive holiday was used as a means of having a lifetime memory which allowed them to get enjoyment and experience warm relationship with others [EXP → LTM → ENJOY → GWRO];
2. The first three items of the previous ladder led to different value distributions that of: accomplishment; fulfillment; and happiness [EXP → LTM → ENJOY → ACC → FUL → HAP]; and
3. A high-priced holiday was linked with evidence that travel companies used the label 'eco' to attract more people, whereas females intended to get value for money [EXC → TCWA → GVFM].

As far as the price of the ecotourism holidays was concerned the males had a less complex chain of meaning. It can be seen that this attribute was linked to conservation and awareness of the world's natural environment in an attempt to show an overall appreciation and respect to the world and increase their knowledge [EXP → CONS → AWE → AWOB → KNOW].

These dimensions were of course, relevant to the understanding of the concept of ecotourism by the two gender groups during the interviews. So far these results revealed that the diversity of the meaning of the dimensions was great. This was largely due to the wealth of knowledge given by the two gender groups to ecotourism, as well as to the differences in their socio-economic characteristics. For example, when examining income differences (see table 6.2) the moderate incomes of the females affected the means-end chain over the price element. For them, an expensive holiday was a more critical factor as it was related to getting value for money, as opposed to males where the price of the holiday was less important. Moreover, it can indeed be suggested that the values engaged in determining certain elements, tended to form an inter-connected cluster basis.

Finally, it is worth noting at this stage that the description of the ecotourism product experience process had been termed as '*core*' and '*enhanced and augmented*'. The former case included the consequences of the means-end chains related to the values of *KNOW* and *AWOB* only. The latter case detailed all other clusters of values. The reasoning behind this classification was that of the high ratings received from the knowledge and appreciation of the world in most of the results, thus termed as core elements of the ecotourism product experience process.

6.3.6 Comparison of female and male frequent ecotourists

The initial comprehension concerning the inter-connected cluster basis of values by the females' profile revealed two main groups (see figure 6.1a, 6.1b):

1. *Appreciate the world of beauty and knowledge (AWOB, KNOW), were associated with the so-called 'core elements of ecotourism product experience process' such as EEEH, CONS, AWE, SFHM, CDE consequences.* For instance, the attribute to go somewhere not solely commercial led to the concern that your presence there may damage the environment which further led to the two values [SC → CDE → AWOB → KNOW]; and
2. *Enjoyment, fulfillment, accomplishment and happiness (ENJOY, FUL, ACC, HAP) related with the so-called 'enhanced and augmented experience process elements' such as LTM, EA, EELP, RLPIP.* For instance, the attribute to travel to the wild places or unprotected areas on earth was associated to outdoor recreational activities, and to be more energetic and adventurous in an attempt to experience all the values in this cluster [WP → ORA → EA → ENJOY → ACC → FUL → HAP]. The survey and/or study of natural habitats led to lifetime memory and then to four values [SNH → LTM → ENJOY → ACC → FUL → HAP].

Similarly, within the males' profile there were two groups of clusters basis (see figure 6.1a, 6.1b):

1. *Appreciate the world of beauty, and knowledge (AWOB, KNOW) with the so-called 'core elements of the ecotourism experience process' like EELP, EEEH, AWE, CONS, CDE.* For instance, the attribute to do a survey or study of natural habitats led to awareness of the world's natural environment so they could satisfy the values within this cluster [SNH → AWE → AWOB → KNOW]. An alternative chain of the initial attribute was to become more educated which allowed them to meet their two values [SNH → EEEH → KNOW → AWOB]; and
2. *Enjoyment, happiness and accomplishment (ENJOY, HAP, ACC) related with the so-called 'enhanced and augmented experience process elements of the ecotourism product' such as RC, LTM, EA.* For instance the participation in

outdoor and recreational activities led to becoming more energetic and adventurous which in turn were seen as instruments in achieving the values [ORA → EA → ENJOY → HAP → ACC]. Another example arose from visits to a unique exclusive place which was an attempt to have a lifetime memory, to be relaxed and calm in order to satisfy all the values in this cluster [UEP → LTM → RC → HAP → ACC → ENJOY].

In comparing the value cluster basis and taking into account the results from the content analysis, it can be seen that both groups were experienced consumers revealing both a concrete and abstract knowledge. In terms of similarities, visits to natural and protected areas was revealed as the most important attribute between the two groups (see section 6.3.2). These visits in general terms were considered to include the educational and conservation experience, in an attempt to increase their knowledge (KNOW) and showed respect and appreciation for the world we live in (AWOB). The females' role over conservation was emphasized more at the consequences level such as in the case of maintaining the environmental standards for future holiday makers [SFHM]. Thus, they were slightly more aware of their contribution to the protection of the natural environment. This conceptualization was that the importance of the consequences was greatly stressed by the females revealing a more knowledgeable and experienced group of frequent ecotourists. Another similar emphasis was given over the role of values. This was illustrated from the treatment of outdoor recreation activities in which the females had one outnumbered value over the male group, that of fulfillment [FUL]. Although both groups tended to view the outdoor recreation activities with less wealthier connections as opposed to educational and conservation elements, they determined that it was a matter of enjoyment, happiness and accomplishment.

In terms of conceptual differences it can be seen that in general terms, the females had more values connected with elements of the means-end chain, expressing the view that values were high, central or important to them (see table 6.3). Despite this, the analysis also indicated three dissimilar elements within their HVM, that of: price; interaction with the local culture; surveys and/or studies of natural habitats; and relaxation. The price of the holiday [EXP] was magnified more by the females than by

the males. In the content analysis the latter element was more likely to be mentioned by the women as opposed to men (see section 6.3.2). This diversification was evident by the females not only at the likelihood of appearance level, but at the consequences and values levels in the structural analysis.

The wealthier male group were less concerned about the expensive of the holiday. For them, it was a part of their core element of the ecotourism holiday experience process which consisted of education, and conservation in an attempt to satisfy the values in the first group of clusters [KNOW, AWOB]. On the other hand, the females had a greater concern over price, by associating this item with the creation of a lifetime memory [LTM], and with the values in their second cluster basis [ENJ, FUL, ACC, HAP]. Hence, more values were activated during their decision-making process over the price element, in part they were more demanding over the enhanced and augmented experience elements process of their ecotourism holiday.

This was further enhanced by their unique emphasis on 'getting value for money' [GVFM] both in the structural and content analysis ($n=4$, 28.6%, $p<0.05$). With regards to this, it can be hypothesized that the wealthier group of males tended to consider the price element less in their ecotourism decision-making process. Next, the experience of the local culture [LC] was also mentioned by males as an element of their core ecotourism holiday experience process. This can be seen to denote the elements of education with local people and the satisfaction of the values within that cluster basis [KNOW, AWOB]. In contrast, the females referred to the local culture and mutual education with local people as part of their enhanced and augmented ecotourism holiday experience process, thus satisfaction of these elements was subject to the satisfaction of four values [ENJOY, HAP, FUL, ACC]. The surveys and/or studies of natural habitats [SNH] were regarded more by the males as opposed to females (see section 6.3.2). Although this difference was not great, the interpretation of this item differs. The males considered the surveys to increase their knowledge and appreciation to the world (core elements of the ecotourism experience process) and the females as a matter of a lifetime memory (enhanced and augmented elements). Further, all the effects of age and income differences were more evident in

the relaxation component of the holiday [RC]. It followed that the middle-aged group of males had uniquely emphasized this consequence both in the content (see section 6.3.3) and in the structural analysis (i.e. the association with three values: ENJOY, HAP, ACC). Thus, with this element as part of their enhanced and augmented ecotourism holiday experience process, the importance given by males during their decision making was underlined.

Finally, because the different approaches gave a distinct, although in some parts, related view of ecotourism, it was inappropriate to generalize at this stage. This is why in the subsequent sections, a presentation of the content and structural characteristics in the low, medium, and high involvement groups of frequent ecotourists will be outlined.

6.4 AN ANALYSIS OF THE LOW, MEDIUM AND HIGH INVOLVED FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS

The outcome of the interviews showed significant patterns of variations among the involvement groups. In particular, most of the people in the low involvement category (n=7) were non-frequent ecotourists, as they tended to visit destinations only once in their lifetime and showed no further interest to partake in ecotourism holidays in the future. People in medium involvement (n=22) tended to go on an ecotourism holiday once in a two year period and were moderately interested in the concept. People in the high involvement group (n=26) were extremely committed to ecotourism as they tended to go on an ecotourism holiday once a year and participate in expeditions and voluntary work.

6.4.1 The content elements structure of low, medium and high involvement frequent ecotourists

The first task of the content analysis of the levels of involvement is to identify the variance of the means-end chain items across the levels. Here, the Scheffe test of the analysis of variance did apply, underlining the main difference between low, medium and high involvement groups. In the first instance the test measured the difference of the total items of the means-end chain (attributes, consequences and values) between the levels of involvement (Low= 5.7, Medium= 6.5, High= 7.8; $F[3, 56]= 6.2, p<0.01$). The results of this test revealed the significant effects of involvement between the groups. It indicated that high-involved frequent ecotourists activated more attributes, consequences and values in total as opposed to low and medium involvement groups. Because of this, they were more knowledgeable and experienced ecotourists. These differences in overall knowledge towards ecotourism were reflected in the average length of the means-end chain. According to the results of the test, high-involvement subjects had somewhat longer chains on average than the low and medium involvement subjects (Low= 1.8, Medium=1.8, High= 2.0; $F [3,56]=1.2, p<0.5$). It followed that the content of the ecotourism knowledge structure for high-involved frequent ecotourists was more complete or richer than lower-involvement frequent ecotourists. Further, the Scheffe test was applied to measure the differences between the attributes, consequences and values across the levels of involvement. The findings showed that:

- There were no significant differences between the examined groups in terms of attributes (Low= 2.4, Medium= 2.4, High= 2.7; $F[3,56]=0.9, p<0.5$);
- There were no significant differences between the examined groups in terms of values (Low= 1.8, Medium= 2.2, High= 2.3; $F[3,56]=0.5, p<0.5$); and
- There were significant differences between the examined groups at the consequences level which were in favor of the high-involvement group (Low= 1.4, Medium=1.9, High= 2.7; $F[3,57]=8.79, p<0.001$).

In addition, differences were also revealed between the low and medium involvement group *indicating that for each involvement subject knowledge of ecotourism was influenced according to their levels of involvement*. The high score of the F-ratio gauged the diversity between the means of involvement groups ($F=8.79$) supported with very significant levels of probability ($p<0.001$). As indicated earlier, the focus of the means-end chain is on the importance of the consequences level rather than on attributes (see section 6.1). This evaluation highlighted that high-involved frequent ecotourists had a better understanding of how specific attributes influenced their ecotourism holiday experiences (consequences), and how these consequences assisted them to achieve their abstract knowledge (values).

In order to examine these trends between the levels of involvement from the content analysis in more depth the use of the -2 Log likelihood statistic will highlight differences between the ladders (see figures 6.2a, 6.2b, 6.2c). The hierarchical value map of the low involvement group accounted for 100% of all direct and indirect relationships with a cut-off value of one. However owing to the lack of any associations within the *low involvement group, it has been excluded from further analysis* (see figure 6.2a). The seven frequent ecotourists who were in the low involvement category failed to demonstrate any strong relationships between attributes, consequences and values. Therefore, the attention will be given to the maps of the medium involvement frequent ecotourists depicting 69% of all the connections (direct and indirect), and the high involvement frequent ecotourists map which accounted for 64% of the relationships, with a cut-off value of two in both cases.

Figure 6.2a The hierarchical value map of low involvement frequent ecotourists

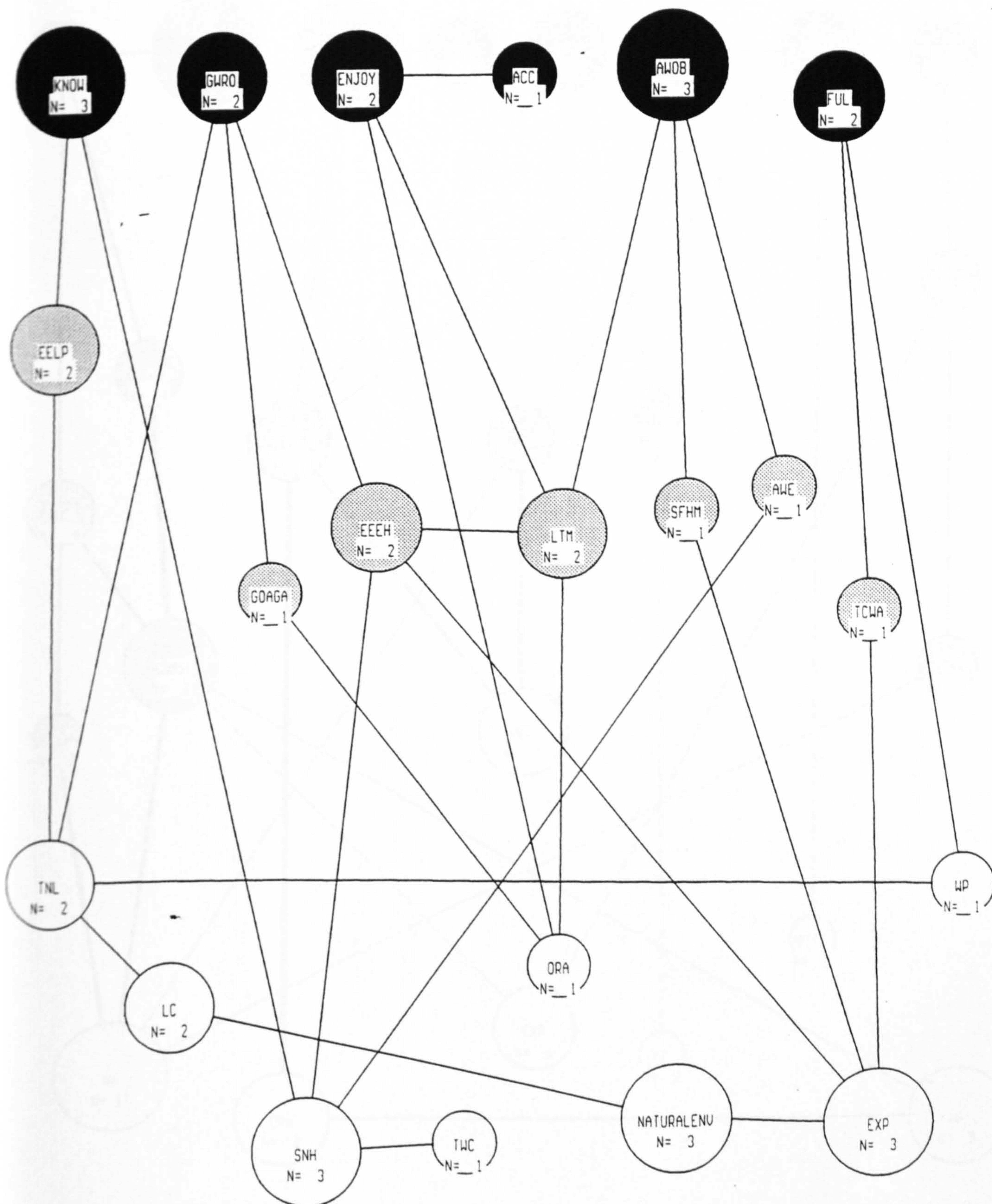


Figure 6.2b The hierarchical value map of medium involvement frequent ecotourists

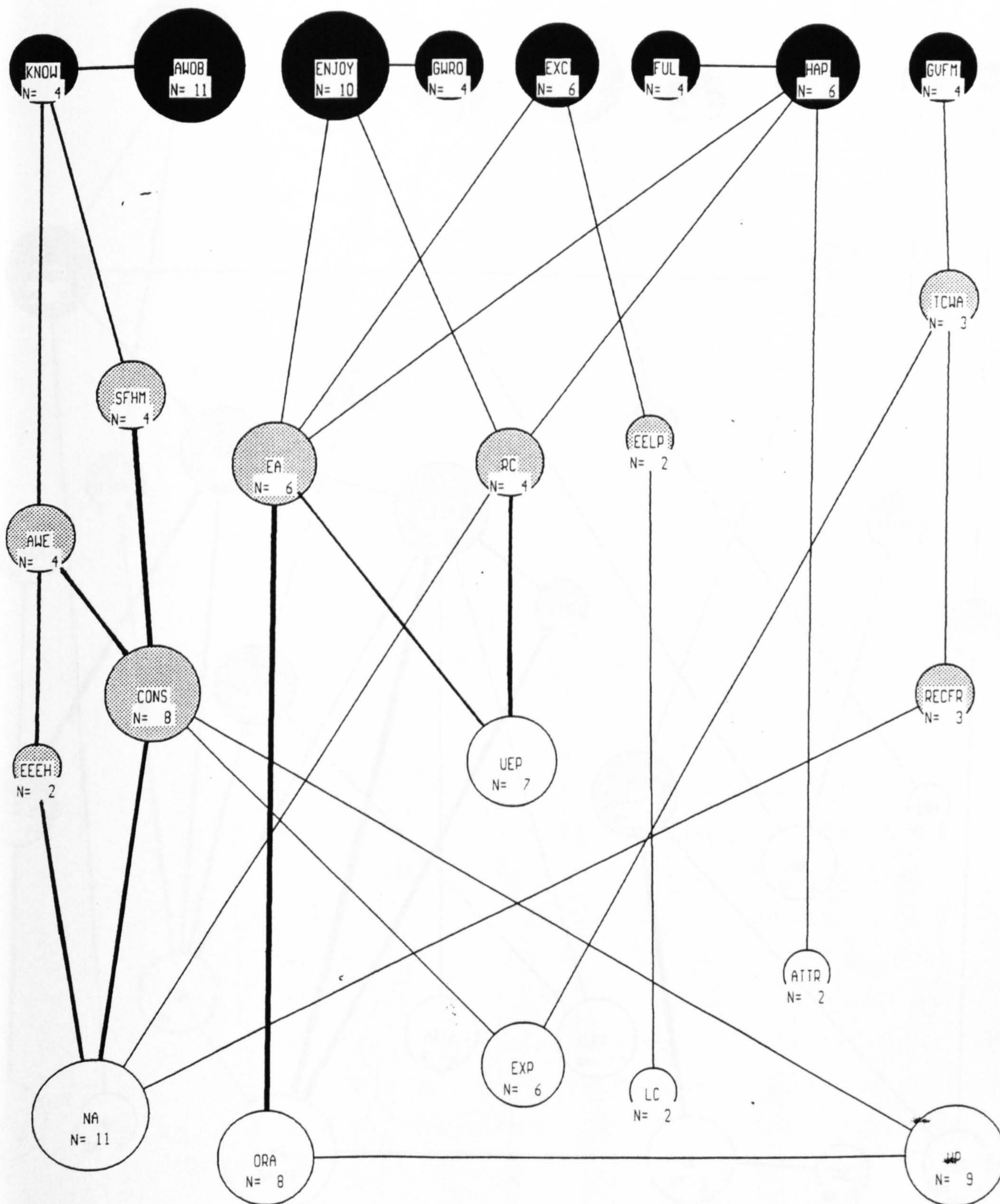
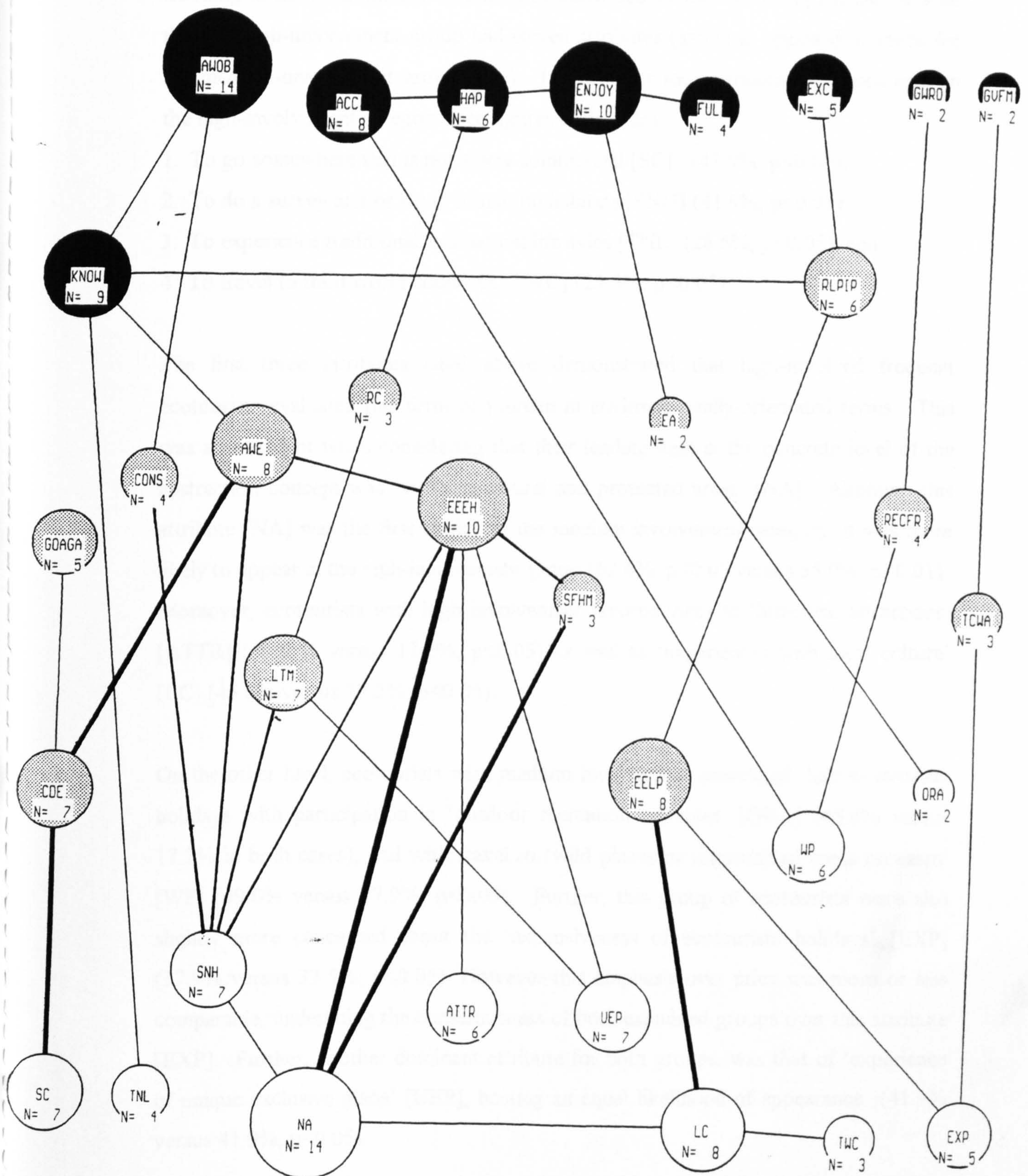


Figure 6.2c The hierarchical value map of high involvement frequent ecotourists



6.4.2 Attributes

Looking at the total number of attributes generated by the two groups it can be seen that the high-involvement group had eleven attributes ($a=11$) as opposed to seven for the medium-involvement group ($a=7$). In particular four attributes appeared only in the high-involvement category (see figures 6.2b, 6.2c):

1. To go somewhere that is not solely commercial [SC] (41.9%, $p<0.05$);
2. To do a survey and/or study of natural habitats [SNH] (41.9%, $p<0.05$);
3. To experience traditional and natural lifestyles [TNL] (28.6%, $p<0.05$); and
4. To travel to third world countries [TWC] (23.3%, $p<0.05$).

The first three attributes cited above demonstrated that high-involved frequent ecotourists evaluated this form of tourism in environmentally-orientated terms. This was also evident when considering that their leading item at the concrete level of the abstraction concept was 'visits to natural and protected areas' [NA]. Although this attribute [NA] was the first choice of the medium involvement category, it was more likely to appear in the high-involvement group (62.4%, $p<0.05$ versus 55.0%, $p<0.01$). Moreover, ecotourists with high involvement favored visits to 'historical attractions' [ATTR] (37.9 % versus 17.2%, $p<0.05$) as well as 'experiences with local culture' [LC] (45.6% versus 17.2%, $p<0.05$).

On the other hand, ecotourists with medium involvement associated their ecotourism holidays with participation in 'outdoor recreation activities' [ORA] (45.6% versus 17.2% in both cases), and with travel to 'wild places or unprotected areas on earth' [WP] (49.0% versus 37.9%; $p<0.05$). Further, this group of ecotourists were also slightly more concerned about the 'expensiveness of ecotourism holidays' [EXP] (37.9% versus 33.5%; $p<0.05$). However this emphasis over price was more or less comparable, underlining the consciousness of both examined groups over this attribute [EXP]. Further, another dominant attribute for both groups, was that of 'experience of unique exclusive place' [UEP], hosting an equal likelihood of appearance (41.9% versus 41.9%, $p<0.05$).

In sum, a detailed examination of the concrete levels of the means-end chain revealed certain differences. Although these differences may not be statistically significant ($F\text{-ratio} = 0.9, p < 0.5$), from a conceptual perspective they gave an insight into an alternative interpretation at the concrete levels. The high-involvement group tended to have more environmental orientated attributes and the medium-involvement group favored the outdoor activities component of ecotourism holidays.

6.4.3 Consequences

Theoretically speaking, the dimensions of frequent ecotourists' cognitive structure are interpreted by the unique number and patterns of consequences relationships between their chains (Reynolds et al, 1990; Mulvey et al, 1994; Gutman, 1982). Initially, the Scheffe test revealed that frequent ecotourists mentioned consequences more than attributes and values in their interviews ($F\text{-ratio} = 8.79, p < 0.001$). On a similar vein with the analysis of the Scheffe test, the conceptual perspective uncovered an identical trend. The high-involved frequent ecotourists had thirteen consequences in total ($c=13$) as opposed to nine consequences for the medium-involvement group ($c=9$). In particular, high-involvement subjects mentioned four unique consequences as opposed to none for the other examined group. These were:

1. To be concerned that your presence there may damage the environment [CDE] (41.9%, $p < 0.05$);
2. To create a memory that normal holidays could not give me [LTM] (41.9%, $p < 0.05$);
3. To respect the local population and indigenous people [RLPIP] (37.9%, $p < 0.05$);
4. To go again, when possible [GOAGA] (33.5%, $p < 0.05$).

These unique consequences underlined that high-involved frequent ecotourists were very knowledgeable and devoted to this form of tourism. It followed that their product knowledge structure was more 'interconnected', reflecting their high levels of expertise. They also addressed an interaction with locals based on mutual respect. As such they seemed to possess the view of one respondent in that the 'primitive people can teach us a lot about how we can survive together'. Further, the main difference

between the two groups was over the educational elements. Specifically, the awareness and educationally-orientated consequences were more likely to appear in the high-involvement group as opposed to the medium:

- Have an awareness of the world's natural environment [AWE] (45.6% versus 28.6%; $p < 0.05$);
- To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday [EEEH] (52.1% versus 17.2%; $p < 0.05$); and
- To educate and be educated by local people [EELP] (45.6% versus 17.2%; $p < 0.05$).

In contrast the medium-involvement group contained consequences with a higher likelihood of appearance. These were: to be more energetic and adventurous [EA] (37.9% versus 17.2%; $p < 0.05$); and to contribute actively in conservation of these areas [CONS] (45.6% versus 28.6%; $p < 0.05$). The nature of their consequences indicated that the medium-involvement group was also aware of assisting in the preservation of the destinations natural areas. This indicated that both groups were familiar with the paradox associated with ecotourism holidays, and aimed not to enhance any negative impacts to the environment. Finally, the remaining consequences mentioned by both groups were more or less equally shared between them:

- To feel relaxed and calm [RC] (23.3% versus 28.6%; $p < 0.05$);
- It was recommended by friends [RECFR] (28.6% versus 23.3%; $p < 0.05$);
- To maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers [SFHM] (23.3% versus 28.6%; $p < 0.05$); and
- Travel companies just use the word 'ecoholidays' to attract more people [TCWA] (23.3%, $p < 0.05$ in both cases).

In sum, the high-involvement group acknowledged an educational and ecological orientated role in their consequences. The medium-involvement group provided a blend of both conservation and outdoor recreational characteristics.

6.4.4 Values

The total number of values generated by high-involvement subjects ($v=9$) slightly outnumbered those of the medium-involvement group ($v=8$). This provided further supporting evidence for the earlier findings (Scheffe test) that no significant differences were between the two groups. It is interesting however, to note the conceptual similarities and differences among the two groups. In terms of similarities, the leading value shared between the two subjects was that of: 'appreciate and respect the world we live in' [AWOB] (High= 62.4%, Medium= 55.0%; $p<0.05$ in both cases). Thus, it was more likely to appear in a high-involvement group, than in a medium group. In spite of this there were three other values with an equal likelihood of appearance:

- Have fun and enjoyment in life [ENJOY] (52.15%; $p<0.05$ in both cases);
- Achieve happiness [HAP] (37.9%; $p<0.05$ in both cases); and
- Get self fulfillment [FUL] (28.6%; $p<0.05$ in both cases).

In terms of conceptual differences the high-involvement group mentioned one unique value, that of 'getting a sense of accomplishment' [ACC] (45.6%, $p<0.05$) followed by their attempt 'to become more knowledgeable' [KNOW] (49.0% versus 28.6%; $p<0.05$ in both cases). It seemed, therefore, that the high-involvement group of frequent ecotourists had a slightly deeper breadth of knowledge and expertise in ecotourism. In line with this assumption, the medium-involvement group also had a wide knowledge of ecotourism. In particular, three values were expressed with a likelihood of appearance in favor to them:

- Get value for money [GVFM] (28.6% versus 17.2%; $p<0.05$);
- Experience warm relationships with others [GWRO] (28.6% versus 17.2%; $p<0.05$); and
- Get excitement [EXC] (37.9% versus 33.5%; $p<0.05$).

This reflected the view that both groups were quite similar in terms of their value adoption. This was also pronounced from the value 'enjoyment' [ENJOY] which both groups highlighted equally as their second leading value.

In sum, high-involvement subjects had one unique value, although in this case the similarities between the two involvement groups were greater in contrast to both conceptual and quantitative differences revealed at their consequences level. This also affected the following structural elements of their means-end chain knowledge, especially the dimensionality and centrality.

6.4.5 The structure elements of medium, and high involvement groups

The structural linkages between the two involvement groups (medium and high) were similar in many respects, but there were certain dissimilarities in meaning in individual means-end chains (see table 6.4).

Table 6.4 *Elements of the ecotourism cognitive structure for low, medium and high involvement groups*

<i>Levels of involvement</i>	<i>Dimensionality</i>			<i>Relatedness</i>			<i>Centrality</i>		
	No of Dimensions	No of Respondents	%	Score of Relatedness	No of Values	%	Rating of Centrality *	No of Values	%
Low	1	3	42.8	1	9	81.8	1	5	45.5
	2	2	28.6	2	2	18.2	2	1	9.0
	3	2	28.6	3	-		3	5	45.5
	4	-							
Total		7	100		11	100		11	100
Medium	1	4	18.2	1	17	51.5	1	-	
	2	11	50.0	2	16	48.5	2	8	24.2
	3	5	22.7	3	-		3	25	75.8
	4	2	9.1						
Total		22	100		33	100		33	100
High	1	2	7.7	1	29	53.7	1	3	5.6
	2	16	61.5	2	23	42.6	2	30	55.6
	3	6	23.1	3	2	3.7	3	21	38.8
	4	2	7.7						
Total		26	100		54	100		54	100

* *Rating of centrality* : [1]: Somewhat important; [2]: Important; [3]: Extremely important.

The *dimensionality* results of the medium-involvement group revealed that just half of the frequent ecotourists interviewed mentioned two values. Here, 31.8% identified three to four values expressing their diversity in the abstract levels of their chains. In a similar vein, the majority of the high-involvement subjects generated two values and activated three to four values in their ladders (see table 6.4).

The *relatedness* scores on the other hand mainly supported the high-involvement group. Most of the ecotourists in the high category identified only one consequence to facilitate a specific value. Quite similarly, the medium-involvement group adopted an identical linkage. However, the interpretation given by the high-involvement consumers that 25 of their total 54 values had connections to two and three consequences, as opposed to 16 for their medium-involvement counterparts underlined their intrinsic knowledge. It followed that although relatedness scores commonly received a rating of one, there were also variations across the levels of involvement of frequent ecotourists (see table 6.4).

Within *centrality* both groups facilitated the notion that values were attached with importance ratings. The medium-involvement group highlighted that their values were on an 'extremely important' scale, while the high-involvement group declared their values with 'importance' and 'extremely important' ratings. Consequently, the ratings given by respondents indicated that the centrality results were not varied across frequent ecotourists. Hence, most of the values mentioned in the interviews were allotted during decision-making procedures (see table 6.4).

6.4.5.1 An analysis of the hierarchical value maps

Within these views the analysis of the HVM's revealed a number of significant results. Looking at the left hand side of the maps (see figures 6.2b, 6.2c), it can be seen that the high involvement group enjoyed more connections, thus adopting a more thoughtful view over ecotourism. In particular, the leading attribute was 'to see the natural environment and protected areas' [NA]. Both groups went to such settings in an attempt to educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday so they could increase both their awareness of the world's natural environment and their knowledge expressing their overall respect and appreciation for the world we live in

[NA → EEEH → AWE → KNOW → AWOB]. Although this ladder provided evidence that their primary knowledge structures on ecotourism were identical, the high-involvement group considered the environmental education component more when evaluating ecotourism. From the attribute 'to visit the natural environment and protected areas' [NA], and the end values of 'increasing their knowledge' and 'show their respect and appreciation of the world' [KNOW, AWOB] four chains materialized:

- a) To maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers, so they could educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday, revealing both an awareness and an achievement of their values [NA → SFHM → EEEH → AWE → KNOW → AWOB];
- b) In order to participate in a survey and/or study of natural habitats because they were aware of the world's natural environment so that they could achieve their values [NA → SNH → AWE → KNOW → AWOB];
- c) In order to do a survey and/or study of natural habitats, so they could contribute in conservation of these areas and meet their values [NA → SNH → CONS → AWOB → KNOW]; and
- d) To do a survey and/or study of natural habitats, so they educate and could be educated by the ecotourism holiday, revealing their awareness and values [NA → SNH → EEEH → AWE → KNOW → AWOB].

On the other hand, the medium involvement group were less concerned about increasing their educational levels, and sought ways to contribute to the conservation of these areas. In particular, the visits to natural settings [NA] had a similar appeal in that the end values were to increase their KNOW and AWOB. Here two distinct chains emerged:

- To contribute actively in conservation of these areas and maintain the environmental standards for future frequent ecotourists, so they could achieve their values [NA → CONS → SFHM → KNOW → AWOB]; and
- To contribute actively in conservation of these areas, increase their awareness and meet their values [NA → CONS → AWE → KNOW → AWOB].

So far, both groups appeared to illustrate their role in the educational and conservation components of the ecotourism holiday. Not only did they learn about the natural habitats and the associated ecology of these areas, but they were aware of the sensitivity of these landscapes and tried to assist in the minimization of their environmental impacts. With respect to these similarities, their roles in terms of education or learning differed. The high-involvement frequent ecotourists addressed a more in-depth learning process during their holidays. This was evident from the three chains that emanated regarding surveys and /or studies of natural habitats. From this, it was concluded that the medium-involvement group facilitated a more simple observation learning process. The wealthier knowledge structure of the high-involvement group was exemplified in one ladder which brought to light their unique attribute, 'of going somewhere not solely commercial' [SC].

This revealed their concern that their presence could damage the environment and their awareness of the environmental consequences, as well as going to such unique places in order to increase their knowledge and appreciate and respect the world we live in [SC → CDE → AWE → KNOW → AWOB]. However, this emphasis on the educational and conservational aspects of the holidays was not the only one exhibited in their means-end chains. In particular the medium-involvement group favored participation in outdoor-recreational activities [ORA] in three instances:

1. They became more energetic and adventurous in order to find enjoyment and warm relationships with others [ORA → EA → ENJOY → GWRO];
2. They became more energetic and adventurous in order to get excitement [ORA → EA → EXC]; and
3. They became more energetic and adventurous in order to achieve happiness and get fulfillment [ORA → EA → HAP → FUL].

Furthermore they associated the outdoor recreational activities in conjunction with the conservation components indicating their overall favoritism in participating in such activities as well as to conserve the natural areas through two ladders:

- Participation in outdoor recreation activities led to travel to wild places or unprotected areas on earth which led to contributing actively in conservation of

these areas, maintaining the standards for future holiday makers and satisfying their end values [ORA → WP → CONS → SFHM → KNOW → AWOB]; and

- Participation in outdoor recreation activities led to travel to wild places or unprotected areas on earth which led to actively contributing in the conservation of these areas, while increasing their awareness of the world's natural environment and meeting their values [ORA → WP → CONS → AWE → KNOW → AWOB].

Within these views, it can be summarized that if these respondents had only emphasized their activities/interests without any reference to conservation, then these frequent ecotourists would not belong to a group of ecotourists who were concerned with minimizing their environmental impacts during their holidays. By prioritizing the minimization of environmental impacts as an element in this way may not however be representative of the ecotourism choice process. The primary motivation of frequent ecotourists involved natural and social interaction, more than the minimization of impacts which served as a secondary consideration.

It follows, that the view of this research is that frequent ecotourists may have the intention of participating in outdoor activities as well as ensuring the 'minimization of environmental impacts' principle. This is not to say that the high-involvement group which has a leading interest in becoming more energetic and adventurous are not frequent ecotourists. It rather reinforces the thought that they belong to a highly knowledgeable and dedicated group of ecotourists who do not partake in a lot of activities. This was evident from the weak association involving the elements of outdoor recreation activities [ORA] and becoming more energetic and adventurous [EA], as well as to a different interpretation of travel to wild places or unprotected areas on earth. Here, travel to such places occurred after recommendations by friends, which in turn allowed them to obtain warm relationships with others [WP → RECFR → GWRO].

The next most important combination of ladders for the high-involvement group was illustrated from the social interaction component. Although they weakly associated visits to natural environments and protected areas with the local culture, they quite strongly emphasized the need for a mutual education experience. This allowed them to

respect the local population and indigenous people which in turn increased their knowledge and revealed their appreciation and respect for the world [NA → LC → EELP → RLPIP → KNOW → AWOB] or to find excitement [NA → LC → EELP → RLPIP → EXC].

Thereafter, both groups detailed their ecotourism experience in terms of going to a unique exclusive place. The interpretation of this attribute, however, has been addressed in different ways:

- The medium-involvement group went to such a place in order to become more energetic and adventurous which in turn satisfied four different sets of values [UEP → EA → ENJOY → GWRO], [UEP → EA → EXC], [UEP → EA → HAP → FUL]. To some extent, the experience of a unique place also made them relaxed and calm and showed an achievement of their end values [UEP → RC → ENJOY → GWRO], [UEP → RC → HAP → FUL]; and
- The high-involvement subjects emphasized that they went to such places in order to educate and be educated by an ecotourism holiday, and increase their awareness followed by the values of KNOW and AWOB [UEP → EEEH → AWE → KNOW → AWOB]. Alternatively, they went to such exclusive places in order to obtain a lifetime memory and to be relaxed and calm, which in turn satisfied four values [UEP → LTM → RC → HAP → ACC → ENJOY → FUL].

These distinct levels of manipulation also applied to the expensiveness of the ecotourism holiday. More specifically, using an expensive holiday as a starting item, the medium involvement group would like to:

- a) Contribute to conservation and increase their awareness, knowledge and appreciate and respect the world we live in [EXP → CONS → AWE → KNOW → AWOB];
- b) Contribute to conservation, set the standards for future holiday makers, increase their knowledge and appreciate and respect the world we live in [EXP → CONS → SFHM → KNOW → AWOB]; and
- c) Travel companies just overused the 'ecoholidays' label to attract more people and get value for money [EXP → TCWA → GVFM].

The high involvement group gave an emphasis to educate and be educated by the local people, respect the local population and indigenous people, increase their knowledge and appreciate and respect the world we live in [EXP → EELP → RLPIP → KNOW → AWOB] or get excitement [EXP → EELP → RLPIP → EXC]. Moreover, they emphasized that travel companies just overused the 'ecoholidays' label to attract more people and get value for money [EXP → TCWA → GVFM].

A common tenet between both groups was to partake in ecotourism holidays, despite the expensive price. This was evident from the association between the examined attribute [EXP] and 'get value for money'. This is not to assume that price was not an important factor in the decision making process. It underlined the trend that both groups, to some extent are willing to pay as much as they can to satisfy their needs. These were the conservation elements for the medium-involvement group and the social interaction components for the high. Whilst, in general the high-involvement group revealed more connections, there was enough evidence to suggest the existence of an inter-connected cluster basis of values. These bases were strikingly similar to those of male and female frequent ecotourists in the previous section but there were some dissimilarities especially for the medium involvement group.

6.4.6 Comparison of medium and high involvement frequent ecotourists

Medium-involvement frequent ecotourists revealed three inter-connected cluster bases of values (see figure 6.2b, 6.2c):

1. *Appreciate the world of beauty and knowledge (AWOB, KNOW), were associated with the so-called 'core elements of ecotourism product experience process' with CONS, AWE, EEEH, SFHM during their visit to natural and protected areas;*
2. *Enjoyment and get warm relationships with others (ENJOY, GWRO) related with the so-called 'enhanced and augmented experience process elements of the ecotourism product' mainly with RC, EA consequences; and*
3. *Fulfillment and happiness (FUL, HAP) related with the so-called 'enhanced and augmented experience process elements of the ecotourism product' such as RC, EA consequences.*

In contrast, the high-involvement subjects had **two inter-connected cluster bases** of values (see figure 6.2b, 6.2c):

1. *Appreciate the world of beauty and knowledge (AWOB , KNOW), were associated with the so-called 'core elements of ecotourism product experience process' mainly with AWE, CDE, EEEH, SFHM, CONS, EELP, RLPIP consequences during their visit to natural and protected areas; and*
2. *Accomplishment, fulfillment, enjoyment and happiness (ACC,FUL,ENJOY,HAP) related with the so-called 'enhanced and augmented experience process elements of the ecotourism product' primarily with the LTM, RC consequences and less with EA consequences.*

In these cluster bases a key issue transpired from the elements included within the profile of the two involvement groups. Both medium and high-involvement frequent ecotourists had as core values AWOB and KNOW. This was initially evident from their visits to natural and protected areas [NA]. More specifically, the medium-involvement group emphasized the conservation elements of their holiday experience [CONS], and awareness was a secondary consideration as were maintaining environmental standards for future holiday makers and the educational components [AWE, SFHM, EEEH]. All these consequences satisfied the values within the first cluster group [AWOB, KNOW]. On the other hand, the high-involvement frequent ecotourists contained an identical first group of values cluster. However, they gave more emphasis to obtaining an educational experience both from the holiday and the local population [EEEH, EELP].

Further, in the previous section of this analysis concerning the relatedness results (see section 6.4.5) it was revealed that the high-involvement subjects penetrated more consequences during their laddering results. This penetration can be found in the values of KNOW and AWOB. For instance, there were two unique consequences in relation to these elements, that of 'to be concerned that your presence there may damage the environment' [CDE], and 'to respect the local population and indigenous people' [RLPIP], as well as elements with a higher likelihood of appearance.

In addition, both the groups emphasized that the expensive price of the eco-holiday was part of the process to meet the values within the first group of clusters [KNOW, AWOB]. This underlined that the price did not affect the demand for ecotourism holidays. This additionally implied that the actual values within the first group of clusters were the primary determinants of the price element, followed by getting value for money (see figures 6.2b, 6.2c).

In overall terms the core values of the ecotourism experience process were evenly split, although the high-involvement group revealed a wealthier product knowledge structure. Next a different perspective was given for the 'enhanced and augmented experience process elements of the ecotourism product'. The main findings of this section revealed that the primary considerations for the medium involvement group were outdoor recreational activities and the relaxation component. These two elements were diversified into two groups of clusters. This suggested that either certain elements of outdoor recreational activities and the relaxation component were dependent on both clusters of values and/or certain frequent ecotourists activated one or two value clusters during their decision-making. In contrast, although the high-involvement subjects gave a minor emphasis to outdoor recreation activities, and introduced a 'lifetime memory' as a consequence, they had only one cluster basis containing four values. This underlined that the satisfaction of these elements was subject to the satisfaction of four core values [ENJOY, HAP, FUL, ACC].

Finally, further discussions regarding the distribution of the medium and high-involvement concepts among the gender groups are required before firm conclusions can be drawn regarding the profiles of the frequent ecotourists. Because of this, a detailed content and structure analysis of the male and female medium and high involvement results was carried out.

6.5 AN ANALYSIS OF MALE AND FEMALE MEDIUM AND HIGH INVOLVED FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS

The purpose of this part of the analysis is to elaborate on the content and structural linkages of the gender groups within the medium and high-involvement categories (see appendix 9). Within this perspective the profiles of male and female frequent ecotourists were underlined when the involvement effects were taken into consideration. In particular, the aims were: to deduce how the ecotourism knowledge of a general involvement profile (i.e medium) was allocated within each of the gender groups; and to identify the significant differences not only between the gender involvement groups but also with the general profile of frequent ecotourists without the effects of involvement.

The results suggested that the female group were the more knowledgeable individuals both in terms of the medium and high-involvement categories. In particular, their entire knowledge structure was richer as opposed to males. Overall, the analysis pointed that the effects of involvement did influence the profiles of frequent ecotourists, especially those of the female high involvement group who were the leading group in all the examined categories (see appendix 9).

6.6 SUMMARY

This chapter has provided a qualitative analysis of the involvement profiles of frequent ecotourists by utilising the results of the laddering interviews. The ecotourists' involvement profile serves as a basis for identifying both the content and the structure of their concept of ecotourism through the elaboration of attributes, consequences and values. The profile of the sample of frequent ecotourists revealed a dominance of females. Females were more likely to be younger than the males and to travel with one or two persons, whereas males were more likely to be higher income earners. The educational standard of males and females were comparable, although males were more likely to hold a postgraduate qualification.

In terms of attributes, the sample showed a rich level of product knowledge relating to ecotourism, whilst with consequences, female ecotourists emerged as more experienced and knowledgeable. In particular, female ecotourists demonstrated a concern for negative ecotourism practices. The sample demonstrated a large number of values, with emphasis on their appreciation and respect for the world. This analysis is supported by the hierarchical value mapping (HVM) exercise, where the sample emerged as a group of experienced consumers, but females again demonstrated a more thoughtful view of ecotourism.

The interviewees were classified into three levels of involvement using the PII scale - high involvement, medium involvement and low involvement. For the purposes of the analysis the low involvement group was omitted. Medium involvement ecotourists tended to take an ecotourism holiday once in a two year period and were moderately interested in the concept, whilst those in the high involvement category traveled more frequently and were highly committed to the concept.

This was reflected in the results of the means end chain where high involvement ecotourists emerged as knowledgeable and experienced, with a richer product knowledge. For attributes, the high involvement group associated ecotourism with an environmental orientation, whereas the medium involvement group associated it with outdoor recreation. In terms of consequences the high involvement group were more likely to identify environmental awareness and education compared to the medium involvement group where active conservation and outdoor recreation characteristics emerged. Both groups had values relating to the appreciation/respect of the world. In summary, the HVMs showed that both groups took ecotourism holidays in natural settings to increase both their awareness of the world's natural environment and their knowledge, expressing their overall respect and appreciation for the world.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE PROFILES OF FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS: A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS (II)

7.0 The profiles of frequent ecotourists: a quantitative analysis (II)

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Behavioral studies of ecotourists illustrate that 'primary-purpose' individuals are few and far between, as they tend to spend a small or a large subset of their experience on other forms of tourism such as farm and rural tourism (see chapter 2). It is these generic behavioral patterns of ecotourists that have created the vagueness surrounding their characteristics and inevitably affects the credibility of the concept of ecotourism. In an attempt to overcome some of the above limitations this chapter will examine the characteristics of its core clientele base, that of the frequent ecotourists.

The process of examining the basic characteristics and product knowledge of these individuals occurred in chapter 6. While the means-end chain in the qualitative analysis provided the depth and the associations within the knowledge structure of frequent ecotourists, this chapter will outline the preferred domains of their knowledge structure. Further, a comparison of the unidimensional (PII) and means-end chain perspectives of involvement (see chapter 3, sections 3.5 and 3.11) will attest if these two distinct measures are comparable, in other words if these techniques underline similar levels of involvement (i.e. high or medium). For this purpose a *questionnaire was designed based on the laddering results and was distributed to 970 frequent ecotourists of which 379 were returned detailing a response rate of 39.1%* (see appendix 6).

The structure of this chapter will initially outline the socio-demographic characteristics of ecotourists, followed by an assessment of their attributes and consequences. Next, the nature of their involvement and the values of ecotourists will be detailed. Finally, the relationships between attributes and consequences, as well as consequences and values will be outlined. As a result, a variety of tests and statistics will be presented in an effort to identify the profiles of frequent ecotourists.

7.2 AN ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS

The purpose of this section is to highlight the characteristics of the sample, and to detail their level of involvement. It will outline their socio-demographics and their preferences, in terms of activities, accommodation, continents of travel and membership of environmental groups. An analysis of the socio-demographic variables was carried out in two main stages. The first stage illustrates the frequency distribution of the sample, while the second stage includes the results of chi-square with crosstabulations. In doing so, a number of computations took place in order to meet the conditions of chi-square:

- The *age classifications* were labeled as: (1) Young aged, between [17-34]; (2) Middle aged, between [35-54]; and (3) Old aged, between [55-65+]; and
- *Income* was seen as: (1) Low range for [less than £10,000-£15,000]; (2) Mid range for [£15,000-£25,000]; and (3) High range for [£25,000-£30,000+].

In measuring the actual involvement level of frequent ecotourists (high, medium, or low), the third question of the questionnaire, Personal Involvement Inventory (PII), measured involvement levels [see also section 7.14]. Here, the ten items of the scale were summed and then divided by ten to find average scores. Based on these scores, subjects were assigned into three non-overlapping involvement groups: *Low [10-29]; Medium [30-50]; and High [51-70]*.

7.2.1 Age and income levels

The distribution of the age classifications *suggested that 50.1% were aged between 35-54 years* (see table 7.1). Next, 31.9% were in the young age range [17-34], and the remaining 17.9% were old aged [55+]. This age distribution pattern inevitably affected the income generation of frequent ecotourists, revealing that the majority *generated mid to high range incomes*. In particular, 38.3% indicated earnings between [£15,000-£25,000], 34% had earnings of [£25,000-£30,000+] and the remaining 27.7% with earnings of [less than £10,000-£15,000].

Table 7.1 The socio-demographics characteristics of the sample

<i>Elements</i>	<i>Frequent ecotourists</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Gender:</i>		
Males	174	45.9
Females	205	54.1
<i>Status:</i>		
Single	130	34.3
Married	220	58.0
Divorced	29	7.7
<i>People travel:</i>		
One	251	66.2
Two	67	17.7
Three	35	9.2
Four	14	3.7
Other	12	3.2
<i>Education:</i>		
Secondary education	93	24.5
HND/Diploma	57	15.0
First degree	142	37.5
Postgraduate qualification	87	23.0
<i>Age (years):</i>		
17-24	27	7.1
25-34	94	24.8
35-44	101	26.6
45-54	89	23.5
55-64	43	11.3
65+++	25	6.6
<i>Income (pounds):</i>		
Less than 10,000	48	12.7
10,000-15,000	57	15.0
15,000-20,000	82	21.6
20,000-25,000	63	16.6
25,000-30,000	48	12.7
30,000++	81	21.4

In measuring the relationship between these two interval variables, the evidence suggested a rejection of the null hypothesis of non difference between age and income of frequent ecotourists:

- The relationship between age and income ($\chi^2 = 39.79$) illustrated that 45.5% of the young frequent ecotourists generated lower incomes [less than £10,000- £15,000] ($p < 0.00001$). Forty four point two percent (44.2%) of the middle aged frequent ecotourists earned higher incomes [£25,000+], and 41.1% of middle aged frequent ecotourists had middle range incomes [£15,000- £25,000]. Finally, the older frequent ecotourists had incomes spanning across all three categories, with 36.8% of them indicating mid-range incomes, 32.4% lower incomes and 30.9% higher incomes. In all the cases, the majority of the current sample *comprised of middle aged frequent ecotourists with middle and higher income levels* ($p < 0.00001$). In addition, the *association* between the variables was also significant ($r = 0.17$), therefore according to the age of the person, income varied accordingly ($p < 0.0005$).

7.2.2 Gender

Most of the frequent ecotourists were *females* (54.1%) (see table 7.1). There were two relationships between gender and the other socio-demographic variables:

- Age ($\chi^2 = 13.19$): Fifty two point nine percent (52.9%) of males and 47.9% of females were in the middle age category [35-54]. Young frequent ecotourists were predominantly females (39%), as opposed to males who were equally distributed between the young and older age groups (23.6%, respectively). Overall, *the current sample mainly comprised of middle and young aged females as opposed to middle aged male frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.005$); and
- Income ($\chi^2 = 20.00$): Forty four point three percent of males generated high incomes, followed by 37.4% who had mid-range incomes. In contrast, 39% of females also generated mid-range incomes, followed by 35.6% who had lower incomes. Overall *males tended to gross higher incomes than females* ($p < 0.00005$).

7.2.3 Marital status and education

Fifty eight point nine percent of ecotourists (58.9%) were either married/partners/widowed, a further 34.3% were single, and only 7.7% were divorced or separated (see table 7.1). There were two main variables in relation to marital status:

- Age ($x^2 = 67.29$): Fifty six point two percent (56.2%) of single frequent ecotourists were young [17-34], 62.3% of married/partners/widowed ecotourists were middle aged [35-54], and 44.8% of the older frequent ecotourists [55+] were divorced or separated ($p < 0.00001$); and
- Income ($x^2 = 23.07$): Single frequent ecotourists generated both low (40.8%) and mid-range incomes (36.9%). In contrast, married/partners/widowed frequent ecotourists generated high (41.8%) as well as mid-range incomes (38.6%). Divorced/separated individuals earned mainly mid and low range incomes ($p < 0.0005$).

The educational status illustrated that 37.5% of frequent ecotourists were educated to degree level and a further 23% held a postgraduate qualification. In addition, a significant proportion of them also had a secondary educational background (24.5%), and a 15% had obtained an HND or Diploma (see table 7.1). There was only one relationship with education:

- Income ($x^2 = 16.74$): People with a secondary education generated more or less similar incomes across all the categories. In contrast, 35.9% of people with a degree generated mid-range incomes, and a further 38.7% had higher incomes. Similarly, frequent ecotourists with a postgraduate qualification generated mid (44.8%) and high (39.1%) range incomes. Finally, people with an HND/Diploma generated mainly low (43.9%) and mid-range incomes (35.1%). This indicated *that the higher the educational status of frequent ecotourists the higher their total income earnings were* ($p < 0.01$).

7.2.4 Activities undertaken on an ecotourism holiday

Educational guided tours (n=273; 72%), *admiring nature* (n=272; 71.8%), and *observing animals* (n=258; 68.1%), were the first three favorite activities. These preferences were more or less similar with the activities in the first quantitative analysis, all indicating similarities between these two samples. In addition, the remaining eleven activities considered by this sample were:

- Bush walking 54.1% (n=205); Scuba diving 21.9% (n=83);
- Adventure tours 46.2% (n= 175); Rock climbing 19% (n=72).
- Natural photography 44.6% (n= 169);
- Observing flowers 40.4% (n= 153);
- Snorkeling 37.5% (n= 142);
- Bird watching 35.4% (n= 134);
- Whale watching 31.1% (n= 118);
- Horse riding 22.4% (n=85);
- White-water rafting 22.2% (n=84);

7.2.5 Continents of travel

Most of the frequent ecotourists selected Europe as the top continent for their ecotourism holidays (58.3%). The next continents were Asia (49.6%), Americas (36.1%), Australia/New Zealand/ Pacific (33.8%), and Africa (31.9%). It is quite interesting to note that in both quantitative treated samples, Europe was selected as the first preference.

7.2.6 Type and grade of accommodation

The top accommodation preference selected by frequent ecotourists was that of staying in hotels and motels (60.4%). The other preferred types of accommodation included:

- Staying in a tent (40.9%); Cabins (31.7%),
- Bed & breakfast (29.6%); Ecolodges (29.3%),
- Inns (19.5%); and Ranches (5.5%).

Next, the grade or luxury type of these accommodation establishments were similar to the previous examined sample resulting in the following sequence: mid range (57.5%); basic/budget (39.8%); and luxurious (9.5%).

7.2.7 Preference of traveling with companions

Sixty six point two percent (66.2%) of frequent ecotourists tended to travel with only one companion and 17.7% preferred traveling with two people. There were however, a number of frequent ecotourists who showed preferences of traveling with more than two people (see table 7.1).

7.2.8 Membership of an environmental group

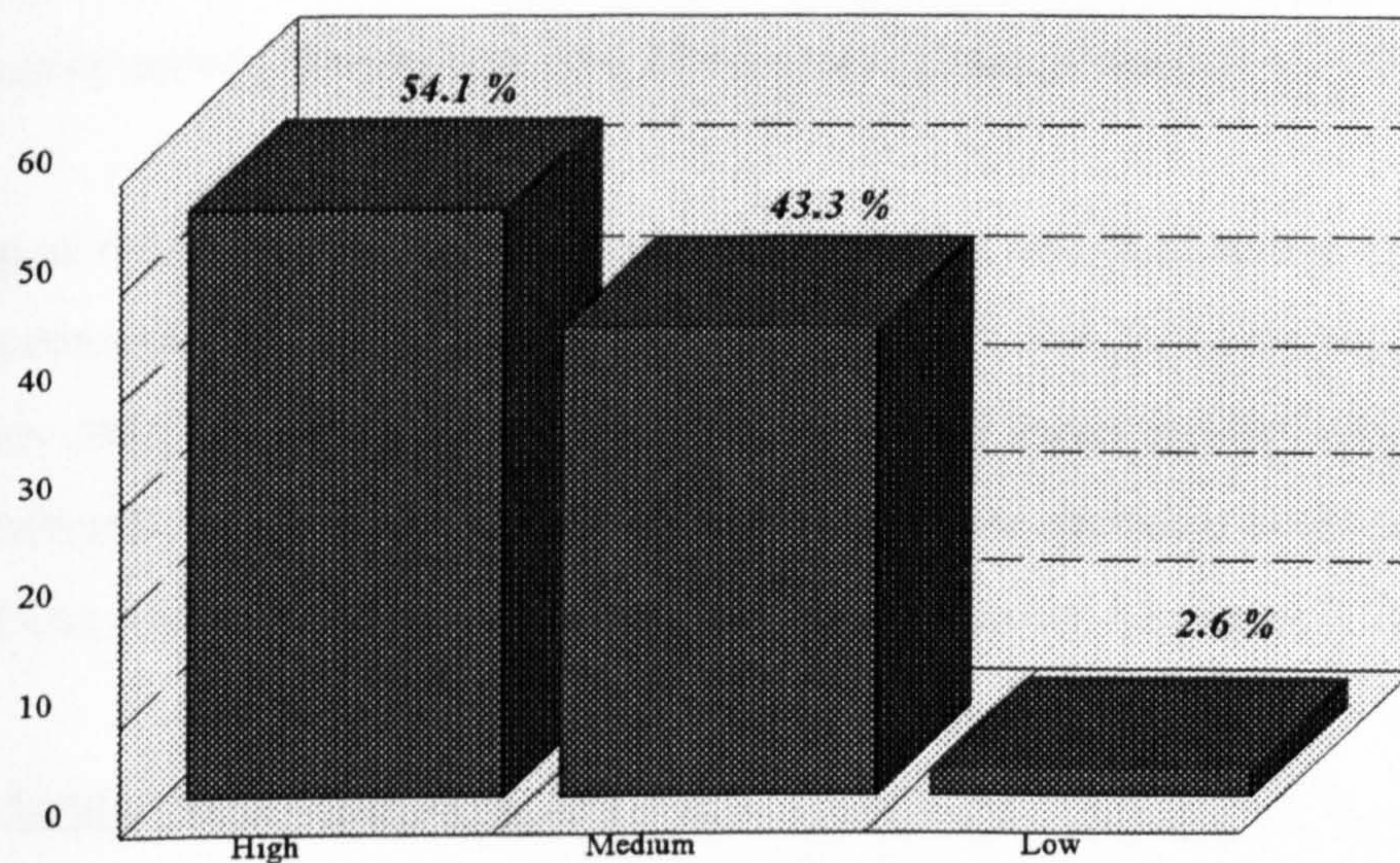
Seventy eight point one percent (78.1%) of the people who responded to this survey were not members of an environmental group or society. In testing if there was a relationship with the socio-demographic variables, the only relationship found was related to:

- level of involvement ($\chi^2 = 5.18$): Of the respondents who were members of an environmental group, 66.7% were in the high involvement category and 33.3% were in the medium involvement. On the other hand, non-membership of such groups was also acknowledged by 52.4% of the high involvement group. In sum, *membership of environmental organizations was more likely to stem from high-involved individuals* ($p < 0.05$).

7.2.9 Levels of involvement

Based on the Personal Involvement Inventory scores, 54.1% of the current sample were in the high involvement category (n=205), 43.3% were in the medium involvement (n=164) and the remaining 2.6% (n=10) were low involvement frequent ecotourists (see figure 7.1 and section 7.14). *No relationships were found between levels of involvement and socio-demographics, indicating that involvement did not influence any variables in this case.*

Figure 7.1 *Levels of involvement*



7.3 ATTRIBUTES OF THE ECOTOURISM PRODUCT (QUESTION ONE, SECTION A)

Eleven attributes were derived from the laddering interviews revealing a wealth of knowledge at the concrete level of the abstraction concept. *To see the natural environment and protected areas (58.2%), to travel to wild places (29%), to experience a unique exclusive place, an expensive holiday (25.4% in both attributes), experience local culture, and to do a survey and/or study of natural habitats (23.6% for both attributes)*, were the leading attributes (see chapter 6, section 6.3.2). To gain additional evidence, particularly concerning the elements of the means-end chains, the eleven attributes were tested on a five point scale. Overall, the reliability test of the attributes was at good standards ($\alpha = 0.75$), suggesting that in addition to the descriptive statistics (frequency distributions) the items could be subject to further statistical analysis. In particular, the following analysis of these attributes was based on frequency scores, crosstabulations, factor and regression analysis.

Looking at the frequency analysis, mean scores varied with a minimum value of 2.29 and a maximum of 4.35 [average mean score of 3.70]. *The following presentation of frequency scores is in descending order based on the mean scores* (see figure 7.2). Five attributes showed scores at the agree level (4), five attributes at the neutral level (3), and one attribute at the disagreement level (2) [see table 7.2, figure 7.2).

7.3.1 Mean scores at the agree level

The most important attribute selected in this sample related to see the natural environment and protected areas (a total agreement of 92.6%). Clearly, this recognition that ecotourism was associated with the natural environment clarifies that the consumers have a basic understanding of the nature of this form of travel (see table 7.2). The second most influential attribute was related to experiencing the local culture, where 84.7% of the sample agreed. Both the neutral and disagreement opinions were not popular, endorsing cultural experiences as an important part of such holidays (see table 7.2).

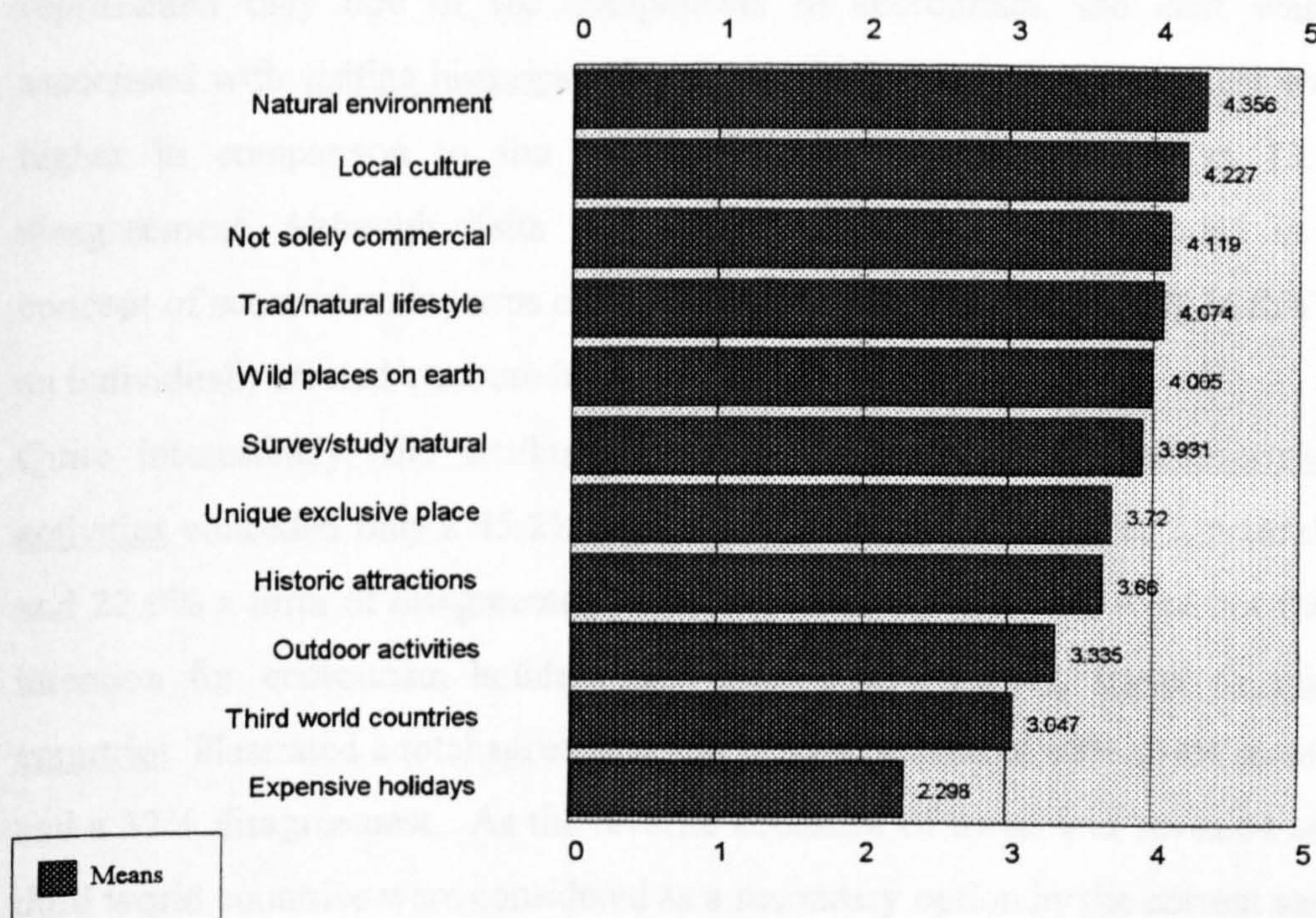
Table 7.2 Attributes of ecotourism product

Attributes	SD*	D*	N*	A*	SA*	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. To see the natural environment and protected areas	0.3	1.1	6.1	48	44.6	4.356	0.668
2. To travel to wild places on earth	0.8	4.2	20.6	42.5	31.9	4.005	0.876
3. Experience local culture	0.5	2.1	12.7	43.5	41.2	4.227	0.778
4. To experience traditional and natural lifestyles	1.1	3.4	17.2	43.8	34.6	4.074	0.778
5. To experience a unique exclusive place	2.4	9.2	29	32.7	26.6	3.720	1.032
6. To participate in outdoor/recreational activities	5.0	17.9	31.9	28.8	16.4	3.335	1.101
7. To visit the historical attractions	2.6	10.6	25.9	40.1	20.8	3.660	1.007
8. To do a survey and/or study of natural habitats	2.9	5.3	21.6	36.1	34.0	3.931	1.013
9. To travel to third world countries	9.0	23	34	22.4	11.6	3.047	1.131
10. An expensive holiday	28	31.9	26.1	10.3	3.7	2.298	1.095
11. To go somewhere that is not solely commercial	1.8	4.2	14.8	38.5	40.6	4.119	0.937

Please note:

* SD: Strongly Disagree; D: Disagree; N: Neutral; A: Agree; SA: Strongly Agree

Figure 7.2 Ecotourism attributes mean scores



Similarly, the next three attributes to go somewhere that is not solely commercial, to experience traditional and natural lifestyles, and travel to wild countries on earth, all attracted an agreement opinion ranging between 74% and 79% (see table 7.2). Overall the results portrayed similar patterns with the laddering interviews (see chapter 6, section 6.3.2). Although, all of these attributes were influenced by differences in the socio-demographic factors of the sample, they represented the basic common tenets between the qualitative and quantitative analysis. The extent to which these items were included in the core base of ecotourism will be demonstrated in the factor analysis. This also holds true for the next five attributes which captured scores at the neutral level.

7.3.2 Means scores at the neutral level

To do a survey and /or study of natural habitats recorded an overall agreement of 70.1%. This attribute captured the attention of frequent ecotourists during the interviews (see chapter 6, section 6.3.2), and the majority of the sample at this stage also associated their natural experience with an educational experience by studying nature's species, flora, fauna, etc. Furthermore, 59.3% of the sample shared a form of agreement to experience a unique exclusive place. Adoption of this attribute represented only one of the components of ecotourism, the next was possibly associated with visiting historical attractions. Here, the overall agreement was slightly higher in comparison to the last attribute at 60.9%, as well as 13.2% total disagreement. Although visits to historical attractions were included in the core concept of ecotourism in terms of its initial treatments (see chapter 2), in this survey as an individually treated attribute it was not the most popular.

Quite interestingly, the attribute relating to participate in outdoor/recreational activities conceded only a 45.2% agreement. Over a third shared a neutral opinion, and 22.9% a form of disagreement, inferring that such activities were not the primary intention for ecotourism holidays (see table 7.2). Finally, travel to third world countries illustrated a total agreement and neutral opinion of 68% (34% in each score) and a 32% disagreement. As the favorite continent of travel was revealed as Europe, third world countries were considered as a secondary option by the current sample.

In sum, the most interesting results at this stage outlined the lack of overall agreement for outdoor/recreational activities underlining that this sample were not interested in *recreational activities for outdoor purposes*.

7.3.3 Mean score at the disagreement level

Frequent ecotourists claimed that these types of holiday were not expensive (an overall agreement of 59.9%). This suggests that frequent ecotourists were not concerned about the expensive price, hence *it was not a determinant during the decision-making process*. In order to reveal the relationships between the attributes and the socio-demographics, a chi-square analysis was carried out.

7.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTRIBUTES AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between the attributes and socio-demographic variables, a set of null hypothesis were tested. Selecting age, education, income, gender and level of involvement and marital status as independent variables, the aim at this stage was to manifest the differences based on these variables. Overall the results illustrated that the most influential variable on the attributes was that of the level of involvement, followed by gender (see appendix 10a).

7.5 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE ATTRIBUTES

Principal component analysis using the Varimax rotation was conducted on eleven attributes in order to determine the underlining structure of the attributes and to test the appropriateness of the elements of the ecotourism product experience process. The two tests used for the factors' efficiency were at high standards, indicating the overall suitability of the current sample:

- KMO= 0.77 was at the average levels; and
- BTS= 780, 606, p=0.00000.

Further the factor loading selected was above ± 0.47 which was of significance with an overall factor independency (see table 7.3a). The overall results illustrated four factors solution, explaining 59.9% of the total variance with most of the reliability results at the significant levels (see table 7.3b):

- Factor 1, illustrated an eigenvalue of 3.26, 29.7% of the variance with an overall reliability of $\alpha = 0.78$;
- Factor 2 illustrated an eigenvalue of 1.24, 11.3% of the total variance with an overall reliability of $\alpha = 0.60$;
- Factor 3 illustrated an eigenvalue of 1.06, 9.7% of the total variance, with an overall reliability of $\alpha = 0.41$; and
- Factor 4 illustrated an eigenvalue of 1.01, 9.2% of the total variance with an overall reliability of $\alpha = 0.50$

Table 7.3a Factor correlation matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1	1,00000			
Factor 2	,00000	1,00000		
Factor 3	,00000	,00000	1,00000	
Factor 4	,00000	,00000	,00000	1,00000

Table 7.3b Factor loading matrix for the attributes of an ecotourism holiday

Attributes *	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Traditional and natural lifestyles	0.86204	0.17713	-0.01547	0.09160
Local culture	0.85312	0.18167	0.13947	0.08364
Travel to wild places on earth	0.24586	0.78060	0.05937	-0.02013
Natural environment and protected areas	0.06003	0.75240	-0.05439	0.11172
Experience a unique exclusive place	0.28285	0.51899	0.36221	0.19514
Expensive holiday	-0.06019	-0.04343	0.71404	0.08029
Somewhere that is not solely commercial	0.35431	0.03719	0.55891	-0.05334
Outdoor/recreational activities	-0.00786	0.46618	0.54374	0.04119
Do a survey and/or study of natural habitants	-0.00798	0.03870	-0.10859	0.87629
Visit the historical attractions	0.12694	0.14306	0.43815	0.50582
Third world countries	0.33760	0.11483	0.36275	0.48470
<i>Variances explained</i>	29.7%	11.3%	9.7%	9.2%
<i>Alpha (a)</i>	0.78	0.60	0.41	0.50

* Factor 1: 4, 3; Factor 2: 2,1,5; Factor 3: 10,11,6; Factor 4: 8,7,9.

7.5.1 Factor scores of ecotourism attributes

Factor 1 included the *social/cultural component* (see table 7.3b). With respect to this factor, the social-cultural interests of the middle aged frequent ecotourists, were the driving force behind their understanding of ecotourism holidays.

Factor 2 included the *natural attractions component* (see table 7.3b). An interesting feature in this factor was that 'wilderness' was related to the natural attraction component of ecotourism. This factor also suggested that the natural component of the product was distinct and was not associated with any other experiences (i.e. social, cultural, outdoor), rather in a unique and exclusive place.

Factor 3, illustrated the *price/ outdoor component* of ecotourism (see table 7.3b). It was interesting to note that the outdoor experience was not distinct as it was

associated with the price element of the holiday. With the majority of this sample outlining that eco-holidays were not expensive (see section 7.3.3), it signified that the selection of outdoor activities was closely related to price, and further pinpointed that price was a determinant of whether or not outdoor activities were considered by this sample.

Factor 4 indicated the *educational component of ecotourism* (see table 7.3b). This factor signified that natural educational experiences were related to historical experiences, and the latter was closely related to destinations which have historical attractions, in this case third world countries. This factor represented only a minor proportion of the total variance, which did not reflect the total educational experiences of frequent ecotourists, rather it highlighted attributes with an educational flavor.

In comparing the factors, in most of the cases there was a clear split between them, except for a number of cases where certain elements related quite strongly with other factors (see appendix 10a). The results of the factor analysis highlighted the existence of four components in ecotourism at the attributes level: *cultural/social; natural attractions; price/outdoors, and educational*. In all the cases, the attributes structure was directed by the latter four factors, suggesting that ecotourism was treated as a multi-base product, and the extent to which certain components within it are treated by any specific group (high, medium involvement) will be detailed in the regression analysis.

7.6 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF ATTRIBUTES FACTOR SCORES AND INVOLVEMENT

Regression analysis was conducted to determine which of ecotourism's attributes were related with involvement. In this case, the factors were seen as independent variables and all the other elements were coded as dependent variables. In the first instance high involvement was a dependent variable and the results disclosed that most of the existing variance in high involvement was explained by two factors (F ratio= 34.51; $p < 0.0001$). In particular, 11.6% of the variance in high involvement was explained by the following sequence (R square= 0.11697):

- Factor 2: natural attractions component (8.6%); and
- Factor 4: educational component (3.0 %).

The use of the unstandard regression coefficients (B) illustrated that for every increment in the natural attractions component, high involvement increased by 0.14 ($B = 0.144861$). Similarly, for every increment in the educational component high involvement increased by 0.08 ($B = 0.087961$). The standardized regression coefficient (Beta) also confirmed the positive contribution of both natural attractions ($p < 0.0001$) and the educational components ($p < 0.0005$) to high-involvement frequent ecotourists (see table 7.4).

In the second instance, medium involvement was the dependent variable, and most of the results supported that the variance in medium involvement was also explained by the latter two factors, but their contribution was negative. Natural attractions and educational factors also explained 11.6% of the variance in medium involvement (R square= 0.11697), but both the B scores were negative (natural attractions: -0.144861; educational: -0.087961) as were the Beta values (see table 7.4).

Table 7.4 Regression analysis for levels of involvement and attributes

<i>Factors on attributes</i>	<i>High involvement</i>		<i>Medium involvement</i>	
	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Factor 2: Natural attractions	0.292495	$p < 0.0001$	-0.292495	$p < 0.0001$
Factor 4: Educational	0.176118	$p < 0.0005$	-0.176118	$p < 0.0005$

The failure of the other two factors (price/outdoors and social/cultural) to reveal any connections with high involvement suggested that when all the factors on attributes were questioned, the natural and educational components were integral in forming the degree of involvement of frequent ecotourists. Certainly for frequent ecotourists to be characterized as highly involved individuals they should have an inherent demand for natural and educationally based activities. The implication that arises is for further exploration as to whether the consequences of the attributes are related to similar components of the product.

7.7 CONSEQUENCES OF THE ECOTOURISM PRODUCT (QUESTION TWO, SECTION A)

Thirteen consequences were assembled from the laddering interviews and were analyzed on a five point scale in an attempt to outline similarities and dissimilarities between the two research samples. The leading consequences for the laddering interviews were (see chapter 6, section 6.3.3): *to educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday (29%); have an awareness of the world's natural environment (23.6%), contribute actively in conservation of these areas (23.6%), educate and be educated by local people (23.6%), and create a memory that normal holidays could not give me (20%)*.

At this stage, the reliability test on the consequences was at good standards ($\alpha=0.78$), indicating that the examined items could be subject to further statistical analysis. In particular, the following analysis was based on frequency scores, crosstabulations, factor analysis, regression analysis, cluster analysis, and Manova.

Looking at the frequency analysis, the overall mean score of 3.77 [with a minimum value of 2.63 and maximum value of 4.61] revealed an above neutral opinion in all the responses. *The following presentation of frequency scores is in descending order based on the mean scores* (see figure 7.3). Overall, five consequences showed scores at the agree level (4), seven consequences at the neutral level (3), and one consequence at the disagreement level (2) [see table 7.5, figure 7.3].

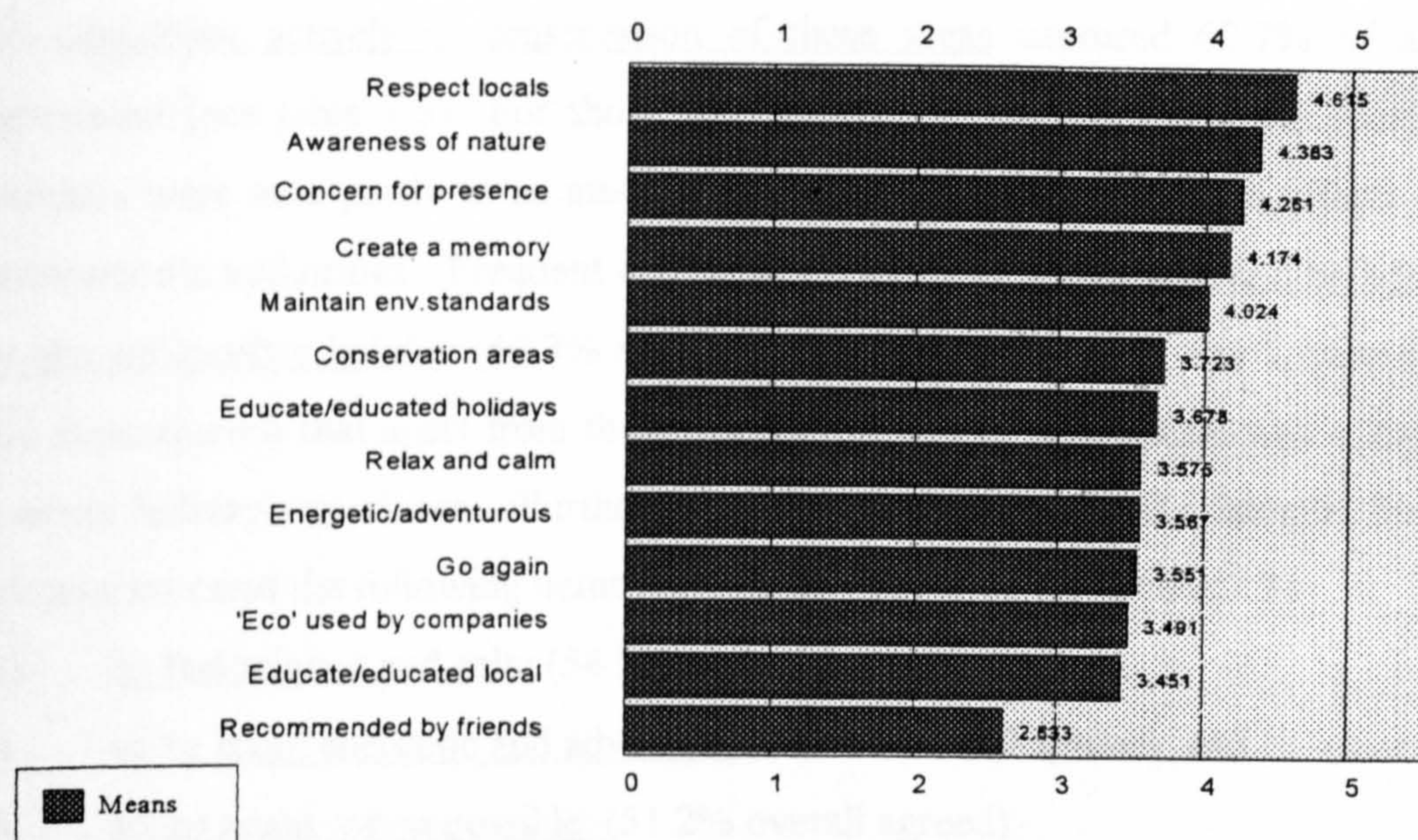
7.7.1 Mean scores at the agree level

The first consequence that was of high importance to frequent ecotourists was to respect the local population and indigenous people (95.8% of an overall agreement). The next item was related to have an awareness of the world's natural environment with a total agreement of 93.2% allowing the remainder to be distributed between the neutral and disagreement opinions. Their overall awareness was also addressed with concern that their presence there may damage the natural environment (85% of a form of agreement) [see table 7.5, figure 7.3).

Table 7.5 Consequences of ecotourism product

Question Two	SD*	D*	N*	A*	SA*	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. Have an awareness of the world's natural environment	0.3	0.5	6.1	47	46.2	4.383	0.650
2. To be concerned that your presence there may damage the natural environment	1.1	2.9	11.1	38.8	46.2	4.261	0.847
3. To respect the local population and indigenous people	0.3	0.8	3.2	28.8	67.0	4.615	0.617
4. To contribute actively in conservation of these areas	1.6	7.4	30.3	38.5	22.2	3.723	0.943
5. To educate and be educated by local people	4.5	10.8	35.1	34.3	15.3	3.451	1.021
6. To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday	3.2	5.3	28.2	47.2	16.1	3.678	0.915
7. To create a memory that normal holidays could not give me	0.8	4.5	12.9	40.1	41.7	4.174	0.877
8. To go again when possible	2.6	9.2	36.9	32.7	18.5	3.551	0.981
9. It was recommended by friends	15	26.1	42.7	12.7	3.4	2.633	0.997
10. I felt that travel companies just use the word 'eco-holidays' to attract more people	2.6	12.7	33.5	35.4	15.8	3.491	0.990
11. To feel relaxed and calmed	2.6	8.7	34.6	36.7	17.4	3.575	0.963
12. To be more energetic and adventurous	3.4	8.7	31.9	39.6	16.4	3.567	0.977
13. To maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers	2.4	4.5	17.7	39.3	36.1	4.024	0.966

Figure 7.3 Ecotourism consequences mean scores



The extent to which frequent ecotourists were attracted by the natural environment was expected, however their realization that their visits to such settings could disturb nature suggested that they were a group of travelers who understood the fragility of such landscapes. Their awareness and concern was possibly related to the consequence of creating a memory that normal holidays could not give me (81.8% of a form of agreement). These experiences were also affiliated with attempts to maintain environmental standards for future holiday makers (75.4% with a form of agreement). Overall the most popular consequences in this sample were related to respecting the local people and environmental issues, all an indication that frequent ecotourists considered these items at the highest level of their experiences.

7.7.2 Mean scores at the neutral level

To contribute actively in conservation of these areas captured 60.7% of a total agreement (see table 7.5) For those who adhered to this consequence, ecotourism holidays were seen partly as an attempt to assist with the conservation efforts of the destination's authorities. Frequent ecotourists also aimed to educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday (63.3% with an overall agreement). It was apparent from this consequence that apart from the conservation efforts, ecotourism was a learning-process holiday experience. Further as in the previous qualitative sample, frequent ecotourists rated the following items quite highly (see table 7.5, figure 7.3):

- a) to feel relaxed and calm (54.1% overall agreed);
- b) to be more energetic and adventurous (56% overall agreed); and
- c) to go again, when possible (51.2% overall agreed).

The next consequence was travel companies just use the word 'eco-holidays' to attract more people (51.2% of total agreement). Indeed much of the criticism surrounding the examined concept was related to the argument that companies overuse the phrase 'eco' in their promotional efforts. Although the literature devoted considerable attention to this, frequent ecotourists also outlined the misleading practices of companies, suggesting that to some extent the overuse of such a term may be off putting to consumers interested in ecological holidays. On the other hand, frequent ecotourists were interested in educational experiences such as to educate and be educated by local people (49.6% of total agreement). This indicates that frequent ecotourists not only emphasized the educational element of their eco-holiday, but they sought an interaction that would mutually educate both themselves and the local community.

In sum, all the consequences illustrated mean scores ranging between 3.4 and 3.7, suggesting the importance of most of the consequences to frequent ecotourists. It appeared that frequent ecotourists were extremely concerned about meeting their needs through conservational and educational experiences.

7.7.3 Mean score at the disagreement level

The only consequence which did not attract any attention was recommended by friends. The majority of this sample showed a neutral opinion, followed by 41.1% showing a total disagreement and only - 16.1% overall agreed to such a recommendation. This result suggested that the choice of such holidays was based on more individualistic decisions rather than one's resulting from social interactions. This was particularly the case in the laddering interviews where this consequence captured only 12.7% of the total connections (see chapter 6, section 6.3.3).

In all the cases, consequences rated quite highly among the middle aged frequent ecotourists underlining that there was a degree of depth in their product knowledge structure. In order to reveal the relationships between consequences and socio-demographics, a chi-square analysis is conducted.

7.8 *THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSEQUENCES AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS*

A number of null hypothesis were measured at this stage between the socio-demographics and the consequences. All the computations of both dependent (consequences) and independent (socio-demographics) variables were based on the same procedures as recorded previously (see section 7.2). With reference to all the chi-square analysis so far, consequences *reveal most of the relationships, suggesting the importance of their role to consumers, especially from the decision-making perspective* (see chapter 3, section 3.5.2). More specifically, it appeared that the most influential independent variables were related to the levels of involvement and income of frequent ecotourists (see appendix 10b).

7.9 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE CONSEQUENCES

Principal factor analysis using Varimax rotation was conducted on the consequences to identify the composition of the consequences structure. The two tests for the factors efficiency were quite high, indicating the overall suitability of the current sample:

- **KMO= 0.80** was at high levels; and
- **BTS=1125,447, p=0.00000**.

In this context, the factor loading selected was at above ± 0.50 which was of particular significance with an overall factor independency (see table 7.6a). The overall results illustrated four factors justifying 59.2% of the total variance with the overall reliability scores at the significant levels (see table 7.6b):

- Factor 1, revealed an eigenvalue of 3.79, 29.2% of the variance with an overall reliability of $\alpha=0.68$;
- Factor 2, revealed an eigenvalue of 1.68, 12.9% of the variance with an overall reliability of $\alpha=0.70$;
- Factor 3, revealed an eigenvalue of 1.14, 8.8% of the variance with an overall reliability of $\alpha=0.62$; and
- Factor 4, revealed an eigenvalue of 1.06, 8.2% of the variance with an overall reliability of $\alpha=0.40$.

Table 7.6a Factor correlation matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1	1,00000			
Factor 2	,00000	1,00000		
Factor 3	,00000	,00000	1,00000	
Factor 4	,00000	,00000	,00000	1,00000

Table 7.6 b Factor loading matrix for consequences of an ecotourism holiday

<i>Consequences *</i>	<i>Factor 1</i>	<i>Factor 2</i>	<i>Factor 3</i>	<i>Factor 4</i>
To be concerned that your presence there may damage the environment	0.75935	0.11571	-0.01885	0.13060
To respect the local population and indigenous people	0.74815	0.18566	0.03460	-0.00913
Have an awareness of the world's natural environment	0.68675	0.11338	0.12917	-0.00966
To maintain environmental standards for future holiday makers	0.51000	0.09496	0.24748	0.34213
To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday	0.22791	0.78410	0.14996	-0.05357
To educate and be educated by local people	0.31063	0.71989	0.13522	0.08098
To contribute actively in conservation of these areas	0.49055	0.58784	0.05281	0.07728
It was recommended by friends	-0.24874	0.53695	0.21555	0.39673
To be more energetic and adventurous	0.07698	0.01440	0.77309	0.01260
To create a memory that normal holidays could not give me	0.13744	0.23033	0.73497	-0.05481
To go again, when possible	0.01746	0.38606	0.55963	0.10599
I felt that travel companies just use the world 'eco-holidays' to attract more people	0.17380	0.11825	-0.16046	0.80061
To feel relaxed and calm	0.05957	-0.05491	0.42658	0.61169
<i>Variances explained</i>	<i>29.2</i>	<i>42.2</i>	<i>51.0</i>	<i>59.2</i>
<i>Alpha (a)</i>	<i>0.6865</i>	<i>0.7018</i>	<i>0.6285</i>	<i>0.4006</i>

* Factor 1: 2,3,1,13;

Factor 2: 6,5,4,9;

Factor 3: 12,7,8;

Factor 4: 10,11.

7.9.1 Factor scores of ecotourism consequences

Factor 1 disclosed the *environmental and social awareness consequences* (see table 7.6b). All the consequences were echoed in the frequent ecotourists' belief that the concept endangered the natural and social systems, in turn this realization gave rise to maintaining environmental standards during their visits. On the other hand, respecting the local population was related to an increasing awareness of the natural environment,

clearly outlining a more ecologically sustainable stance rather than an exclusively environmental viewpoint. It follows that there was a common understanding of the principles of sustainability among the examined group.

Factor 2, detailed the *educational/conservational consequences* (see table 7.6b). This factor signified that ecotourism holidays were influenced by the prerequisite of an educational and conservational experience. Although the consequence of 'recommendation by friends' was associated with this factor, its impact was negative as most of frequent ecotourists selected it within the disagreement range (see section 7.7.3). Therefore, frequent ecotourists who sought an educational and conservational experience were driven by their own individuality rather than by a recommendation.

Factor 3 detailed the *energetic/memorable consequences* (see table 7.6b). This factor indicated that memorable experiences were related to the need of participating in adventurous activities, which enhanced the nostalgia of the consumers. Overall, the link between the energetic and adventurous consequence and the memorable experience consequence suggested that this factor represented the need of frequent ecotourists to become adventurous, rather than being associated with any explicit activities.

Factor 4 detailed the *relaxation consequences* (see table 7.6b). The grouping of these two consequences highlighted the fact that there was a minor proportion of this sample who criticized the negative practices of travel companies and disliked the thought of overcrowded resorts.

In comparing the factors, in most of the cases, there was a clear spilt between them. There were however, a number of elements with relatively strong loadings with a number of other factors, outside their group (see appendix 10b). Finally, the extent to which frequent ecotourists of this sample utilized more than one element in any particular segment remains to be seen in the cluster analysis. In order however, to identify which involvement groups were likely to consider these elements, a regression analysis was conducted based on these factor results.

7.10 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF CONSEQUENCES FACTOR SCORES AND INVOLVEMENT

In selecting levels of involvement (high and medium) as dependent variables, and the four factors as independent, linear regression analysis was used to assess the extent to which factors related to certain levels of involvement. Here, there were three factors in the equation of regression, and one factor failed to be connected (F ratio= 28,86; $p < 0.0001$). In particular, 19.17% of the variance in high involvement was explained by the following sequence (R square = 0.19175):

- Factor 1: environmental and social awareness component (13%);
- Factor 3: energetic/memorable component (4.79%); and
- Factor 2: educational /conservation component (1.38 %).

The use of the unstandard regression coefficient (B) suggested that for every increment in the environmental and social awareness component, high involvement increased by 0.18 (B= 0.182934). Similarly, for every increment in the educational/conservation component, high involvement increased by 0.05 (B=0.058454). Next, for every increment of the energetic/memorable component, high involvement increased by 0.11 (B=0.111484). Looking at the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), the latter three factors provided a positive contribution to high involvement (see table 7.7). High-involved frequent ecotourists were interested in environmental and social awareness consequences ($p < 0.0001$), educational/conservational consequences ($p < 0.01$) and energetic/memorable consequences ($p < 0.0001$).

Table 7.7 Regression analysis for levels of involvement and attributes

Factors on consequences	High involvement		Medium involvement	
	Betas	Significance	Betas	Significance
Factor 1: environmental and social awareness	0.359901	$p < 0.0001$	-0.359901	$p < 0.0001$
Factor 2: educational/conservation	0.117453	$p < 0.01$	-0.117453	$p < 0.01$
Factor 3: energetic/memorable	0.221660	$p < 0.001$	-0.221660	$p < 0.001$

The reverse scenario occurred with medium involvement, in that all the R Square, F-ratio, unstandardised regression coefficients (B), and Beta scores were similar to high involvement, except the impact was negative (see table 7.7). This illustrates that medium-involved frequent ecotourists did not demonstrate any consequences affecting them. In addition factor 4 (relaxation component), did not show any connection with either the high or medium levels of involvement, suggesting that its elements did not influence the product involvement of frequent ecotourists. To this consideration, the contribution of factor 3 to high-involvement frequent ecotourists may be added. In all the cases, high-involved frequent ecotourists were concerned with the core elements of the ecotourism holiday and were more likely to return for such holidays than the medium involvement group.

7.11 CLUSTER ANALYSIS OF THE CONSEQUENCES OF THE ECOTOURISM HOLIDAY

K-means cluster analysis was performed on the consequences in order to reveal the similarities among the frequent ecotourists. Initially, a two, three, five, and six cluster solution was selected and eventually discarded, as they did not contain comparable amounts of cases. Eventually, a four cluster solution was determined to be the most appropriate presentation of the segment of consequences among frequent ecotourists (see table 7.8). In order to illustrate the differences amongst the four segments, a one-way Anova with Duncan's multiple range test was performed (see appendix 10c), followed by a cluster description, and a chi-square analysis in terms of socio-demographics, activities, and accommodation preferences. In addition, a MANOVA test was conducted with the factor scores on attributes in order to reveal the similarities between consequences segments and attributes of the ecotourism holiday.

It is worth noting at this stage that the cluster analysis was run with the same computations as the consequences frequency scores in that both the disagreement answers were recorded as (1), neutral (2), agree (3) and strongly agree (4). This computation procedure was selected as there were few responses at the disagreement level, and overall it did not pose any limitation to the data presentation during the cluster analysis (Hair et al, 1995; Stevens, 1996).

Table 7.8 *Ecotourism consequences clusters comparison of mean scores*

<i>Consequences</i>	<i>Cluster 1</i>	<i>Cluster 2</i>	<i>Cluster 3</i>	<i>Cluster 4</i>
Awareness of world's natural environment	2.92	3.41	3.18	3.71
To be concerned that your presence there may damage the environment	2.78	3.11	3.04	3.75
Respect the local population and indigenous people	3.22	3.44	3.60	3.90
Contribute actively in conservation of these areas	2.19	2.09	2.69	3.42
Educate and be educated by local people	1.85	1.71	2.60	3.19
Educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday	2.08	2.12	2.84	3.25
Create a memory that normal holidays could not give me	1.94	3.20	3.34	3.57
Go again, when possible	1.73	2.06	3.00	2.93
It was recommended by friends	1.45	1.40	2.01	1.99
Travel companies just use the world 'eco-holidays' to attract more people	2.56	2.36	1.95	3.03
Feel relaxed and calm	2.05	2.66	2.26	3.05
Be more energetic and adventurous	1.63	2.75	2.61	2.90
Maintain environmental standards for future holiday makers	2.43	2.87	2.91	3.55
<i>Number of respondents</i>	<i>n= 57</i>	<i>n=87</i>	<i>n=102</i>	<i>n=133</i>
<i>Percentage of total sample</i>	<i>15.03%</i>	<i>22.95%</i>	<i>26.91%</i>	<i>35.09%</i>

7.11.1 Clusters of ecotourism consequences

Based on the pattern of mean importance ratings, Cluster 1 was labeled as *socially/environmentally aware seekers* (see table 7.8). This represented the smallest proportion of the sample with two consequences as the driving force. For example this cluster was dominated by 'respect the local population and indigenous people' and 'awareness of the world's natural environment'. These frequent ecotourists were unlikely to undertake any other activities in their selected area, instead they had a general awareness of the place they visited both in terms of the local and environmental vulnerability.

Cluster 2 was labeled as *socially/environmentally conscious seekers* (see table 7.8). This cluster detailed the consciousness of frequent ecotourists in terms of: 'to be concerned that your presence there may damage the environment'; and to 'maintain environmental standards for future holiday makers'. Although it was notable that cluster 2 had social and environmental awareness consequences as its driving forces, frequent ecotourists in this cluster emphasized the need to 'create a memory that normal holidays could not give me'. Overall these frequent ecotourists were restricted in their activities, but tended to be more responsible for the activities they participated in.

Cluster 3 represented the *socially/environmentally conscious and educational re-experience seekers* (see table 7.8). This group had the main components of the latter two clusters, except two unique consequences that of 'to go again, when possible' and 'educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday'. They were a group of frequent ecotourists who sought different experiences, all of which were socially and educationally orientated in an attempt to re-experience their holidays. Their overall memory from the holiday was educational and their overall contribution was magnified with maintaining environmental standards.

Cluster 4 was labeled as *re-experience socially/environmentally/educational/conservational seekers* (see table 7.8). It represented the largest group of the sample, with high ratings in most of the consequences, except 'recommendation by friends'. In particular, this group had acquired a wealth of product knowledge, highlighting their expertise as frequent ecotourists. Their expertise contained a strong educational

flavor both in terms of the holiday but also with the local population. They were conscious about social and environmental vulnerability and they tried to maintain the environmental standards by actively contributing in conservation of these areas. In overall terms, they liked to have a memorable holiday, and visit the destination again in an attempt to re-experience their social / environmental / educational / conservational experience.

In sum, the current sample shared both social and environmental awareness among the clusters which highlighted frequent ecotourists' basic intentions. All the frequent ecotourists seemed to understand the meaning of sustainability in that their awareness and concern about the environment was accompanied with attempts to maintain the environmental standards. It can be added that frequent ecotourists intended to create a good memory and to re-experience certain activities. However, only certain groups of frequent ecotourists underlined that ecotourism holiday was a learning process from the holiday and/or with local population. It seemed that this sample rated the environmental/social awareness and conscious elements higher than the educational components. In order to measure the characteristics of these frequent ecotourists a number of hypotheses were tested between clusters, socio-demographics, activities and accommodation.

Before this analysis takes place it is worth noting some observations with regards to certain clusters. Theoretically speaking the means-end chain perspective of involvement states that individuals with more unique consequences will have greater levels of involvement (see chapter 3). Therefore clusters 3 and 4 should have greater levels of involvement, and clusters 1 and 2 should have lower levels of involvement. It follows that a comparison of the unidimensional (PII) and means-end chain perspectives of involvement will confirm if these two distinct measures are comparable, in other words if these techniques underline similar levels of involvement (i.e. high or medium).

7.12 · THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CLUSTERS OF FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between the four clusters and the selected socio-demographics (age, education, income, gender, involvement, and marital status), a number of hypotheses were tested based on a non-difference between the socio-demographics and the clusters (see table 7.9a, b, c). The lack of relationships were observed between clusters with age, education, and marital status, suggested that there was a more or less equal representation between all the examined clusters.

The most pronounced differences between the clusters concerned the relationship between clusters and the level of involvement ($\chi^2 = 39.57$) [see table 7.9a]. The results revealed that the *high involvement group of frequent ecotourists were the re-experience social/environmental/educational/conservational seekers and the social/environmentally conscious and educational re-experience seekers* ($p < 0.00001$). *In addition, social/environmental awareness seekers were in the medium involvement category and the social/environmental awareness seekers were divided equally between high and medium-involved frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.00001$).

Overall, these results confirmed that the two distinct measures of involvement were compatible. An earlier indication that clusters three and four should have greater levels of involvement was confirmed with the results of the PII (unidimensional involvement perspective) which indicated high levels of involvement. Similarly, the remaining two segments indicated only a few consequences, reflecting their 'intermediate' ecotourism knowledge. This was also confirmed by the PII scores as these two groups had mainly medium levels of involvement.

Table 7.9a Crosstabulation of clusters and level of involvement

Clusters	Medium involvement	High involvement	Row Total
1 Social/environmental awareness seekers	40 24.4%	14 6.8%	54 14.6%
2 Social/environmentally conscious seekers	42 25.6%	42 20.5%	84 22.8%
3 Social/environmentally conscious and educational re-experience seekers	48 29.3%	51 24.9%	99 26.8%
4 Re-experience social/environmental/ educational/ conservational seekers	34 20.7%	98 47.8%	132 35.8%
Column Total	164 44.4%	205 55.6%	369* 100%

* Ten missing observations of low involved frequent ecotourists.

The next variable that was considered was the relationship between the clusters and the income of frequent ecotourists ($x^2 = 15.34$) [see table 7.9b]. Overall *the evidence suggested that the majority of social/environmental awareness seekers and the social/environmentally conscious seekers had high and mid-range incomes. On the other hand, although social/environmentally conscious and educational re-experience seekers tended to have incomes across all the ranges, the majority of them were in the mid-range income group ($p < 0.01$). The re-experience social/environmental/ educational/conservational seekers tended to have mainly mid-range incomes and the largest proportion of both low and high income groups ($p < 0.01$).*

Table 7.9 b Crosstabulation of clusters and income of frequent ecotourists

Cluster	Low range [Less than 10,000-15,000]	Mid range [15,000- 25,000]	High range [25,000+]	Row Total
1 <i>Social/environmental awareness seekers</i>	6 5.7%	23 15.9%	28 21.7%	57 15%
2 <i>Social/environmentally conscious seekers</i>	23 21.9%	31 21.4%	33 25.6%	87 23%
3 <i>Social/environmentally conscious educational re-experience seekers</i>	33 31.4%	36 24.8%	33 25.6%	102 26.9%
4 <i>Re-experience social/environmental/ educational/ conservational seekers</i>	43 41%	55 37.9%	35 27.1%	133 35.1%
Column Total	105 27.7%	145 38.3%	129 34%	379 100%

Furthermore, there was a relationship between the clusters and the gender of frequent ecotourists ($\chi^2 = 10.54$) [see table 7.9c]. The results suggested that the majority of the *social/environmental awareness seekers* were males and the *social/environmentally conscious seekers* were both males and females ($p < 0.05$). On the other hand, the majority of both *social/environmentally conscious and educational re-experience seekers* and *re-experience social/environmental/educational/conservational seekers* were females ($p < 0.05$).

Table 7.9c Crosstabulation of clusters and gender of frequent ecotourists

Cluster	Male	Female	Row Total
1 <i>Social/environmental awareness seekers</i>	35 20.1%	22 10.7%	57 15%
2 <i>Social/environmentally conscious seekers</i>	45 25.9%	42 20.5%	87 23%
3 <i>Social/environmentally conscious educational re-experience seekers</i>	38 21.8%	64 31.2%	102 26.9%
4 <i>Re-experience social/environmental/ educational/ conservational seekers</i>	56 32.2%	77 37.6%	133 35.1%
Column Total	174 45.9%	205 54.1%	379 100%

Finally, a variety of tests concerning the activities, destination continents of travel, type of accommodation, and level of luxury were performed. Significant differences were found between the activities and type of accommodation. Firstly, there were seven activities that signified a relationship with the clusters:

- a) Observing animals ($\chi^2 = 17.39$): From the total 68.1% who undertook this activity, 39.9% were seekers in cluster 4, 29.1% were seekers in cluster 3, 18.2% were seekers in cluster 2, and 12.8% were seekers in cluster 1 ($p < 0.001$);
- b) Observing flowers ($\chi^2 = 13.84$): From the total 40.4% who undertook this activity, 45.1% were seekers in cluster 4, 26.1% were seekers in cluster 3, 19% were the seekers in cluster 2, and 9.8% were seekers in cluster 1 ($p < 0.005$);
- c) Nature photography ($\chi^2 = 12.28$): From the total 44.6% who undertook this activity, 44.4% were seekers in cluster 4, 23.7% were seekers in cluster 3, 20.7% were seekers in cluster 2 and 11.2% were seekers in cluster 1 ($p < 0.01$);
- d) Educational guided tours ($\chi^2 = 13.84$): From the total 72% who undertook this activity, 38.5% were seekers in cluster 4, 27.1% were seekers in cluster 3, 18.7% were seekers in cluster 2, and 15.8% were seekers in cluster 1 ($p < 0.01$);
- e) Snorkeling ($\chi^2 = 9.29$): From the total 37.5% who undertook this activity, 41.5% were seekers in cluster 4, 27.5% were seekers in cluster 3, 22.5% were seekers in cluster 2 and 8.5% were seekers in cluster 1 ($p < 0.05$);
- f) Adventure tours ($\chi^2 = 8.90$): From the total 46.2% who undertook this activity, 37.7% were seekers in cluster 4, 29.1% were seekers in cluster 3, 24% were seekers in cluster 2 and 9.1% were seekers in cluster 1 ($p < 0.005$);
- e) Admiring nature ($\chi^2 = 7.40$): From the total 71.8% who undertook this activity, 39% were seekers in cluster 4, 26.5% were seekers in cluster 3, 21.3% were seekers in cluster 2 and 13.2% were seekers in cluster 1. In addition when actual respondents numbers were considered, then *all the clusters undertook this core activity* ($p < 0.1$).

Secondly, there was one type of accommodation which related to the consequences clusters and one type of accommodation luxury:

1. Bed and breakfast ($\chi^2 = 10.41$): From the total 29.6% who preferred this type of accommodation, 43.8% were seekers in cluster 4, 19.6% were seekers in cluster 3, 26.8% were seekers in cluster 2 and 9.8% were seekers in cluster 1 ($p < 0.01$); and
2. Basic and budget ($\chi^2 = 6.92$): From the total of 39.8% who preferred this type of accommodation luxury, 40.4% were seekers in cluster 4, 21.9% were seekers in cluster 3, 25.8% were seekers in cluster 2 and 11.9% were seekers in cluster 1 ($p < 0.1$).

In conclusion, frequent ecotourists were not a homogeneous group of travelers with regards to their treatment of holidays, instead they outlined a multi-faced profile of product knowledge reflecting the level of their expertise. This was reflected in the creation of four different clusters, combining these unique characteristics:

- ***socially/environmental***

- awareness seekers:***

Mainly male with high and mid-range incomes and medium levels of involvement and a social and environmental awareness.

Activities:

Admiring nature and educational guided tours.

- ***social/environmentally***

- conscious seekers:***

Male and female with high and mid-range incomes and high and medium levels of involvement sharing an and awareness of social and environmental resources.

Activities:

Admiring nature.

Accommodation:

Bed and breakfast with basic/budget level of luxury.

- *social/environmentally conscious
and educational re-experience*

seekers:

Mainly females with mid-range incomes and overall high levels of involvement with an interest in education and re-experiencing the holiday with a consciousness and awareness of resources used.

Activities:

Admiring nature, educational guided tours, observing animals, snorkelling and adventure tours.

- *re-experience social/
environmental/educational/
conservational seekers:*

Mainly females with mid-range incomes and overall high levels of involvement with an interest in different forms of education, active conservationists with intentions of re-experiencing the holiday with a consciousness and awareness of resources used.

Activities:

Admiring nature, educational guided tours, observing animals, observing flowers, snorkelling and adventure tours.

Accommodation:

Bed and breakfast with basic/budget level of luxury.

7.13 COMPARISON BETWEEN ATTRIBUTES OF AN ECOTOURISM HOLIDAY AND CONSEQUENCES

A comparison between the attributes of the ecotourism holidays and the consequences was conducted in order to reveal the connection between attributes and consequences. The procedure involved an assessment of the **factor scores of the attributes with the consequences-clusters**. Here, the hypothesis that was tested was that consequences segments will differ in their agreement ratings of ecotourism attributes. In order to test this hypothesis, a MANOVA was conducted using the consequences segments as the independent variables and the four attribute factors as dependent variables. The MANOVA procedure indicated that significant differences existed among consequences-clusters and the attributes factors (Wilk's= 0.68, $F(12, 984)= 12.35$, $p<0.001$). Hence the hypothesis that there were some differences between the examined variables was confirmed.

Follow-up one way Anova was conducted based on the Duncan test in order to determine which specific consequences segments differed from one another if compared with different attribute factors or components of ecotourism (see table 7.10). Significant differences were found with regards to:

- the *educational component* (F statistic (3, 375)= 18.58, $p<0.0001$): The attributes within this component, specifically: 'the survey and/or study of natural habitats', 'visits to historical attractions', and 'travel to third world countries' were only related with cluster 4;
- the *natural attractions component* (F statistic (3, 375)=12.43, $p<0.0001$): The attributes within this component, specifically: 'travel to wild places on earth', 'visits to the natural environment and protected areas', and 'unique exclusive place' were only related to cluster 4;
- the *social/cultural component* (F statistic (3, 375)=7.57, $p<0.0001$): Although the attributes within this component those of: 'traditional and cultural lifestyles' and 'experience the local culture', were associated with two clusters (4, 3) they were more related to cluster 4, than to cluster 3; and

- the *price/outdoor component* (F statistic (3, 375)=7.57, $p<0.0001$): Although the attributes within this component those of: 'expensive holiday', 'go somewhere that is not solely commercial' and 'participation in outdoor/recreational activities', were associated with two clusters (3, 4), they were more related to cluster 4 than to cluster 3.

Table 7.10 One way Anova analysis between the mean scores of ecotourism attributes and consequences clusters

Attributes components of ecotourism	CLUSTER 1 Social/ environmental awareness seekers	CLUSTER 2 Social/ environmentally conscious seekers	CLUSTER 3 Social/ environmental and educational re-experience seekers	CLUSTER 4 Re-experience social/ environmental/ educational/ conservational seekers	Contrast
<i>Social/cultural</i>	-0.13	-0.39	0.12	0.22	III>III
<i>Natural attractions</i>	-0.62	-0.06	-0.02	0.33	III>I III>II III>III
<i>Price/outdoor</i>	-0.27	-0.04	0.05	0.10	III>III
<i>Educational</i>	-0.45	-0.27	-0.16	0.50	III>I III>II III>III

In comparing the cases, frequent ecotourists in cluster 4 confirmed their natural attractions and educational interests not only at the consequences level but also at the attributes level. Overall, from the four different attribute factors, the ***educational and natural attraction components*** were the most impactful, suggesting that these two components were more important in cluster 4, than the social/cultural and price/outdoor components.

Cluster 3 seekers only related to the latter mentioned attribute factors, acknowledging that their preferences were not related to the natural and educational attribute elements of the ecotourism holiday. In turn they were more interested in the social/cultural

component at both the attributes and consequences level. It would appear then that their attempt to educate and be educated from the holiday *stemmed from social/cultural attributes not from natural and/or educational attributes*. Further, the social/environmental awareness and social/environmentally conscious seekers (cluster 1 and 2) failed to provide any relationship with factor-attributes confirming their restricted product knowledge structure and medium level of involvement.

In sum, what became evident in terms of the connections between attributes with consequences, was that there was a difference between medium and high-involved frequent ecotourists reflected by the connections of factor-attributes and cluster-consequences.

7.14 AN ANALYSIS OF THE PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT INVENTORY SCALE IN RELATION TO ECOTOURISM (QUESTION THREE, SECTION B)

The PII items were computed to find the different levels and were used as a **main indicator** of the level of involvement throughout the analysis (see section 7.2).

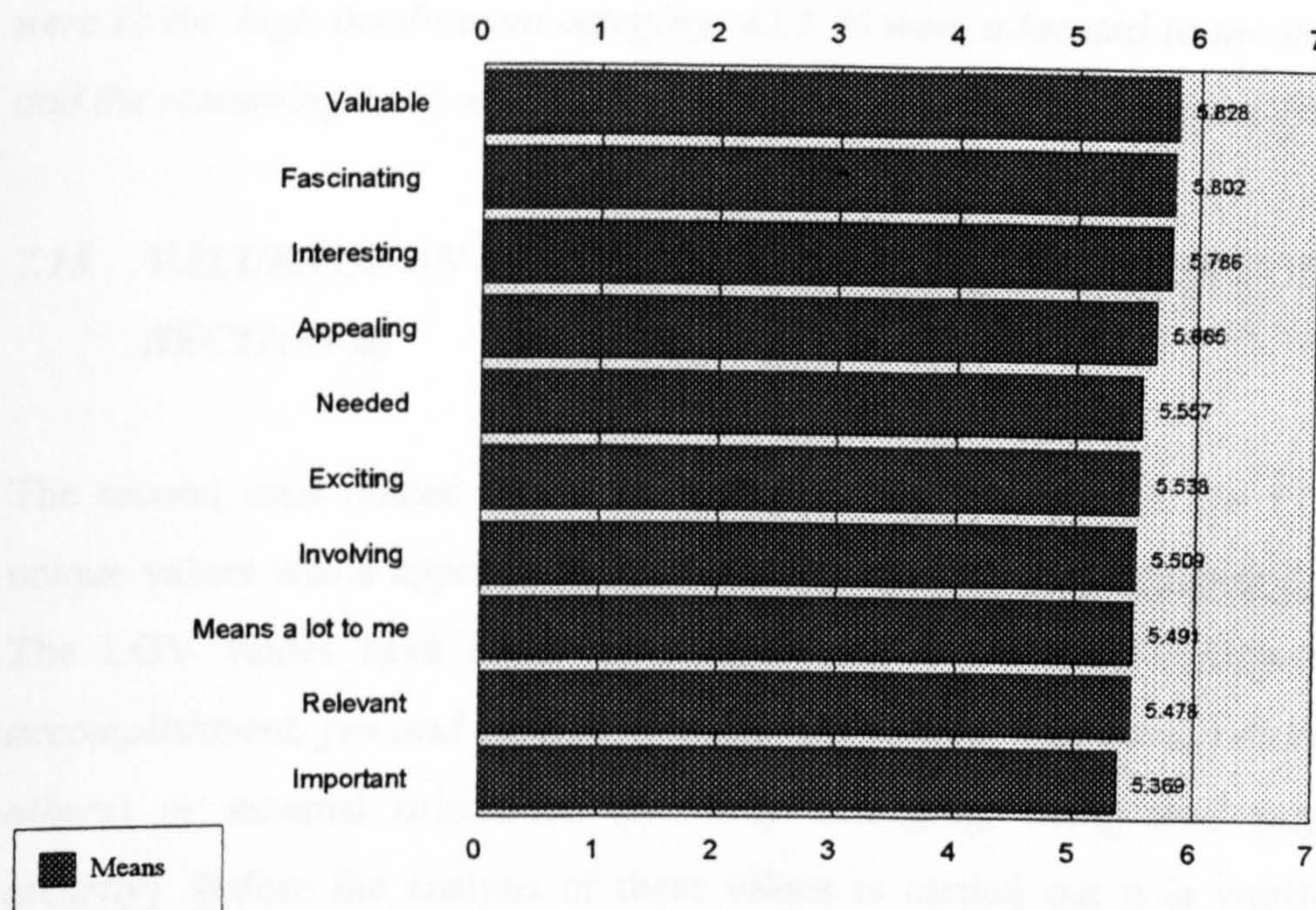
Looking at the results of the scale, the overall reliability was at very high standard (**alpha=0.92**), with mean values ranging from a minimum of 5.36 to a maximum of 5.82 [average mean score of 5.60]. The valuable, fascinating, and interesting items of the scale were found in the higher scores, which pointed to respondents' perception of ecotourism holidays as well as the items which created the unidimensional nature of involvement (see table 7.11 and figure 7.4).

Table 7.11 PII elements perceived towards the concept of ecotourism

PII elements	1*	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mean	Standard Deviation
Important	0.3	1.3	4.7	12.9	34.8	27.4	18.5	5.369	1,166
Interesting	0.5	1.3	3.7	6.6	19.5	38.0	30.3	5.786	1,182
Relevant	1.3	1.8	4.0	10.8	26.1	34.6	21.4	5.478	1,273
Exciting	0.8	1.8	3.4	9.5	27.7	34.6	22.2	5.538	1,213
Means a lot to me	1.6	2.1	1.6	13.5	24.5	35.1	21.6	5.491	1,273
Appealing	1.6	1.6	0.5	8.7	26.9	34.0	26.6	5.665	1,213
Fascinating	0.5	1.3	1.8	6.1	25.1	34.3	30.9	5.802	1129
Valuable	0.5	0.8	1.3	7.4	23.0	36.7	30.3	5.828	1,086
Involving	0.5	1.3	0.8	13.2	30.6	35.4	18.2	5.509	1,092
Needed	0.5	1.3	2.6	14.5	24.3	31.9	24.8	5.557	1,208

*: Unimportant, Boring, Irrelevant, Unexciting, Means Nothing, Unappealing, Mundane, Worthless, Uninvolving, Not needed.

Figure 7.4 PII mean scores perceived towards the concept of ecotourism



7.14.1 Mean scores of PII

All ten items of the PII results manifested scores at the high involvement range indicating the significance of ecotourism. The first item outlined that ecotourism holidays were valuable. It appears that 84.2% scored at the high involvement range [scores 5-7], with the remaining shared between the medium and low involvement categories. Further, ecotourism holidays were seen to be fascinating and interesting all capturing scores at the high involvement level (90.3% versus 87.8% respectively). Further frequent ecotourists also outlined that the holidays were:

1. Appealing [90.3% in high involvement];
2. Needed [81.0% in high involvement];
3. Exciting [84.5% in high involvement];
4. Involving [84.2% in high involvement];
5. Means a lot [81.2% in high involvement];
6. Relevant [82.1% in high involvement];
7. Important [80.7% in high involvement].

In sum, the results confirmed that all the examined items of the scale were at high involvement margins which further illustrated that *54.1% of the frequent ecotourists were in the high involvement category, 43.3 % were allocated to the medium group and the remaining 2.6% were in the low involvement group* (see figure 7.1).

7.15 VALUES OF AN ECOTOURISM HOLIDAY (QUESTION FOUR, SECTION B)

The second scale related to the assessment of the nine items in the LOV and four unique values which appeared in the laddering interviews (see chapter 6, table 6.1c). The LOV values have either an internal (*self-respect, self-fulfillment, sense of accomplishment, fun and enjoyment in life, excitement, and warm relationships with others*) or external orientation (*sense of belonging, being well respected, and security*). Before the analysis of these values is carried out it is worth noting the following:

- Four values of the LOV scale did not appear in the laddering interviews (get self-respect; become well respected; get a sense of belonging; and get security) but were tested at this stage in order to assess a comprehensive LOV scale and explore the similarities or differences with the other quantitative sample; and
- The four unique values derived from laddering interviews belonged mainly to the internal domain. In particular, the values of: *achieve happiness, become more knowledgeable, and get value for money* are internally motivated domains, while the value of *appreciate and respect the world we live in*, serves a mixture of internal and/or external interests (Kamakura and Novak, 1992). The latter mentioned value reflects the maturity domain which in turn is reached through experience of life (Gutman, 1982, Reynolds and Gutman, 1988). Hence, this study treated the value of *appreciate and respect the world we live in*, as a value expressing the maturity motivational domain of the individual, serving internal and/or external interests.

Overall, the leading values found during the laddering interviews were (see chapter 6, section 6.3.4): *appreciate and respect the world we live in* (52.72%); *have fun and enjoyment in life* (45.45%); *become more knowledgeable* (30.90%); *achieve*

happiness (25.45%); and get a sense of accomplishment (25.45%). At this stage, the reliability test on the values was at good standards ($\alpha = 0.88$), indicating that the examined items could be subject to further statistical analysis. In particular, the following analysis was based on the frequency scores, crosstabulations, factor, regression analysis, and Manova.

The results of the thirteen values indicated an overall mean score of 3.55 [with a minimum value of 2.57 and a maximum of 4.40], revealing an above neutral opinion in all the responses. *The following presentation of frequency scores is in descending order based on the mean scores* (see figure 7.5). Overall, two values exhibited scores at the agree level (4), nine values showed scores at the neutral level (3), and the remaining two values were at the disagreement end of the scale (2) [see table 7.12, figure 7.5].

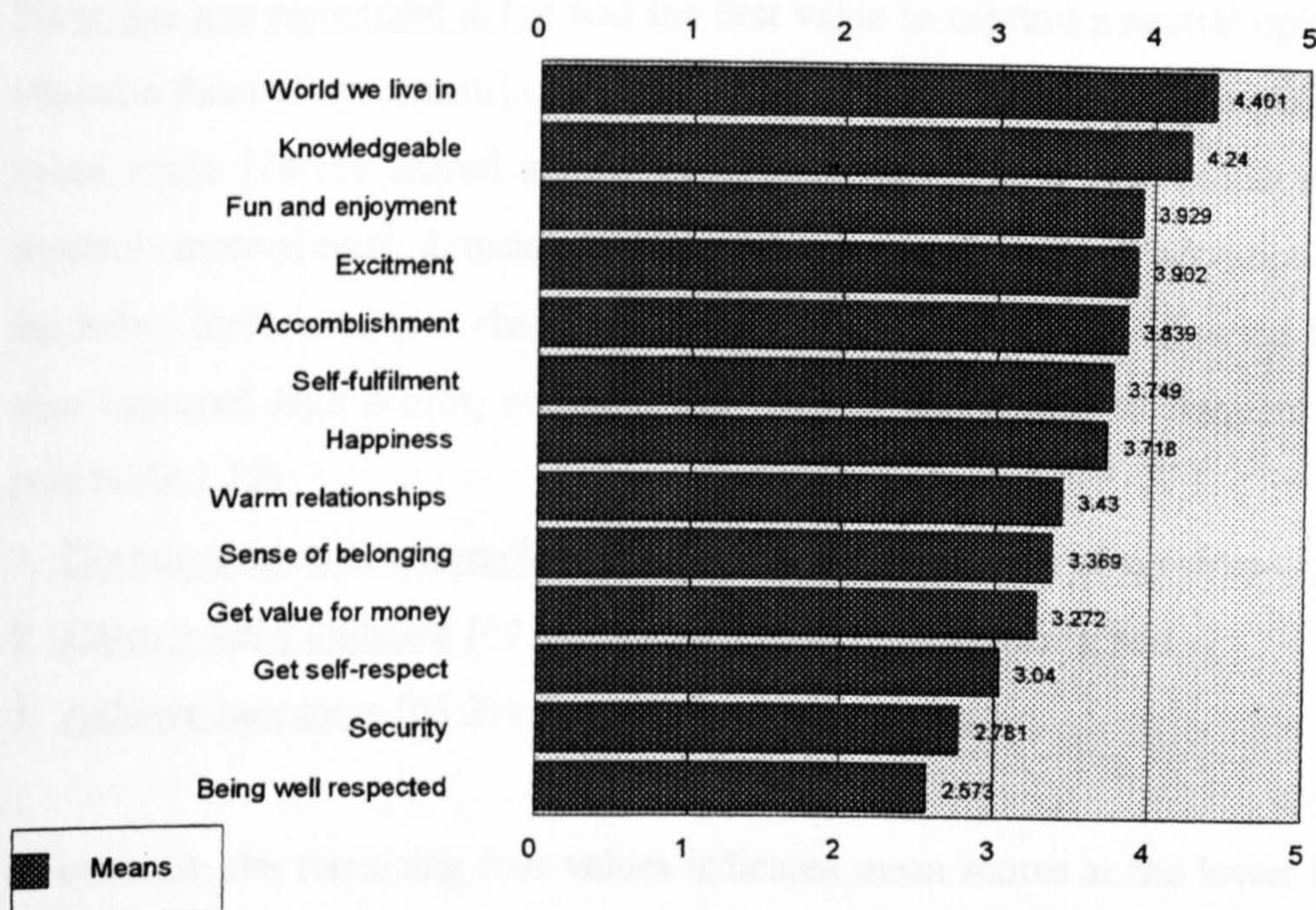
Table 7.12 *Values of ecotourism holidays*

LOV and Laddering values	SD*	D*	N*	A*	SA*	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. Self-respect	6.3	16.1	49.6	23.2	4.7	3.040	0.915
2. Self-fulfillment	1.8	6.3	22.2	54.4	15.3	3.749	0.856
3. Sense of accomplishment	1.8	4.5	19.3	56.7	17.7	3.839	0.831
4. Being well respected	12.9	29.8	45.9	9.8	1.6	2.573	0.914
5. Fun and enjoyment in life	1.1	1.8	20.3	56.7	20.1	3.929	0.754
6. Excitement	0.8	2.6	22.4	53.8	20.3	3.902	0.772
7. Sense of belonging	4.0	8.7	42.2	36.7	8.4	3.369	0.903
8. Warm relationships with others	2.1	10.8	38.3	39.6	9.2	3.430	0.880
9. Security	7.7	28.2	46.4	13.7	4.0	2.781	0.916
10. Get value for money	1.6	11.1	51.2	30.9	5.3	3.272	0.788
11. Achieve happiness	2.1	3.7	29.0	50.7	14.5	3.718	0.834
12. Become more knowledgeable	0.3	1.1	7.4	57.0	34.3	<u>4.240</u>	0.653
13. Appreciate and respect the world we live in	0.3	0.8	5.3	45.9	47.8	<u>4.401</u>	0.653

Please note:

* SD: Strongly Disagree; D: Disagree; N: Neutral; A: Agree; SA: Strongly Agree

Figure 7.5 Mean scores of values of ecotourism holidays



7.15.1 Mean scores at the agree level

The first value was that of appreciate and respect the world we live [93.7% shared a form of agreement]. In a similar vein with the laddering interviews, this value appeared to be at the top of the frequent ecotourists' motivational domain, all suggesting that their experiences were driven by the maturity domain. Further the second most agreeable item was that of becoming more knowledgeable [91.3% shared a form of agreement]. In its most basic indication, becoming more knowledgeable was the third most important value during the laddering analysis, in this case it became a second leading value, an indication that frequent ecotourists considered these holidays as a learning experience. In short, *these two values at the agree level, represented the major influences on the behavior of frequent ecotourists.*

7.15.2 Mean scores at the neutral level

Have fun and enjoyment in life was the first value to capture a neutral opinion [76.8% shared a form of agreement]. Next, the value of get excitement also captured a similar mean score [74.1% shared a form of agreement]. These two values reflected the internal motivational domain of frequent ecotourists, an observation similar to laddering interviews (see chapter 6, section 6.3.4). Yet, the following three values also captured high scores, outlining their overall importance to frequent ecotourists (see table 7.12):

1. Getting a sense of accomplishment [74.4% shared a form of agreement];
2. Getting self-fulfillment [69.7% shared a form of agreement]; and
3. Achieve happiness [65.2% shared a form of agreement].

In contrast, the remaining four values indicated mean scores at the lower level of the neutral opinion, suggesting their secondary role in the overall value selection (see table 7.12):

- Experience warm relationships with others [48.8% shared a form of agreement];
- Get a sense of belonging [45.1% shared a form of agreement];
- Get value for money [36.2% shared a form of agreement]; and
- Get self-respect [27.9% shared a form of agreement].

In sum, ecotourism holidays gave rise mainly to values with an internal orientation and less on values with an external orientation, such as a sense of belonging. This lack of emphasis on the external domain values was reinforced with the remaining two values at the disagreement level.

7.15.3 Mean scores at the disagreement level

Get security was the first value that was considered with a mean score at the disagreement opinion [17.7% shared a form of agreement]. Similarly, the value of become well respected showed a similar response [11.4% shared a form of agreement]. The results of these two externally orientated values indicated their failure to be

associated with ecotourism holidays. In the laddering analysis discussions it was discovered that frequent ecotourists did not mention these two values (see chapter 6, section 6.3.4)

Overall, frequent ecotourists were not concerned with the opinion of others, or with the security aspects of the ecotourism experience process when forming emotions and memories, an indication that the externally orientated values were not represented in their product knowledge structure.

7.16 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VALUES AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between values and selected socio-demographics, a number of null hypotheses were tested. The results manifested that the major influence over the values arose from the levels of involvement, income and marital status (see appendix 10d). On the other hand, gender, age and education revealed only a few relationships indicating their lack of influence upon the values. Quite interestingly, the leading values of 'become more knowledgeable' and 'appreciate and respect the world we live in', were only related to the levels of involvement, *an indication that involvement influences the leading values of frequent ecotourists*. Finally, six different values were influenced by levels of involvement, income and marital status, all indicating not only their complexity but their specialized nature (see appendix 10d).

7.17 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE VALUES

Principal factor analysis using Varimax rotation was conducted on the thirteen values to identify the domains underlining the value structure. The two tests used for the factors' efficiency were quite high, indicating the overall suitability of the current sample:

- **KMO = 0.86** was at the high levels; and
- **BTS=2202.0908**, **p=0.00000**

Further, the loading selected at the current stage was at above ± 0.50 which was of particular significance with an overall factor independency (see table 7.13a). The overall results illustrated three factors explaining 63.1% of the total variance, with overall reliability scores at the significant levels (see table 5.13b):

- Factor 1, illustrated an eigenvalue of 5.58, 43% of the variance with an overall reliability of $\alpha=0.83$;
- Factor 2, illustrated an eigenvalue of 1.58, 12.2% of the variance with an overall reliability of $\alpha=0.66$; and
- Factor 3, illustrated an eigenvalue of 1.03, 7.9% of the total variance with an overall reliability result of $\alpha=0.76$.

Table 7.13a Factor correlation matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Factor 1	1,00000		
Factor 2	,00000	1,00000	
Factor 3	,00000	,00000	1,00000

Table 7.13b Factor loading matrix for the values for an ecotourism holiday

Values	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Become well respected	0.81710	0.10054	0.01077
Security	0.80407	0.16675	0.01046
Self-respect	0.71623	0.17428	0.19244
Warm relationships with others	0.65938	0.20174	0.31207
Sense of belonging	0.62238	0.25997	0.33091
Excitement	0.08697	0.84115	0.18934
Fun and enjoyment in life	0.12963	0.83957	0.15684
Self-fulfillment	0.36610	0.55994	0.37530
Sense of accomplishment	0.32996	0.54698	0.37533
Get value for money	0.43678	0.50836	-0.02891
Happiness	0.28404	0.50008	0.45700
Appreciate and respect the world we live in	0.11495	0.10618	0.87388
Become more knowledgeable	0.09492	0.27609	0.79528
Variance explained	43.0%	12.2%	7.9%
Alpha (α)	0.8322	0.6601	0.7684

7.17.1 Factor scores of ecotourism values

Factor 1 detailed the *external/personal domains* (see table 7.13b). Frequent ecotourists who considered these values were affected by the external environment and established a rapport with other tourists and/or locals in an attempt to satisfy their security and respect driven values. However, both the values of 'become well respected' and 'security' were not very popular among the frequent ecotourists in this sample (see section 7.15.3). This suggests that their effect was negative, in that frequent ecotourists were more interested on personal-orientated values.

Factor 2 detailed the *pleasure/achievement and price internal domains* (see table 7.13b). In the first instance this sample viewed ecotourism with a sense of excitement and enjoyment which illustrated their basic physiological gratification which was apersonal in the sense that it did not involve other people. This gave rise to the achievement domain, illustrating that these individuals were self-actualizers, searching for value for money and happiness.

Factor 3, detailed the *maturity/ knowledgeable domains* (see table 7.13b). These two values were the leading values and showed interconnecting patterns (see section 7.15.1). The factor results suggested that due to their concern about ecology and/or natural beauty, the knowledgeable domain was formed by enhancing the educational abilities of frequent ecotourists. In turn, it would seem that whether or not frequent ecotourists were searching to increase their knowledge depended on how concerned they were about the state of the natural environment.

The evidence of the current factor analysis suggested that there was a clear distinction between external, internal, and maturity orientated domains, and frequent ecotourists could satisfy any of them. The extent to which frequent ecotourists illustrated the external personal domains as the first factor demonstrated that ecotourism primarily aroused the personal interests of its frequent consumers. Next, certain similarities and differences with the other samples were observed, underlining a trend among all the groups of ecotourists (see appendix 10d). In order however, to identify which involvement groups were likely to consider these values, a regression analysis was performed based on the factor scores.

7.18 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF VALUES AND INVOLVEMENT

Linear regression analysis was conducted among the levels of involvement (dependent variables) and the three factors (independent variables). Here, there were two factors in the equation of regression, and one factor failed to be connected (F ratio= 33.48; $p < 0.0001$). In particular, 15.47% of the variance in high involvement was explained by the following sequence (R square= 0.15473):

- Factor 2: pleasure/achievement and price domain (7.6%); and
- Factor 3: maturity / knowledge domain.

Both the use of the unstandard regression coefficients (B) and standardized regression coefficient ($Beta$) illustrated the positive contribution of the pleasure/achievement and price domains ($B = 0.151477$), and the maturity/knowledge domain ($B = 0.143442$) to high-involved frequent ecotourists (see table 7.14).

The reverse scenario occurred with the medium-involved group. Here, the F -ratio was 33.49 and R square was 0.15473, in that 15.47% of the variance in medium involvement was explained by two factors (Factor 2, 3). However, the impact of these two factors on medium-involved frequent ecotourists was negative, both in terms of the unstandard regression coefficients ($B = -0.150576$) and standardized regression coefficient (see table 7.14).

Table 7.14 Regression analysis for levels of involvement and values

<i>Factors</i>	<i>High involvement</i>		<i>Medium involvement</i>	
	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Betas</u>	<u>Significance</u>
<i>Factor 2: Pleasure/achievement and price internal domains</i>	0.288609	$p < 0.0001$	-0.288609	$p < 0.0001$
<i>Factor 3: Maturity/knowledgeable domain</i>	0.280663	$p < 0.0001$	-0.280663	$p < 0.0001$

Further an additional regression analysis examined the socio-demographics, failed to appear in the equation of regression suggesting that education, age, income, gender, and marital status did not influence the levels of involvement at this stage.

In sum, the results suggested that high-involvement frequent ecotourists were greatly influenced by the pleasure and achievement internal domains, and to an equal degree by the maturity/knowledgeable domain ($p < 0.0001$ in both cases). The medium-involvement frequent ecotourists were not influenced by any particular factor, although this does not necessarily mean that they are not influenced by any single value.

Finally, certain similarities and differences with the other samples were observed, pointing to a trend among all the values and involvement (see appendix 10d). In order to identify which values were advocated to high and medium involvement frequent ecotourists, a cluster analysis was performed.

7.19 CLUSTER ANALYSIS OF THE VALUES OF THE ECOTOURISM HOLIDAYS

A K-means cluster analysis was conducted on all the values in order to identify similarities among the frequent ecotourists. Initially, three, five and six cluster solutions were determined and eventually dropped as they did not contain comparable amounts of cases. Eventually, a four cluster solution was accepted to be the most appropriate presentation of the segment of values among frequent ecotourists (see table 7.15). In order to illustrate the differences among the three segments, a one-way Anova with the Duncan multiple range test was conducted (see appendix 10e). followed by cluster descriptions and chi-square analysis both in terms of socio-demographics as well as in terms of similarities with the four segments of the elements of ecotourism holidays.

Table 7.15 Ecotourism value segments

Values	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4
Self-respect	3.56	1.71	2.35	3.15
Self-fulfillment	4.29	1.95	3.42	3.61
Sense of accomplishment	4.35	2.23	3.55	3.69
Being well respected	3.00	1.57	1.75	2.86
Fun and enjoyment in life	4.37	2.52	3.90	3.61
Excitement	4.35	2.61	3.92	3.52
Sense of belonging	3.95	1.76	2.85	3.31
Warm relationships with others	3.93	1.85	2.91	3.47
Security	3.28	1.61	2.08	2.90
Value for money	3.72	2.47	2.98	3.05
Happiness	4.23	2.04	3.61	3.42
More knowledgeable	4.62	3.28	4.19	3.93
Appreciate and respect the world we live in	4.72	3.47	4.27	4.23
Number of respondents	151	21	94	113
Percentage of total sample	39.8%	5.6%	24.8%	29.8%

7.19.1 Value clusters of the frequent ecotourists

Based on the patterns of mean importance ratings, Cluster 1 was labeled as *multi-value seekers with lower security and respect* (see table 7.15). This represents a group of frequent ecotourists who tended to meet more than one value during their trip, all of which were driven by the maturity value domain. Next, all the internally-orientated values were manifested, all of which indicated their lack of interest in the values of 'security' and 'being well respected'. However, the only external value which was of concern to them, was that of 'sense of belonging' which revealed their dependency on social recognition. This was also supported by the emphasis on 'warm relationships with others' expressing their overall search for interpersonal relationships. Cluster 2 was labeled as *naturalism seekers* (see table 7.15). It represented the smallest segment of the current sample, and here frequent ecotourists endorsed the

value of 'appreciate and respect the world we live in'. Naturalism seekers were highly sensitive individuals concerned about the state of the environment, quality aspects of life, and understood the culture and arts of the destination.

Cluster 3 was labeled as *naturalism/ knowledgeable/ enjoyment/ achievement seekers* (see table 7.15). Frequent ecotourists-in this segment were concerned about nature, expressed by their efforts to increase their knowledge in selected activities in order to fulfill and achieve their needs. For example, the primary values of this group endorsed 'appreciate and respect the world we live in', and 'becoming more knowledgeable'. In addition, these holidays were not only seen as a platform from which to increase their educational abilities but also as a form of enjoyment and pleasure. Hence, all the intellectual and physical activities undertaken by these frequent ecotourists touched base with the hedonistic domain. This priority pattern expressed the internal motivational domain of the value structure, as it excluded both the external values and interpersonal relationships with others.

Cluster 4 was labeled as *naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/ achievement/social seekers* (see table 7.15). They represented the second largest segment of the current sample which was identical to cluster 3. Frequent ecotourists in this segment highlighted the same interests as far as internal motivational values were concerned. A distinct difference of this segment was their emphasis on 'warm relationships with others'. As a result, they searched to establish interpersonal relationships with the local population and their overall intellectual, physical and hedonic experiences could be shared with other fellow tourists.

In comparing all the segments it was evident that the common tenet among all the clusters, was the value of 'appreciate and respect the world we live in'. The frequent ecotourists gave great emphasis to the maturity value domain, which was supported by both the hedonic and achievement value domains. In order to explore their characteristics a number of comparisons were conducted in the next section based on the chi-square tests.

7.20 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VALUE-CLUSTERS AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between the four clusters and selected socio-demographics (age, education, income, gender, involvement and marital status), a number of hypothesis were tested. The most influential variable on the clusters was related to the *degree of involvement* of the frequent ecotourists (see table 7.16a, b, c). It is quite interesting to note that no relationships were addressed for education, gender, and age. It seems all frequent ecotourists irrespective of their educational status, gender and age took part in each of the clusters.

The most pronounced differences were between the clusters and the levels of involvement ($\chi^2=42.03$) [see table 7.16a]. The overall results suggested that *medium-involved frequent ecotourists tended to be naturalism seekers (cluster 2) and naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/achievement /social seekers (cluster 4). In turn, high-involved frequent ecotourists tended to be the leading group of naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/achievement seekers (cluster 3), and as multi-value seekers with lower security and respect (cluster 1). It is worth noting that high-involved frequent ecotourists monopolized cluster 1, accentuating the importance attached to different values hence their overall experience and dependency on values during the decision making process ($p<0.00001$).*

Table 7.16a Crosstabulation of value- clusters and level of involvement

Clusters	Medium involvement	High involvement	Row Total
1 <i>Multi-values seekers with lower security and respect</i>	40 24.4%	109 53.2%	149 40.4%
2 <i>Naturalism seekers</i>	12 7.3%	5 2.4%	17 4.6%
3 <i>Naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/achievement seekers</i>	39 23.8%	51 24.9%	90 24.4%
4 <i>Naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/achievement/social seekers</i>	73 44.5%	40 19.5%	113 30.6%
Column Total	164 44.4%	205 55.6%	369* 100%

* Ten missing observations of low involved frequent ecotourists.

Next, certain differences were found between the clusters and income ($\chi^2=16.85$) [see table 7.16b]. The results highlighted that the majority of the multi-value seekers with lower security and respect (cluster 1) had low and mid-range incomes. The naturalism seekers (cluster 2) had both middle and high range incomes. Similarly the naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/achievement seekers (cluster 3) had both middle and high range incomes. The naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/achievement/social seekers (cluster 4) mainly generated the higher incomes, but to a larger extent the lower and mid-range incomes ($p<0.001$).

Table 7.16b Crosstabulation of values-clusters and income of frequent ecotourists

Clusters	Low range [Less than 10,000-15,000]	Mid range [15,000- 25,000]	High range [25,000+]	Row Total
1 Multi-values seekers with lower security and respect	53 50.5%	62 42.8%	36 27.9%	151 39.8%
2 Naturalism seekers	3 2.9%	9 6.2%	9 7.0%	21 5.5%
3 Naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/ achievement seekers	18 17.1%	39 26.9%	37 28.7%	94 24.8%
4 Naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/ achievement/social seekers	31 29.5%	35 24.1%	47 36.4%	113 29.8%
Column Total	105 27.7%	145 38.3%	129 34%	379 100%

In addition certain differences were highlighted between the clusters and marital status ($\chi^2=14.91$) [see table 7.16c]. The results showed that the majority of the multi-value seekers with lower security and respect (cluster 1) were single and married. The naturalism seekers (cluster 2) were mainly married. The naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/achievement seekers (cluster 3) were also in the married category. The naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/achievement/social seekers (cluster 4) were primarily married and to a lesser extent single frequent ecotourists.

Table 7.16c Crosstabulation of values-clusters and marital status of frequent ecotourists

Clusters	Single	Married/ partners	Widowed/ Divorced/ Separated	Row Total
1 Multi-values seekers with lower security and respect	67 51.5%	72 32.7%	12 41.4%	151 39.8%
2 Naturalism seekers	4 3.1%	15 6.8%	2 6.9%	21 5.5%
3 Naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/ achievement seekers	22 16.9%	65 29.5%	7 24.1%	94 24.8%
4 Naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/ achievement/social seekers	37 28.5%	68 30.9%	8 27.6%	113 29.8%
Column Total	105 27.7%	145 38.3%	129 34%	379 100%

Finally a variety of tests concerning the activities, destination continents of travel, type of accommodation, and level of luxury were performed. Significant differences were found between the activities, and type of accommodation. Firstly, there were only two activities to signify a relationship with the clusters:

- a) Rock climbing ($x^2=14.91$): From the total 19% who undertook this activity, 52.8% were the seekers in cluster 1, 2.8% were seekers in cluster 2, 13.9% were seekers in cluster 3, and 30.6% were seekers in cluster 4 ($p<0.05$); and
- b) Nature photography ($x^2=6.40$): From the total 44.6% who participated in this activity, 42.6% were the seekers in cluster 1, 3.0% were seekers in cluster 2, 27.8% were seekers in cluster 3, and 26.6% were seekers in cluster 4 ($p<0.05$).

Secondly, no type of accommodation was related to the value-clusters, instead there were two levels of accommodation luxury:

- a) Luxurious ($x^2=15.78$): From the total 90.5% *who did not* select this level of accommodation luxury, 41.1% were the seekers in cluster 1, 4.1% were seekers in cluster 2, 24.5% were seekers in cluster 3, and 30.3% were seekers in cluster 4. *In all the cases, regardless of the value-segments, luxurious accommodation was not popular among frequent ecotourists of this sample* ($p<0.001$); and
- b) Basic/budget ($x^2=6.82$): From the total 39.8% who selected this type, 45.7% were the seekers in cluster 1, 2.6% were seekers in cluster 2, 21.9% were seekers in cluster 3, and 29.8% were seekers in cluster 4 ($p<0.1$).

In sum, frequent ecotourists, highlighted four different value-clusters reflecting their knowledge at the abstract level of the abstraction concept. In most of the examined segments (clusters 1, 3, and 4), they revealed more than one value, confirming their expertise and experience with ecotourism holidays. This was also reinforced by the interconnections of values of a similar kind (i.e. internal, external, etc.), all allowing values to play an important role during their decision making period for ecotourism holidays. Based on this pattern of results, there were four different value clusters with distinct characteristics:

- ***Multi-values seekers with lower security and respect:***

Single and married with low and mid-range incomes and high levels of involvement, motivated by all the values, except security and being well respected.

Activities:
Rock climbing, natural photography

Level of accommodation:
Basic/budget
- ***Naturalism seekers:***

Married with mid and high range incomes and medium levels of involvement motivated by the value of 'appreciate and respect the world we live in'.
- ***Naturalism / knowledgeable/ enjoyment/achievement seekers:***

Married with mid and high range incomes and high levels of involvement motivated by the internal enjoyment and achievement domains as well as by the knowledgeable and naturalism aspects.

Activities:
Natural photography.

Level of accommodation:
Basic/budget.

- *Naturalism/knowledgeable/
enjoyment/achievement /
social seekers:*

Married with mainly high level incomes and medium levels of involvement motivated by the internal enjoyment and achievement domains and the knowledgeable and naturalism aspects, all of which have a social orientation.

Activities:

Rock climbing and natural photography.

Level of accommodation:

Basic/budget.

7.21 COMPARISON BETWEEN CONSEQUENCES OF AN ECOTOURISM HOLIDAY AND VALUES

A comparison between the consequences of an ecotourism holiday and the values was conducted in order to reveal the connection between consequences and values. The procedure involved an assessment of **factor scores of values with the consequences-clusters**. Here, the hypothesis that was tested was that consequences segments will differ in their agreement ratings of ecotourism-related values. In order to test this hypothesis, a MANOVA was conducted using the consequences segments as the independent variables and the four value factors as dependent variables. The MANOVA procedure indicated that significant differences existed between consequences-clusters and values-factors (Wilk's= 0.86, $F(9, 907)= 6.17$, $p<0.001$). Hence confirming the hypothesis that there were some differences between the examined variables.

Follow-up one way Anova was conducted based on the Duncan test in order to determine which specific consequences segments differed from one another and the different value factors (see table 7.17). Significant differences were found with regard to:

- the *external/personal domain* (F statistic (3, 375)= 8.41, $p<0.0001$): This value domain was related with the majority of frequent ecotourists. Significant differences however, were found between the clusters whereby members in cluster 4 viewed the external/personal domain more favorably than those in clusters 1 and 3. What became clear, was that the values of: 'self-respect'; 'warm relationship with others'; and 'sense of belonging' were shared by most of the clusters;
- the *internal/pleasure/achievement and price domains* (F statistic (3, 375)= 4.23, $p<0.005$): Of the segments considering this value domain, members in cluster 4 stressed these values more favorably than the remaining segments did. In overall terms, these values were not related to people in cluster 1; and
- the *maturity/knowledgeable domain* (F statistic (3, 375)= 5.68, $p<0.001$): This value domain was related to members of cluster 4. This indicated that frequent ecotourists who highlighted a wealth of consequences and expertise in terms of

product knowledge, were associated with the values of ‘appreciate and respect the world we live in’ and ‘become more knowledgeable’.

Table 7.17 One way Anova analysis between the means of ecotourism values and consequences clusters

Value components	CLUSTER 1 Social/ environmental awareness seekers	CLUSTER 2 Social/ environmentally conscious seekers	CLUSTER 3 Social/ environmental and educational re-experience seekers	CLUSTER 4 Re-experience social/ environmental/ educational/ conservational seekers	Contrast
External/ personal domains	0.06	-0.43	0.02	0.23	III>II I>III
Internal/pleasure/ achievement and price domains	-0.42	0.02	0.08	0.09	III>I III>II
Maturity/ knowledgeable domains	-0.37	-0.08	-0.03	0.24	III>I III>II III>III

In overall terms, certain observations were noted from two different perspectives. From the involvement point of view, the results outlined that the consequences-segments which had greater levels of involvement both in terms of the unidimensional and means-end chain perspectives (clusters 3 and 4) were related with most of the values (see section 7.12). This highlights that only ecotourists within clusters 3 and 4 were considered as having a wealth of consequences, a wealth of values, and an overall wealth of product involvement.

From the ecotourism point of view, there were distinct differences as a result of this comparison. Although frequent ecotourists with strong educational and conservational interests (cluster 4) acknowledged all values, their leading value domain was that of 'maturity'. In particular frequent ecotourists in cluster 4 were more likely to consider ecotourism to be synonymous with the learning experience process. Further, frequent ecotourists who highlighted their consciousness and attempted to improve the standards for future holiday makers (clusters 2, 3, and 4) also addressed the pleasure/achievement and price domains, an indication of their internal motivational domain. In all the cases, the strong emphasis on the social component at the consequences level (i.e. respect the local population and indigenous people) was reflected in the generation of the external/personal value domain, in more than one cluster.

7.22 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the results of a comprehensive analysis of the demographic and motivational characteristics of frequent ecotourists, the elements that they have identified in an ecotourism holiday and their levels of involvement. The techniques used have enabled the ecotourists to be clustered into several groups that combine the demand and supply-side preferences of ecotourists.

In terms of their demographic profile, frequent ecotourists tended to be female, young to middle aged, with mid to high-range incomes and likely to be married, although a large number of individuals traveled alone in the sample. Educational levels were relatively high. Relating to their ecotourism activities, this group was likely to be involved in educational tours, admiring nature and observing animals, followed by a range of active pursuits such as bush walking. The levels of involvement of frequent ecotourists was high (54.1%) or medium (43.3%).

In terms of the analysis of attributes, the majority of frequent ecotourists were attracted by natural attractions and educational related components. In terms of consequences, frequent ecotourists were interested in social and conservational-orientated elements whereas in terms of values, the majority of the examined group

where motivated by the maturity and internal values domains, such as appreciate and respect the world we live in and excitement.

Factor analysis identified that in terms of attributes, the concept of ecotourism appears to contain a multiple base of cultural/social, natural attractions, price/outdoors, and educational. For high-involved ecotourists natural attractions and educational components were the key factors whereas not a single component influenced medium-involved ecotourists.

Factor analysis also outlined that in terms of consequences, the concept of ecotourism appears to have a multiple base of environmental and social awareness, educational/conservational, energetic/memorable and relaxation. For highly-involved ecotourists environmental/social, educational/conservation, and energetic/memorable consequences were the key factors. For the medium-involved frequent ecotourists, there were not strong relationships.

Finally a series of clusters were elicited from the analysis. Frequent ecotourists can be grouped as socially/environmentally aware seekers, socially/environmentally conscious seekers, socially/environmentally conscious and educational re-experience seekers and re-experience socially/environmentally/educational/conservational seekers. For each cluster it is possible to identify typical demographic and involvement profile.

A further analysis of the values of frequent ecotourists elicits clusters of multi-value seekers with lower security and respect, naturalism seekers, naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/achievement seekers and naturalism/knowledgeable/enjoyment/achievement/social seekers. Overall these clusters were related to the level of involvement, showing that involvement was a significant factor in their ecotourism holidays.

CHAPTER EIGHT

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF OCCASIONAL AND FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS

8.0 Comparative analysis of occasional and frequent ecotourists

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This study has utilised the concept of consumer involvement to measure two different profiles of ecotourists proving that involvement techniques can produce insights into the behavior of ecotourists. There were two main reasons for using the concept of involvement to determine the consumer behavior of ecotourists. *Firstly*, as the tourism market matures an increasing percentage of the market are sophisticated and demand highly specialized holiday products. The use of the concept of involvement attests the overall or passive interest in a particular type of holiday, in this case ecotourism. *Secondly*, by assessing the knowledge structure of ecotourists the complete range of different behavior types will emerge, together with the elements which cause these distinct forms of behavior.

Looking at the foundation of this research, the cognitively-based and pot-pourri approaches to involvement were used in this study. The former aspect of involvement involves an assessment of individual product-knowledge structures by exploring the means-end chains. The structural characteristics of the means-end chain are based on an assessment of attributes, consequences and values as well as an enumeration of their centrality, dimensionality, and relatedness principles (see section 3.4). On the other hand, the latter aspect of involvement referred to the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) which not only highlights the degree of involvement in terms of its low, medium and high positions but is also a representative of the unidimensional view of the concept (see section 3.11).

In order to gain an understanding of ecotourists behavior and involvement, this study assessed ecotourists according to their *frequent and occasional presence in an ecotourism setting*. These two types of presence must be supported by an intention to be educated and/or to conserve and were asked in advance so ecotourists could rank themselves into either frequent or occasional samples. The ramification of their quantitative and/or qualitative assessment articulated the profiles and characteristics of occasional and frequent ecotourists, and induced the emergence of involvement patterns.

8.2 OCCASIONAL ECOTOURISTS

A questionnaire was distributed to 610 occasional ecotourists and of these 247 were returned for analysis (see chapter 5). Their socio-demographic characteristics indicated that the majority of the occasional ecotourists were single females, aged between 17-34 years with low levels of income (less than £10,000 to £15,000), who preferred to travel with just one person. The educational history of the occasional ecotourists revealed a degree/ postgraduate background (66.8%) which was related to their income levels, in the sense that those with a better education had higher incomes ($p < 0.05$). The activities undertaken on an ecotourism holiday were closely linked to the definition of ecotourism such as admiring nature, observation of animals and educational guided tours. In addition, their preferred continents of travel were Europe and Asia, and they favored accommodation with basic facilities such as staying in a tent. It emerged that 63.2% of these individuals were not members of any particular environmental organisation, although respondents with a higher educational background were more likely to be members of such groups ($p < 0.05$). Nevertheless, young-aged ecotourists with a single marital status tended to be members in such organisations, all suggesting that the reasoning behind the lack of membership is either related to lack of education and/or social commitments ($p < 0.05$ in both cases).

Next, the assessment of the unidimensional characteristics of involvement revealed that a great proportion of these individuals were in the high involvement category (78.5%) followed by a small percentage in the medium involvement group (20.6%). Quite interestingly, only two ecotourists entertained low involvement levels signifying the overall occasional group to be greatly involved with such holidays. The generation of such involvement levels was influenced by the educational background of the occasional ecotourists, in that individuals with a higher education were highly- involved with ecotourism holidays ($p < 0.05$).

In order to reveal the most significant results found in the analysis an examination of the meaning of ecotourism by the occasional ecotourists, the items which determine their involvement levels, and the different profiles of occasional ecotourists in terms of their ecotourism and value elements will be outlined in the next sections.

8.2.1 The meaning of ecotourism for occasional ecotourists

According to occasional ecotourists the concept of ecotourism has five main components (see sections 5.8 and 5.8.1):

- a) ***Natural attractions(26.7%)***: includes both protected and non protected areas such as rural countryside, undisturbed natural areas, and national parks;
- b) ***Cultural/social component with an educational orientation (11.1%)***: includes cultural educational and social experiences such as cultural attractions, explore the area and be educated;
- c) ***Educational component (9.2%)***: details the nature of the educational experience in both protected and non protected areas such as intent to study and admire an undisturbed area and increase their knowledge;
- d) ***Relaxation component (8.8%)***: includes mostly the relaxation elements such as the enjoyment of the weather and shopping in the local stores. In this component of ecotourism there is the appearance of cheap fees to national parks, confirming the occasional nature of these ecotourists; and
- e) ***Outdoor component (4.9%)***: includes outdoor orientated elements which have a social flavor such as energetic, outdoor activities, and being with others who enjoy the same.

Here, the natural attraction component (a) represents nearly a third of the total variance. It contains the core elements of ecotourism, which subsequently gave rise to all the other components of ecotourism. Major issues arising from these comparisons, is that two different components (b and c) are characterised by an educational flavor. It follows that ecotourism is a learning process which is either culturally or nature orientated. Further three components (b, c and e) contain social elements, which are modified by cultural, educational and outdoor interests. Hence, these results support the evidence that ecotourism contains three components of ecotourism mentioned in the literature, that of natural-based, educational and sustainability. The appearance of both the relaxation and outdoor components tend to be quite low confirming that there are no major elements influencing its nature.

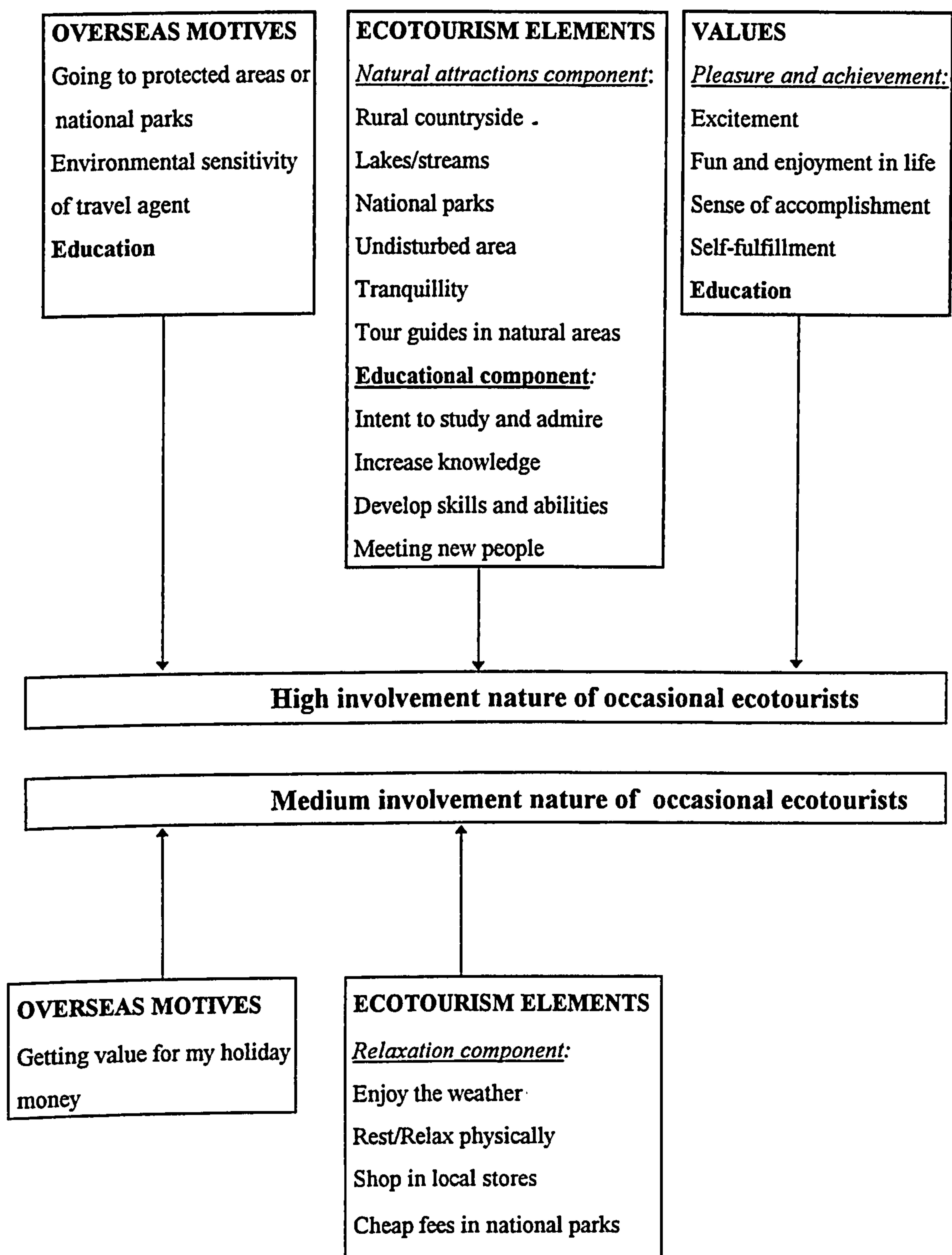
8.2.2 Elements influencing involvement

The regression analysis throughout the sample revealed distinct characteristics between the medium and high involvement groups of occasional ecotourists (see figure 8.1). The structural differences between these two groups appeared at first to be related by the number of items which one group generates. In particular the high involvement groups articulated more overseas travel motives, all of which have an environmentally-orientated element and an educational flavor. In turn, the medium involvement group attested only one element, that of getting value for money. This initial comparison reveals two important results in terms of the ecotourism and involvement research.

From the *ecotourism perspective*, it is the high involvement group of occasional ecotourists who are more likely to visit natural settings as opposed to the medium involvement subjects. From the *involvement point of view*, the high involvement subjects generated more items which was confirmed by the use of the PII as an indicator of involvement, and reflected the generation of more items. Additionally, the elements which gave rise to the nature of high involvement were related to the natural based and educational elements of this holiday product. In turn, the elements which gave rise to medium involvement were related to the 'price' element.

On a similar vein, it was the high involvement group of ecotourists who acknowledged their intentions to visit the natural attractions and participate in the educational activities. On the contrary, the medium involvement group identified with the relaxation component which directly demonstrated a reduced intention to visit ecotourism settings and indirectly confirmed that they are more likely to participate in other forms of tourism or have a passive interest. In addition, the literature on ecotourism suggested that it is the educational characteristics of ecotourism which distinguish it from other forms of natural-based tourism (see section 2.6). If this is the case, it is strongly supported by the high involvement group who acknowledged this component regardless of their occasional presence in such settings. Similarly, with the overseas travel motives the nature of high involvement is affected in this case only by the natural attraction and educational elements. On the other hand, the nature of medium involvement is affected by the relaxation component (see figure 8.1).

Figure 8.1 Occasional ecotourists and involvement



In addition, the most important finding concerned the medium involvement group of ecotourists who were not influenced by any particular value factor scores. Although this does not necessarily mean that were not influenced by any single value, it does suggest that the high involvement subjects are motivated by internally orientated values. This indicates that high-involved individuals are expressive, unconventional and seek autonomy in many aspects of their holiday (i.e. fun and enjoyment, excitement). Thus, they tend to occasionally participate in ecotourism holidays as a means of indicating their achievement and enjoyment values, suggesting that they are internally motivated ($p < 0.00001$). In turn, the nature of high involvement is influenced only by the pleasure and achievement domains as well as the educational background of these ecotourists.

This diversity of motives, ecotourism elements, and values as a result of the involvement levels of the occasional ecotourists reflects the importance of involvement and further indicates that it is the *medium involvement group who tend to be associated with other activities rather than being ecotourism related*. This can be also noted from the following distinct segments of occasional ecotourists.

8.2.3 The occasional ecotourists profiles and characteristics

There were four main groups of occasional ecotourists with a number of characteristics between them, in terms of ecotourism elements (see table 5.9 and section 5.11):

- a) *natural-based seekers (19.9%)*: represents the hard group, devoted only to the natural component of the concept such as the intention to explore the area and be educated. Their *socio-demographic characteristics comprised of middle and older-aged males, and young and middle-aged female ecotourists who are married with higher incomes*;
- b) *social/natural/educational seekers (33.2%)*: it represents the largest group motivated by both social and educational intentions such as new and different lifestyles and explore the area and be educated. *Their socio-demographic characteristics comprised of young and middle-aged male and female ecotourists who were single and had low and middle-range incomes*;
- c) *social/outdoor seekers (30.7%)*: represents the second largest group and they are motivated by both the social and outdoor activities such as experience of

new and different lifestyles as well as participation in outdoor activities. *Their socio-demographic characteristics comprised of young and middle-aged males and young female ecotourists who were single, with low and high incomes;*

- d) *imaginative seekers (16.2%):* represents the smallest group of this category motivated by a variety of elements such as the experience of new and different lifestyles as well as the exploration of the natural area with an attempt to be educated. *Their socio-demographic characteristics comprised of young-aged female ecotourists who were single and/or married with low and middle-range incomes.*

In comparing all the clusters it can be seen that occasional ecotourists were divided into people who were seeking a pure natural based experience, a multidimensional experience of natural-social-educational orientation, a social outdoor experience, and a pot pourri experience (a mixture of all the proposed ecotourism elements). Initially, occasional ecotourists gave great emphasis to social experiences which includes both lifestyles and the people. Three out of four segments have the social interaction component as a primary element. It seems that the current sample highly rated *the social experiences which consequently gave rise to natural and outdoor experiences*. All occasional ecotourists are also searching for ‘opportunities to increase one’s knowledge’ and ‘explore the area and be educated’. For the third segment, that of social/outdoor seekers, although they contain both the education and increase of knowledge elements, their experiences tend to be related more to the social perspective rather than the natural-based one. In all the cases, nearly 69.3% of the ecotourists (segments one, two, and four) within this sample indicated their intentions for ecotourism related elements, with 30.7% (segment three) highlighting rather an usual profile of individuals in terms of ecotourism experiences. This is also indicated by their unique characteristics in terms of their involvement and value composition.

8.2.4 The involvement levels, value and profiles of occasional ecotourists

Nine different values were tested with the most agreeable frequent scores illustrating that ecotourists were primarily interested in *internal orientated values* (sense of accomplishment, fun and enjoyment in life, excitement, and self-fulfillment), and to a lesser degree the *external orientated values* (being well respected and security). Quite interestingly, the only external-orientated value to appear at the agreeable level was that of *sense of belonging*. This affected their profiles which exemplified the four groups of occasional ecotourists as also being influenced by the levels of involvement. The natural-based seekers tended to be highly-involved individuals who were internally motivated (see appendix 11a). These individuals who were only interested in natural educational experiences were motivated by a single value domain, allowing their experiences to be exclusive. On the other hand the social/natural/educational/seekers tended to be highly-involved individuals who were primarily motivated by an external and then an internal domain. Initially this suggests that individuals who participate in an number of different ecotourism orientated practices tend to fulfill two different groups of values. Considering that the occasional ecotourists of this category gave great emphasis to 'seeing new and different lifestyles', meant their natural experiences are not only socially directed but that this social element is mainly related to their personal/external domain.

Next, the social/outdoor seekers who selected the social/outdoor orientated attributes and consequences did not connect with any values (see appendix 11a). This confirms that people with medium levels of involvement are more likely to have less product knowledge and expertise regarding ecotourism holidays. This implies that these ecotourists tend to be occupied with other tourism holiday products than ecotourism. Finally, the imaginative seekers were highly involved individuals interested in a variety of elements of an ecotourism holiday (see appendix 11a). Here two groups of values were elicited to direct their experience, in which the primary emphasis was on the social dimension which gave rise to fulfillment of an external/personal domain.

In sum, the results indicated that occasional ecotourists were highly involved ecotourists with distinct profiles. Occasional ecotourists tended to be motivated mainly by the *external /personal orientated values* (segments 2 and 4), except the values of security and self respect which appeared as not agreeable items during the analysis (see table 5.18).

These individuals tended to have a mixture of anthropocentric, ecocentric and educational centric stances. The remaining ecotourists who had a *sole ecocentric stance primarily attested an internal value domain* (segment 1) [see table 5.18]. This conceptualization of both ecotourism and involvement in terms of elements influencing their nature is also illustrated by the frequent ecotourists sample.

8.3 THE FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS

Two different samples of frequent ecotourists were analyzed from a qualitative and quantitative perspective. This group of ecotourists were considered to frequently participate in natural-based activities with an intention to educate and/or conserve. As such 55 frequent ecotourists were initially interviewed in order to illustrate the different elements of their means-end chains, as well as to present their profiles in terms of their involvement levels (see chapter 6). Next, a questionnaire was designed based on these results and distributed to 970 frequent ecotourists and of these 379 were returned for the analysis (see chapter 7).

Significant differences were found during the interviews as well as during the quantitative assessment when comparing this group to occasional ecotourists. In the next parts, the analysis begins with the findings of the laddering interviews followed by the results of the quantitative treatment of the frequent ecotourists sample.

8.4 THE QUALITATIVE PROFILES OF FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS

The socio-demographic characteristics of frequent ecotourists indicated that the majority of people interviewed were single females aged between 17-34 years with average levels of income, that of less than £10,000 to £20,000 (see chapter 6, section 6.3). On the other hand, males were a wealthier group of frequent ecotourists, with earnings above £20,000. Next, the traveling preferences of both gender groups indicated that they preferred traveling with one other person. The educational background of both males and females was at undergraduate levels, although more males held postgraduate qualifications. An examination of the involvement levels revealed that 47.3% of the frequent ecotourists were in the high involvement category, followed by 40% in the medium and the remaining

12.7% in the low involvement category. Furthermore, the interviews with the frequent ecotourists revealed the connections between attributes, consequences and values of ecotourism. In this case, 11 attributes, 13 consequences, and 9 values, represented their product knowledge structures (see tables 4.11a, b, c).

The most significant finding of the laddering interviews concerned the appearance of the values. Most importantly, these values *did not belong to the external domain*, which includes the values of being well respected, security, and sense of belonging. This suggests that frequent ecotourists did not rely on external circumstances to motivate their personalities. In turn, they *mentioned two values that of 'appreciate and respect the world we live in' and 'become more knowledgeable' reflecting their maturity and knowledgeable value domain*. In addition, this value domain was also supported by a number of internally-orientated values.

In overall terms, the analysis covered three different objectives. Firstly, a comparison between male and female frequent ecotourists, secondly an analysis in terms of low, medium, and high involvement, and thirdly an analysis of male and female medium and high-involved frequent ecotourists (see chapter 6). In order to reveal the most important results which were the meaning of ecotourism for frequent ecotourists, the items which determine their involvement levels, and their different profiles in terms of their ecotourism and value elements will all be outlined in the next sections.

8.4.1 The meaning of ecotourism for frequent ecotourists during the interviews

During the laddering interviews the meaning of the concept was accessed through the individuals selection of attributes. Most of these attributes showed connections with the consequences of ecotourism. This indicates that their understanding of ecotourism evolved through the importance of these attributes, and this importance was based on the number of times an attribute was mentioned by these individuals. The eleven different attributes which appeared in their product knowledge structure reflected *the natural attraction component* of the concept (to see the natural environment and protected areas, to travel to wild places on earth and to experience a unique exclusive place) [see appendix 11b and sections 6.3]. Further, the price-orientated attribute followed by the educational and social/cultural attributes, were the next most popular choices outlining their basic

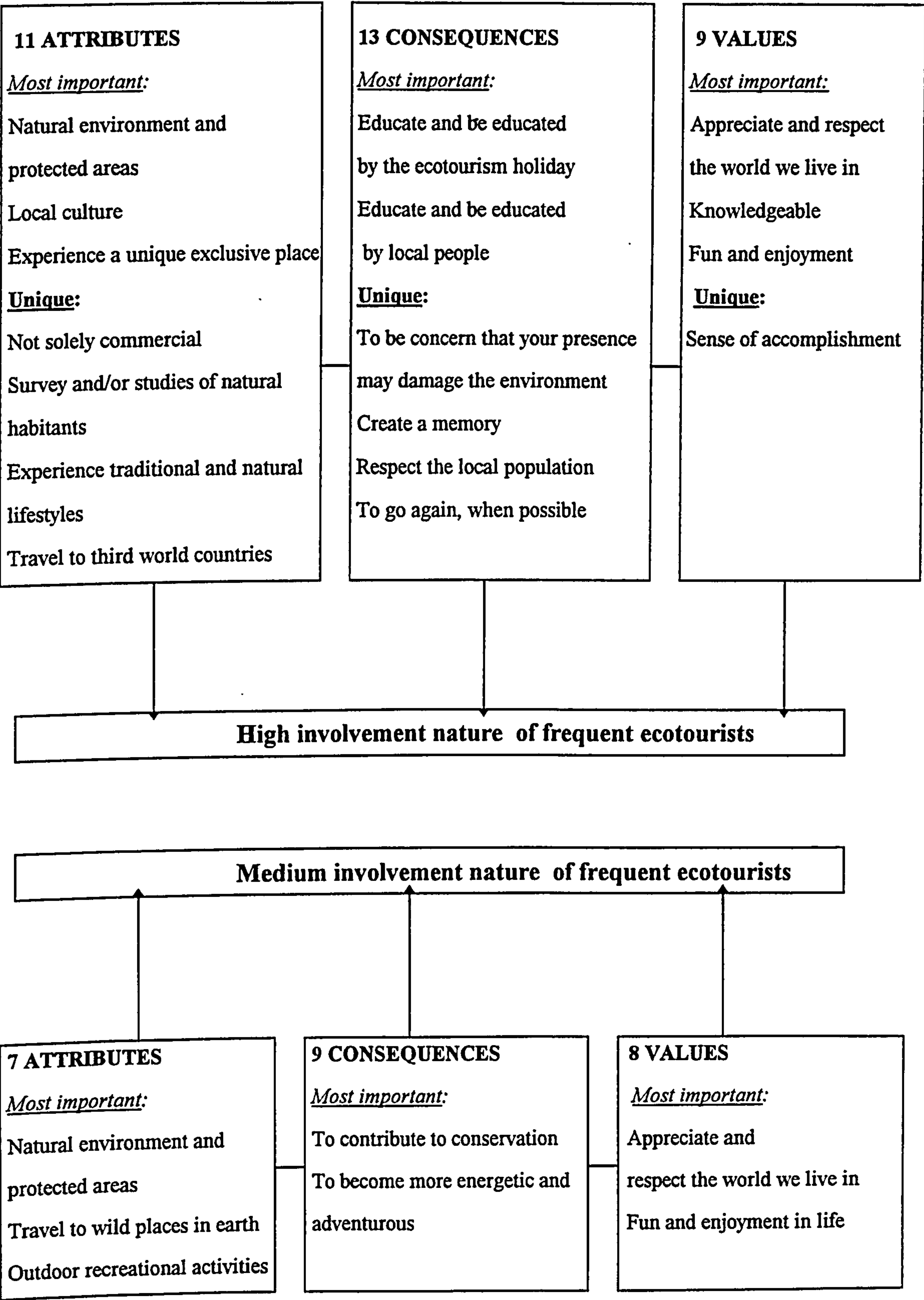
understanding of the components of ecotourism [see appendix 11b and sections 6.3]. What become implicit in the attributes analysis was that female frequent ecotourists were the leading group in terms of items selection, as they revealed a wealthier product knowledge at the concrete level of the abstraction concept.

Further, the most important finding concerned the sustainability orientated consequences. Interestingly, this component of ecotourism appeared at the consequences level suggesting a more detailed product knowledge as it includes connections with the latter mentioned attributes. In addition this was supported by a similar emphasis on the educationally orientated consequences. Looking at the allocation of these consequences, the primary attention was on the *educational and conservation orientated consequences* rather than on other consequences such as price or outdoors (see appendix 11b and sections 6.3). On the other hand, although females had more unique consequences and more connections between these consequences during the laddering analysis, both gender groups revealed that the *natural attractions component is linked to the educational and conservation orientated consequences*. Furthermore, the importance attached to the meaning of ecotourism was also affected by the elements which influence the nature of involvement.

8.4.2 Elements influencing involvement during the interviews

Differences in the involvement levels of the frequent ecotourists were revealed during the laddering interviews (see figure 8.2). Observed differences among the involvement categories seemed to change on a content and structural basis. In terms of content, the high involvement group of ecotourists demonstrated more total items of the means-end chain (attributes, consequences, and values) as opposed to the medium involvement subjects (see section 6.4.1). In comparing their differences during the laddering analysis, it was revealed that the high involvement individuals tend to differ in terms of the consequences that they generate. This suggests that these individuals had a better understanding in terms of how specific attributes influence their ecotourism holiday experience (consequences), and how these consequences will assist them to achieve their abstract knowledge (see section 6.4.1). This was confirmed by the structural analysis of the means-end chain, in which the dimensionality, centrality, and relatedness scores were in favor of the high involvement group confirming their wealthier product knowledge

Figure 8.2 Frequent ecotourists and involvement: means-end chain perspective



structure (see section 6.4.5). This suggests that from the *involvement research point* of view, the unidimensional and cognitively-based approaches, are compatible in the sense that the use of the PII as an indicator of involvement reflected the generation of more items in the cognitively-based approach. From the *ecotourism stance*, it is the high involvement group of frequent ecotourists who were more knowledgeable in terms of the natural, educational, and sustainability components of the concept. In particular, at the attributes level the high involvement group tended to have more environmental orientated attributes and the medium involvement group favored the outdoor activities component of ecotourism holidays (see figure 8.2).

At the consequences level, the high involvement group acknowledged an educational and ecological-orientated role in their consequences whereas the medium involvement group provided a blend of both conservational and outdoor recreational characteristics. At the value levels, although these two groups were quite similar, differences were found in favor of high involvement ecotourists in terms of the importance of the maturity and knowledgeable value and internal value domains (see figure 8.2).

A more detailed view on this matter also outlined that the *females high involvement frequent ecotourist* exhibited a more detailed knowledge structure and preference to the natural, educational, and sustainability components of the concept (see section 6.5 and appendix 9). Overall, the results pointed that the elements which gave rise to high involvement referred to the natural attraction, conservation and educational elements. In turn, the elements influencing the medium involvement referred to the conservation and outdoor orientated elements. It is important to note, that the interviews did not serve as a basis to create profiles for the frequent ecotourists, as this required a cluster analysis to be performed. However, the interviews assisted to underline all the different variations of the product knowledge structures of ecotourists. As the cognitive approach to involvement suggests the aim is to identify how the consequences of the product are related to certain values. Therefore, the groupings of these consequences reflects the characteristics of these individuals. Not surprisingly, the high involvement group of ecotourists generated more consequences and values in the following comparison.

8.4.3 The involvement levels, values and profiles of frequent ecotourists during the interviews

Thirteen values were tested with the most significant values referring to the *maturity and knowledgeable value domain* and to a lesser extent to the internal-orientated values. This affected their motivational characteristics in which ecotourists tended to highlight distinct profiles as a result of their consequences and values. Frequent ecotourists who highlighted the so-called *core elements of the product experience process*, that of conservation, education, and consciousness were in either the medium or high involvement category. Although, the high involvement ecotourists presented more unique consequences of this nature, both groups linked these elements with the maturity and knowledgeable value domain (see appendix 11c). In addition, ecotourists who preferred the so-called *enhanced and augmented elements of their experience process*, acknowledged mainly an internal orientated value domain (see appendix 11c).

In both cases, the frequent ecotourists were not motivated by the social-orientated attributes and consequences, therefore they were not anthropocentric. In sum, the results highlighted that ecotourists with education-centric and ecocentric stances were motivated by the maturity and knowledgeable value domain.

8.5 THE QUANTITATIVE PROFILE OF FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS

Frequent ecotourists socio-demographic characteristics indicated that the majority of these individuals were married females, aged between 17-54 years with a low and mid range of incomes, that of less than £10,000 to £20,000 (see chapter 7). The males of this sample were middle-aged, between 35-54 years, with middle and high ranges of incomes, that of £15,000 to more than £35,000. On average however, the current sample comprised of middle aged individuals between 35-54 years who preferred to travel with only one person. The educational status of both males and females was a degree and postgraduate background (60.5%) and this manifested across all the age and gender classifications. Their educational background was in accordance to their income, in that the higher their educational status the higher their total earning were ($p < 0.01$). The main activities undertaken on an ecotourism holiday were that of educational guided tours, followed by

observing animals and admiring nature. In addition, their preferred continents of travel were Europe and Asia, and their most usual accommodation was staying in hotels and motels. Quite interestingly, 78.1% of this sample were not members of any particular environmental group or society, although the people who were members tended to be from the high rather than the medium involvement category ($p < 0.05$).

Further, evidence of the unidimensional nature of involvement revealed that 54.1% of the frequent ecotourists were in the high involvement category, and 43.3% were in the medium involvement group. Thereafter, there were only ten frequent ecotourists in the low involvement category, and there were no relationships with any socio-demographic characteristics, all suggesting that there is not an influence and/or dependency on the background of these ecotourists. In order to reveal the most significant results found in the analysis of the meaning of ecotourism by frequent ecotourists, the items which determine the involvement levels, the different profiles of the frequent ecotourists in terms of their ecotourism and value elements will be outlined in the next sections.

8.5.1 The meaning of ecotourism for frequent ecotourists

The concept of ecotourism according to the frequent ecotourists was subject to five main attribute-components (see sections 7.5 and 7.5.1):

- a) ***Social/cultural component (29.7%)***: includes two main attributes of the ecotourism product, that of the traditional and natural lifestyles and local culture;
- b) ***Natural attractions component (11.3%)***: includes attributes of both protected and non protected natural areas such as travel to wild places on earth, the natural environment and protected areas and experience of a unique exclusive place;
- c) ***Price/outdoor component (9.7%)***: includes attributes in relation to the price of the holiday as well as the recreational activities such as expensive holiday, not solely commercial places and outdoor-recreation activities; and
- d) ***Educational component (9.2%)***: includes educationally orientated attributes such as do a survey and/or study of natural habitats, visits to historical attractions, and third world countries.

The issues arising from the ecotourism treatment are related to the emphasis on the cultural/social domain of ecotourism which is the first priority of middle-aged frequent ecotourists. The first two elements (a and b) were cultural interests and natural attractions which underline an understanding exists regarding the core basis of ecotourism. In addition, participation in outdoor activities is related to price, highlighting that there is evidence to suggest that the fulfillment of certain sub-elements of ecotourism is accompanied by a number of determinants, in this case price. Considering the fact that the majority of this sample indicated that ecotourism holidays are not expensive, it signifies that the selection of outdoor activities is closely related to price, and further pinpoints that price is a determinant of whether or not outdoor activities are considered by this sample. The educational component highlights attributes with an educational flavor which represents the smallest proportion given for the concept of ecotourism. Hence, these results initially support the evidence that ecotourism contains two out of the three common elements mentioned in the literature, that of natural-based and educational.

The sustainability component however, did not appear at the attributes level but at the consequences suggesting that frequent ecotourists treated this product from a different perspective. This is related with their more detailed knowledge of the sustainability component, and is the reasoning behind the utilisation of the previously mentioned components. In addition this has been supported by a similar distinct emphasis on the educational orientated consequences. Looking at the nature of the consequences using the attribute components of the product, four components were identified (see sections 7.9 and 7.9.1):

- a) ***Environmental and social awareness consequences (29.2%)***: includes certain elements which underline ecotourists social and environmental concern during their visits, such as to be concerned that your presence may damage the environment, respect the local population and indigenous people and maintain environmental standards for future holiday makers;
- b) ***Educational/conservation component (13%)***: includes the nature of the educational and conservation elements such as to educate and be educated by the ecotourism holidays, and to contribute actively in conservation of these areas;

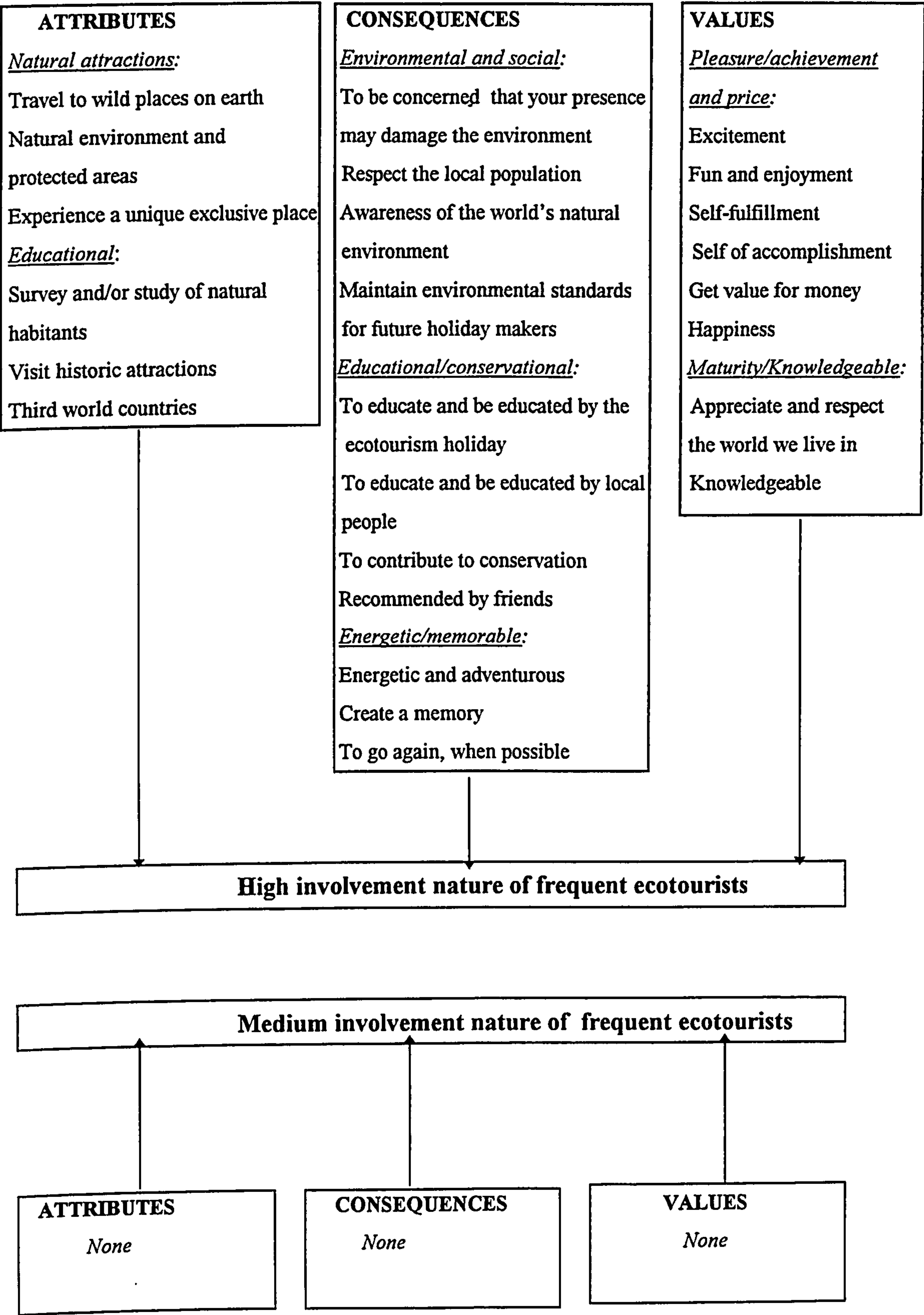
- c) ***Energetic/memorable component (8.8%)***: includes the memorable experience elements which enhance their general adventurous element which is not just outdoor orientated, such as to be more energetic and adventurous, to create a memory that normal holidays could not give me, and to go again when possible;
- d) ***Relaxation component (8.2%)***: includes the elements which increase their relaxation and concern, such as travel companies use the word 'eco-holidays' to attract more people, and to feel relaxed and calm.

At the consequences level, frequent ecotourists demonstrated that their participation in ecotourism holidays details the consequences of: *environmental/social awareness, educational/conservation, energetic/memorable, and relaxation*. The examination of these components outlined that although this sample have the natural experience as a core base and treat the concept as a learning process, they tend to be more concerned about the damage their visit could inflict on both the natural environment and local population. This is also accompanied by the conservation-orientated consequences, or the extent to which frequent ecotourists associate these holidays with a form of protecting the natural environment. In all the cases, the energetic/memorable and relaxation components tend to be quite low confirming that they are not major elements influencing its nature.

8.5.2 *Elements influencing involvement*

The regression analysis throughout the analysis acknowledged distinct differences between medium and high involvement groups of occasional ecotourists (see figure 8.3). The structural differences between these two groups are great, with the high involvement ecotourists proclaiming their importance. The medium involvement group failed to detail any attributes, consequences, and value components influencing its nature. At the attributes level, the meaning of ecotourism for high involvement ecotourists is influenced by the natural attraction and educational component.

Figure 8.3 Frequent ecotourists and involvement



This suggests that it is these two components which gave rise to high involvement, in turn customers involvement is dependent on how strong the relationship is with these two elements of an ecotourism product (see figure 8.3). On a similar vein, at the consequences level the environmental and social, educational and conservational and energetic and memorable components gave rise to the degree of their high involvement. In turn, the medium involvement subjects are not influenced by any particular group of consequences.

This points that although they may be affected by a single consequences, they did not demonstrate any indication of which components affect them. This holds true at the values levels, where medium involvement individuals are not engaged with any value group. High involvement ecotourists are confined within two group of values, that of pleasure/achievement and price, as well as with the maturity and knowledge domain.

Given this result, high involvement frequent ecotourists are not influenced by external/personal orientated values, but the nature of involvement is affected by the internal domain. In addition, the maturity and knowledgeable domain is unique for these ecotourists, as it highlights their concern for the ecology and/or natural beauty. The knowledge domain is formed by enhancing the educational abilities of the frequent ecotourists. In turn, it would seem that whether or not frequent ecotourists are searching to increase their knowledge depends on how concerned they are about the state of the natural environment. If these components determine the nature of high involvement that should appear for frequent ecotourists, then the use of the PII confirmed this with the appearance of more elements in favor of the high involvement group.

On the whole the results indicate firstly that high involvement frequent ecotourists were driven by learning and social experiences in the natural setting, and secondly that medium involvement frequent ecotourists are not knowledgeable in terms of the nature of their holidays. Such a range of attributes, consequences, and values as a result of the involvement levels of the frequent ecotourists, can form the profiles and characteristics of the frequent ecotourists.

8.5.3 The frequent ecotourists profiles and characteristics

There were four main groups of frequent ecotourists with a number of characteristics between them in terms of ecotourism consequences (see table 7.8):

- a) ***social/environmental seekers (15.03%)***: represents a small group of frequent ecotourists who have a general awareness of the place they visited both in terms of local and environmental vulnerability such as awareness of the world's natural environment and respect the local population and indigenous people. *Their socio-demographic characteristics comprised of male ecotourists with high and mid-range incomes;*
- b) ***social/environmentally conscious seekers (22.95%)***: a group of frequent ecotourists who were similar to the first group as far the social/environmental awareness component. However, this group tends to be more concerned as they take actions and are responsible when partaking in their activities, such as to be concerned that your presence there may damage the environment, and maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers. *Their socio-demographic characteristics comprised of male and female frequent ecotourists with high and mid-range incomes;*
- c) ***social/environmentally conscious and educational re-experience seekers (26.91%)***: This group tends to have the main components of the latter two clusters, except for two unique consequences, that of to re-visit the destination and to educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday. On this basis they tend to use education as one of their core intentions, while being social and environmentally conscious. *Their socio-demographic characteristics comprised of females with a mid-range of incomes; and*
- d) ***re-experience social/environmental/educational/conservational seekers (35.09%)***: represents the largest group of ecotourists motivated by a variety of elements all of which have the social and educational flavor as their core, such as respect the local population and indigenous people, to be concerned that your presence there may damage the environment and to educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday. *Their socio-demographic characteristics comprised mainly of females with mid-range incomes.*

In comparing all the segments it can be noted that the frequent ecotourists were divided into two groups with a strong social and environmental awareness/interest (a and b), and into two groups with a strong educational as well as social environmental consciousness (c and d). This suggests that not all the frequent ecotourists examined saw this form of holiday as a learning process. Instead, only certain frequent ecotourists who embodied an educational base in their cluster highlighted that they are more likely not to profligate resources, and that they support the preservation of the areas they visit (c and d).

For the other group of frequent ecotourists who did not consider educational experiences, they tended to underline their environmental/social awareness and consciousness but were lacking in product knowledge and expertise (a and b). Although it could be questioned whether or not these tourists are frequent ecotourists, the argument becomes restrictive in this dimension, hence it is more appropriate to label them as a group of frequent ecotourists who have a passive role. The inclusion of the environmental and social awareness and consciousness in segments a and b, highlights that these people are concerned, but belong to a certain group of frequent ecotourists who are not that keen on other experiences.

In all the cases, nearly 84.97% (segments 2, 3, and 4) within this sample indicated their intentions for ecotourism related elements. The inclusion of segment two in this estimation was derived from their emphasis on maintaining environmental standards for future holiday makers while the remaining clusters showed interests in both education and conservation components (see table 7.8). Segment one, however, permeated a restricted view which can be seen from their attribute components of ecotourism, values, and involvement comparison.

8.5.4 The involvement levels, values and profiles of frequent ecotourists

Thirteen different values were tested with the most agreeable frequent scores illustrating that ecotourists were primarily interested in the maturity and knowledgeable value domain (Become more knowledgeable, and appreciate and respect the world we live in), and to a lesser degree the *externally-orientated values* (being well respected and security). Quite interestingly, the only externally-orientated value to appear at the agreeable level was that of *sense of belonging*.

This affected the motivational characteristics of the four profiles of frequent ecotourists who were also motivated by a number of different groups of attributes, values, and levels of involvement. The social/environmental awareness seekers tend to be medium involved individuals who are externally motivated (see appendix 11d). These individuals did not show any particular interest in components of ecotourism, but they did have a general awareness of the social aspects and natural environment. In turn, this awareness is directed by their external and personal value domain.

The social/environmentally conscious seekers tended to be either in the high or medium involvement category motivated by an internal value domain (see appendix 11d). Similarly with the previous group, they did not address any relationship with the ecotourism elements, but only with the values. Quite interestingly, these individuals were identical with the previous group, except that they placed an emphasis on certain conservation elements. This meant that the appearance of the internal value domain was their motivational force rather than their external domain.

The social/environmental and educational re-experience seekers were either in the medium or high involvement category motivated primarily by the internal domain and then by the external one. These ecotourists are attracted to the social/cultural and price/outdoor components which form their experience. This suggests that they did not only contain a social and environmental awareness, but their educational experiences were resolved around the social/cultural attributes and not from the natural and/or educational attributes. This appeared to be the factor behind the primary internal value domain influence.

The re-experience social/environmental/educational/conservation seekers were a high-involved group of ecotourists motivated by all the groups of value domains (see appendix 11d). Although this group of ecotourists were attracted by all the components of

ecotourism, they addressed their favorite intentions through the educational and natural attraction components. This allowed their values to be driven by the maturity and knowledgeable domains and then by the other domains. It is worth noting at this stage that during the values cluster analysis, the value of 'appreciate and respect of the world' was shared by all segments (see section 7.19 and table 7.15). This common tenet of the segments highlighted its predominant role among frequent ecotourists. Its importance spans not only in this analysis but also in the laddering presentation, allowing this value to enhance the maturity domain of the frequent ecotourists.

In sum, the results showed that frequent ecotourists were primarily motivated by the *internal value domain* which reflected by a mixture of interests, all of which had anthropocentric, ecocentric and education-centric stances (segments 2 and 3) [see table 7.17]. In addition, these individuals were also motivated by the *maturity/knowledgeable domain* which also belongs in the internal value category (segment 4), allowing their product knowledge and expertise to come to light. On the other hand, people with *a sole anthropocentric stance (segment 1)* were motivated by the *external and personal domains*, except the non-agreeable values of security and being well respected (see table 7.17).

8.6 SUMMARY

This chapter presented a comparative analysis between the occasional and frequent ecotourists. Similarities existed in terms of the meaning of ecotourism and the elements that influence involvement levels. Differences were elicited in terms of ecotourists' profiles and values domains - an indication of their complex nature. In all cases, high-involved ecotourists were the pioneer group supported by high levels of expertise. What became clear was that both occasional and frequent ecotourists considered the natural-based, educational and sustainability elements of ecotourism as the most important. Their overall product knowledge structure tended to fluctuate according to their presence in the natural areas, in that frequent ecotourists had a richer knowledge about ecotourism than their occasional counterparts.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION

9.0 Conclusion

9.1 INTRODUCTION

In the introduction to this thesis, Jafari's (1990) conceptualisation of the development of the body of knowledge of tourism into four distinct platforms was identified. During the last decade the emergence of ecotourism has mirrored the final two platforms – those of the adaptancy and the knowledge-based platforms. By researching into consumer involvement and ecotourism, this thesis has enhanced the knowledge base of tourism, and in particular provided a deeper understanding of the demand for new forms of tourism products – a sparsely researched area in the past. In particular, this research demonstrates the distinctive nature of consumer demand for ecotourism and clearly distinguishes ecotourism as an activity from earlier forms of outdoor recreation activity.

This refutes claims by Boyd and Butler (1993), Wall (1994), and Nelson (1994), that ecotourism is simply a new name for an old activity. The results of this research demonstrate that, in contrast to earlier forms of outdoor recreation, ecotourists are less concerned with the outdoor elements and more concerned with the education and conservation elements of their experience. In other words, ecotourism activities tend to support the cause of nature conservation, rather than more tourism-centred needs. This finding contrasts with other commentators who have suggested that ecotourism relies heavily on the 'nature-centric' syndrome and are not concerned with the well-being of nature (Figgis, 1994). In addition, this study supports the view that ecotourists are highly-involved consumers, who see ecotourism as a means of practicing their views on sustainability. This is a finding with significance for ecotourism suppliers, suggesting that they should enhance and communicate sustainable practices.

Previous studies of ecotourists have indicated that they are not 'primary purpose' visitors to natural areas. This study overcame this potential limitation by conceptualising ecotourists into two groups:

- Occasional ecotourists; and
- Frequent ecotourists.

This grouping allows the profiles, involvement levels and distinctive behavior of ecotourists to emerge and leads to the core research aim of the thesis to:

‘Explore the different types and/or profiles of ecotourists in the UK by using the concept of consumer involvement’

In addition the thesis identified a number of research objectives to:

- Identify occasional and frequent types of ecotourists;
- Illustrate the profiles of occasional ecotourists based on their knowledge of ecotourism and values;
- Illustrate the involvement levels of occasional ecotourists;
- Identify the knowledge structure of frequent ecotourists;
- Assess the knowledge structure of the frequent ecotourists in a larger sample;
- Illustrate the profiles of frequent ecotourists based on their knowledge of ecotourism (attributes, consequences) and values;
- Illustrate the involvement levels of frequent ecotourists;
- Identify the various influences upon the nature of involvement; and
- Compare the effectiveness of the cognitive and unidimensional view of involvement.

This chapter assesses the achievement of these objectives in the light of the results of the thesis and provides a discussion on the contribution and future direction of this research.

9.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESULTS

This thesis has utilised a number of methodological approaches to achieve the overall aim of eliciting profiles and consumer involvement levels of ecotourists in the UK. This section of the chapter examines the results and significance of the findings in relation to the research objectives.

Three objectives focused upon the classification into of ecotourists into occasional and frequent and the identification the level of involvement of both groups.

Occasional ecotourists were a young group of females with low incomes, whereas the frequent ecotourists were middle-aged females with mid-range incomes. Although their educational background was similar in terms of degree and postgraduate qualifications, occasional ecotourists had a better educational profile as opposed to frequent ecotourists. Both occasional and frequent ecotourists were not members of environmental groups or organisations, but their activities within their ecotourism holidays revolved around natural attractions and educational interests. The majority of both occasional and frequent ecotourists belong in the high involvement category, followed by individuals in the medium and low categories. The major finding for both samples was that only a minor proportion of ecotourists belonged in the low involvement category, regardless of their presence in a natural area. These results signified that none of the examined types of ecotourists had limited product knowledge about ecotourism holidays. In addition, their socio-demographics pointed to the existence of two distinct groups. Such results are significant as they demonstrate that not only ecotourists have dissimilar characteristics, but also most importantly their characteristics are influenced by certain variables, in this case the amount of presence in an natural area. This finding has obvious significance in terms of both the marketing of ecotourism and the management of such visitors in natural areas.

A second set of objectives relates to the illustration of ecotourists' profiles based on their knowledge of ecotourism.

Looking at their treatment of ecotourism, both groups showed insights that are both theoretically meaningful and practically relevant. Occasional ecotourists highly regarded the natural attractions component of the concept whereas frequent ecotourists rated this component less. In turn, the frequent group showed their concept of ecotourism to contain a much higher social and cultural element with a detailed emphasis on the educational and sustainability elements. In other words, comparing the two groups:

- Both occasional and frequent ecotourists share the same views in terms of the natural and educational components of the concept;

- Both groups showed less emphasis on the relaxation and outdoor components, confirming that they are not major elements influencing the nature of ecotourism; whereas
- The major difference between the two groups is that frequent ecotourists were more aware of their contribution in terms of the conservation and educational aspects of their holiday, indicating that their understanding of sustainability is at a much higher level in their product knowledge structure.

In other words, from a theoretical point of view, ecotourism was seen as a learning process that is culturally, educationally, and conservationally directed.

A third group of objectives related to identifying the various influences upon the nature of involvement.

High involvement is dependent on how personally relevant natural attractions; education and conservation elements of ecotourism are to these individuals. This has to be supported by values that reflect the internal domain of these individuals. In general terms, frequent ecotourists detailed a higher degree of personal relevance towards this form of holiday as opposed to their occasional counterparts. A significant difference between them is that occasional high involvement is influenced by pre-established educational patterns whereas frequent high involvement is affected by actual product knowledge elements.

The medium involvement nature of both groups does not accommodate any of the ecotourism components, suggesting that ecotourists who are getting involved with more than one component of the concept are more likely to belong to the high involvement group rather than the medium involvement group. There are however certain reservations in terms of the medium involvement frequent ecotourists. Although the medium involvement nature of these ecotourists was not influenced by any ecotourism related component, they were more likely to participate in ecotourism related activities. This assumption is further reinforced by their product knowledge structures ascertained during the laddering interviews. This latter consideration regarding the 'exact nature' of the medium involved ecotourists appears to be a matter of concern and should become an agenda of future research.

A fourth set of objectives related to the identification of the values of occasional and frequent ecotourists.

Occasional ecotourists tended to be motivated mainly by the external /personal orientated values, except for the values of security and being well respected, whereas the frequent ecotourists were driven by the internal value domain. In both cases, ecotourists tended to have a mixture of anthropocentric, eco-centric and educational centric stances. The frequent ecotourists however, showed their expertise in ecotourism by addressing another value domain to represent their interests, that of the maturity/knowledgeable internal domain. Implicitly, in all their value segments, frequent ecotourists gave great emphasis to the value of 'appreciate and respect the world we live in', and then supported it with the knowledgeable, hedonic, achievement, and interpersonal (social) values, reflecting their multi-based knowledge of ecotourism. The remaining occasional ecotourists who had a sole eco-centric stance primarily attested an internal value domain. In contrast, frequent ecotourists with a sole anthropocentric stance were motivated by the external and personal domains, except the non-agreeable values of security and being well respected.

One objective focused on the identification of the knowledge structure of frequent ecotourists.

The laddering analysis indicated unique profiles in terms of attributes, consequences and values, signifying the complicated nature of their ecotourism knowledge. Certain similarities and differences were observed in terms of the content and structural elements of such product knowledge, signifying that frequent ecotourists tend to have a rich understanding of their holidays. Indeed, the results pointed to the reasons of participating in such holidays as well as to the variations of their knowledge structure (consequence and values), according to the attributes of ecotourism which they have selected.

One objective focused upon the assessment of the knowledge structure of frequent ecotourists in a larger sample.

Initially, the assessment of similar variables (attributes) in the larger sample indicated that the first priority of frequent ecotourists was that of the social/cultural component. This difference provides one of the main distinctions between these two subjects, which in turn influences their overall view towards ecotourism. At the consequences level, similarities existed in terms of their educational and conservation orientated views suggesting that

frequent ecotourists emphasize these components at a much higher level of their product knowledge structures.

A comparison between the values indicates that the two samples of frequent ecotourists establishes that the leading value domains in both cases are those of maturity/knowledgeable and internal values. In turn, this domain is linked with most of the eco-centric and educational centric stances of the frequent ecotourists. Overall, the results signified that the product knowledge of frequent ecotourists shares certain similarities and differences between the qualitative and quantitative samples. This in turn indicates that no generalisation can be made concerning the profiles of frequent ecotourists- a scenario which indicates the complexities surrounding ecotourists' characteristics.

The final set of objective is to compare the effectiveness of the cognitive and unidimensional view of involvement.

The results indicated that the two distinct measures of involvement were compatible. The results showed that people with intermediate ecotourism knowledge (means-end chain) identified lower scores on the Personal Involvement Inventory scale, hence acknowledging the compatibility of these two involvement measures. The findings show that the consequences-segments associated with greater levels of involvement were related with most of the values, both in terms of the unidimensional and means-end chain perspectives. This signifies that both measures of involvement can provide a useful insight into the behavior of any examined consumer group and distinct characteristics can emerge from two compatible involvement perspectives.

9.3 CONTRIBUTION OF THE THESIS

The major contribution of this study has been the application of the concept of consumer involvement to allow a focus on the behavior of ecotourists. To the author's knowledge this is the first attempt to both import consumer involvement theory into ecotourism, and to draw out the implications of this approach for their behavioral patterns. The concept of consumer involvement is particularly suited to an activity such as ecotourism as it examines how product knowledge varies in terms of attributes, consequences and values as well as the nature of consumer involvement levels (low, medium and high). Against this background, the thesis makes a number of important contributions to knowledge in the field.

Firstly, the thesis examined ecotourism from the *standpoint of sustainability and drew out a number of key issues*. Initially, sustainability should be examined as a concept, which includes the issues of development, needs and future generations. These issues have to be examined as influences upon the effectiveness of sustainability rather than as a sole representative of them. Regularly, sustainability is treated as a theme that can guarantee our long term survival, indeed this could still be the case if the examination of sustainability focused on a assessment of all its sub-components. This applies also to sustainable practices in tourism, where a research agenda has to be devised to examine sustainability from a development and product perspective. This thesis has contributed to the opening of such agenda as well as to the examination of certain issues. Most importantly, the thesis showed that the treatment of sustainability in tourism and ecotourism has to focus on the abolition of the tourism-centric syndrome, as well as on methodologies used to measure different types of sustainability.

Secondly, a number of *methodological contributions can be identified*. The study resisted initial temptations to assess the whole ecotourism market without segmenting ecotourists into occasional and frequent types. Instead it approached the subjects in a more detailed fashion by allowing the consumers to rank themselves into the occasional and frequent categories. This sampling technique was considered in order to overcome the limitations surrounding the criteria of selecting ecotourists, specifically criteria regarding the total 'holiday time' spent in natural areas. Through the literature it became evident that ecotourists were involved in a variety of forms of tourism experiences (i.e. rural, urban,

cultural, and mass), and they considered participation in ecotourism activities. In approaching the ecotourism market from the perspective of the type of presence in a natural setting, two distinct profiles emerged and ecotourists' behavioral patterns surfaced.

Thirdly, the thesis has contributed to *an understanding of the behavior of ecotourists* through their classification into different groups, on the basis of their profiles, involvement levels and knowledge structure. These classifications revealed two distinct classes of ecotourists, minimizing the vagueness of the concept in terms of its behavioral aspects. For instance, occasional ecotourists treated the sustainability and educational elements at the lower level of their knowledge structure whereas frequent ecotourists acknowledge these elements at a consequences level, hence in a much higher and detailed manner. In addition, the study clarified the elements that influence the nature of involvement across the samples, and provided explanations for how this affected the choice of the ecotourism components. Of key importance is the fact that none of the ecotourists examined in this study belonged in the low involvement category.

On the basis of these insights a *compatibility between two types of involvement* in the frequent ecotourists' sample was identified, that of the unidimensional (PII) and cognitive types (means-end chain and laddering). With the primary emphasis to observe the nature of frequent ecotourists, the laddering interviews revealed all the variations of the product knowledge of these consumers. In particular, both high and medium frequent ecotourists' samples were supported by their cognitive maps indicating that ecotourists' behavioral patterns could play a predominant role in consumer behavior research. The study provided a detailed picture of how differently and intensively ecotourism knowledge was concentrated across the cognitive categories of ecotourists.

Regarding knowledge complexities, the study not only confirmed the importance of the cognitively based approach to involvement, but also detailed what hierarchically organized knowledge looked like and how it varies and is constructed across medium and high involved frequent ecotourists. Regarding knowledge specificity and knowledge abstractiveness, it was found that ecotourism knowledge is strengthened through the connection between consequences and values. This suggests that frequent ecotourists, in general tend to have concrete knowledge structures which allows these elements to be considered during their decision-making procedures.

Across the two samples, the relationship between values and involvement is evident as the nature of high involvement is influenced by internal orientated values whereas medium involvement does not have any relationships with values. This inevitably affects the medium involvement ecotourists who provide an ideal group for future research in order to expand their product knowledge structures and their profile characteristics.

Finally, it has become clear that ecotourists are a more complex and interesting area of research with distinct patterns of characteristics and knowledge structures which vary in accordance to either their educational background or product involvement. With reference to calls in the literature highlighting a lack of understanding of the behavior of ecotourists, this study supports a re-orientation under a different perspective. In the course of such a re-orientation, the traditional idiom of ecotourists as environmentalists does not have to be abandoned but its natural, educational and conservation strengths can be further extended by linking them to theories from the concept of involvement and value research. These findings have a series of implications which are detailed in the next section of this chapter.

9.4 IMPLICATIONS

The implications of this thesis fall clearly into three areas:

- *The behavior of ecotourists;*
- *The marketing of ecotourism; and*
- *Policy issues.*

The insights gained in understanding *ecotourists' behavior* imply that travel companies should develop new marketing strategies for ecotourists. These strategies should be based on a program of research that is market led, rather than marketing led, which has been the case in the past. This implies that research should focus on attitudes and behavior of ecotourists to underpin marketing decisions. The research findings provide the foundation for this approach by demonstrating that ecotourists have a strong motivation to experience the natural and educational elements of an ecotourism vacation. Ecotourists have a rich product knowledge and therefore companies should take this into account when developing and promoting ecotourism products. For example, It was clear

from the analysis that the use of the word 'eco' by travel companies was associated with misleading practices. This situation either occurred due to the lack of knowledge about the ecotourists or due to their 'profit' orientated approach.

In terms of the implications of the thesis for the *marketing of ecotourism products*, a two-tier strategy is implied, based on the market-led approach. Initially, companies should develop a 'customer experience map' based on the ecotourism experience process ranging from the initial decision-making steps up to the post-holiday evaluation. In particular, the laddering results should be beneficial in designing these maps as the variations of product knowledge characteristics of frequent ecotourists were reflections of their experience and information needs. Next, communication strategies should be addressing the two different profiles of ecotourists, whereby the messages put forward should be distinct according to their characteristics. The message structure and message substance for frequent ecotourists should stress elements of the conservation and educational characteristics, whereas for occasional ecotourists the messages should reflect the attractiveness of the natural environment. The advertising campaigns of the companies can be based on either the connections between attributes, consequences and values or they can go straight to the emotional level (values). In addition, information gained on personal and psychological factors should assist in the development of segmentation strategies. The personal characteristics of occasional and frequent ecotourists do vary, which not only creates new target markets based on the gender and social variations but also reflects the needs and wants of these individuals. Hence, the market segmentation, targeting, and positioning of ecotourism products should revolve around a two-tier strategy. In addition, the study's results should also assist in the design and management of ecotourism products. The product mix developed should be based on the 'meaning attached to ecotourism' by the examined samples. For example occasional and frequent ecotourists placed an emphasis on the social/cultural component which could become their 'core product'. In these instances, the laddering results also developed two different product types that of the core and augmented product levels, highlighting information available for new product development.

In terms of *policy*, the thesis has implications for the development of destination management. In particular, the findings relating to the importance of the nature and education elements of the ecotourists' experience, suggests that this group of tourists

would welcome enhanced educational interpretive and management programs at the destination. This policy would develop conservation and sustainability awareness programs, and clearly shows that ecotourists would be sympathetic to management approaches such as codes of conduct etc. This can be done by using current guidelines available to ecotourists and building in much deeper and more beneficial strategies that can be related to the desires of the ecotourists. In other words, by an in-depth understanding of the behavioral characteristics of ecotourists, policy and management can be closely linked to their expectations. For example, two tier policy and strategies can be devised that reflect the expectations of frequent and occasional ecotourists. In general, these type of strategies should be based on the principles of sustainability and educational demands which should strengthen the knowledge of both groups of ecotourists surrounding these elements, and should act to influence the behavior of other groups at the destination.

9.5 ISSUES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Despite the extensive analysis and findings of this thesis, a range of potential research areas have been highlighted both in terms of ecotourism and sustainability:

- Certain comparisons with mass tourists could provide food for thought for tourist behavioral literature. Knowing the basic aspects of mass tourists behavior a comparison with ecotourists, especially the occasional type could underline a number of insights especially if these two groups are similar as a result of the relaxation emphasis;
- Research on the other types of alternative tourism is needed in order to identify if there are any similarities between ecotourists and other types of tourists who utilize the natural environment. The current study revealed a fine line between ecotourism and other forms of alternative tourism, and future research could bridge the gap in current ecotourism literature;
- Findings made on certain socio-demographics such as the impact of education on the involvement levels of occasional ecotourists needs to be explored further. Such a

distinction is needed to precisely identify which educational factors influence the nature of occasional types;

- Certain assessments of occasional ecotourists could be of interest based on exploring the factors that could turn occasional types to frequent types. This type of research could take into account the importance of the communication and promotional strategies;
- Anthropological researchers may want to follow up issues like ecotourists social/cultural primary emphasis revealed by both occasional and frequent types. This could underline the reasons behind the association between ecotourism and local culture in a manner which could become a primary motivational domain;
- Further research is necessary on the medium involvement ecotourists expanding into the areas of how and why none of the components of ecotourism influenced its nature. This is of particular importance as it is the medium involvement group who showed a passive role towards ecotourism. This is because they do not have the concrete knowledge structure that the high involvement group has. Research in this field could well identify medium involved ecotourists based on self-ranking tasks and PII and carry out research on their decision making agenda;
- The impact of ecotourists communication strategies and the role of the media could well be a research topic identifying the factors which influence the decision making structure of ecotourism holidays;
- The views of occasional and frequent ecotourists towards their education e.g. the role of interpretation and sustainability interests (e.g. resources usage, types of conservation etc.) needs to be explored further. The ranking of the general principles and methods of their education and conservation attempts is likely to be of importance not only in consumer behavior literature but also for destination planning purposes; and
- Future research could utilize the findings of this study and investigate similar profiles in order to underline any common grounds between the current findings and the findings of future studies. This could foster the changing patterns between the two studies as well as the evolution of similarities and differences.

9.6 SUMMARY

This chapter assessed the objectives of the thesis, the contributions of the thesis, the implications of the thesis, and the issues for future research. Seven sets of objectives were assessed, all of which indicated that the results fulfilled these objectives. The findings also allowed the thesis to make an important contribution into four areas: sustainability, methodology or research methods, behavior of ecotourists, and involvement research. Inevitably, the thesis highlighted a number of implications in different theoretical areas, notably behavior of ecotourists, marketing of ecotourism, and policy issues. This revealed areas for future research covering both tourism and non-tourism grounds.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX ONE

MEANS-END CHAIN STRUCTURE: CUES AND GOALS

MEANS-END CHAIN: THE USAGE OF CUES

Through marketing mix strategies, cues are considered pivotal determinants of causing consumers perception to impute certain qualities to products. Cues are certain aspects of the purchasing environment which have the potential to be utilised as the basis for making an inference (Olson, 1978). Inference, on the other hand, is the knowledge or beliefs that people possess in order to make a judgment or certain conclusion based on evidence acquired (Olson, 1978). To some extent, cues are elements of products which aim to trigger desired associations in consumers' minds (Gutman and Haley, 1995). Based on this evidence a great focus on consumer oriented research was centered on information effects on consumers' product judgments of price cues (Monroe, 1973), as well as on accomplishments of certain tasks (Wright, 1975; Scott and Wright, 1976). Many of these studies underline that the cue utilisation process involves two main processes (Olson, 1978:707):

- the acquisition of cues; and
- the integration of information obtained from cues to form the desired response.

This cue utilisation process reveals that most consumers in circumstances 'in which a product or service is encountered have the potential to affect consumer's inferences' (Gutman and Haley, 1995:7). In turn, these affect the means-end chain, which could be developed encompassing the entire range of potential cues. In these instances, three main types of cues could be regarded from the means-end chain methodology (Gutman and Haley, 1995):

- a) *Potential cues or temporal duration of cues:* a type of cue which is related to the physical attributes of the product such as texture or color. These attributes are utilised by creating marketing mix strategies based on their temporal duration. For instance, cues under this type are the bubbles in a soft drink or in alcoholic spirits or the certain noise of opening a jar of food. However, if the cue has a longer duration, the consumer is associates it with part of his/her knowledge structure.
- b) *Locus: Intrinsic and Extrinsic cues.* There is a two-tier evaluation system of products based either on actual product characteristics or on certain factors

influencing consumer's evaluation (Gutman and Haley, 1995). In particular, intrinsic cues, include the physical characteristics of the consumption of a product, such as alcoholic spirits, the flavor color and textures. These elements change only when the nature of the product changes. Extrinsic cues, on the other hand, are not actual product characteristics, but are elements of the product environment, such as price, packaging, brand-name, etc.

- c) *Cue intensity*: Refers to the awareness of the consumers to the existence of cues. This may include, the degree of attention the consumer is paying to his or her environment or where that attention is directed by others.

However, despite this cue classification there is a considerable debate over the applicability of cues in consumer behaviour. The focus is centered on the type of cues that consumers make an inference on (Gutman and Haley, 1995; Olson, 1978). In addition to this limitation, cues and the inferences acquired from them, ascertained from one situation such as the opinion of other's towards a product, may not be recalled when the respondent is encouraged to express his/her experience of consumption during the interview process. This also affects, which elements of the product are cited as cues. Consider, for example, the product's packaging situation, where a squeezable ketchup container is claimed to be an intrinsic cue, and an extrinsic cue would be the cardboard container of a computer (Zeithaml, 1988). That example, has partially identified the whole product packaging as an intrinsic cue, but the information which appeared on the packaging is extrinsic in nature. In this debate, a key issue is the criteria by which the inference is formed within the consumer's product knowledge structure, which inevitably created certain changes within the laddering interview process. Very briefly, three main reforms were considered within the laddering tasks (Gutman and Haley, 1995:11):

- a) Continuation of the interview process until inferences are formed and deeper associations of cues are revealed;
- b) Investigation of the consumer's contact with products in a variety of environments, such as consumption, word-of-mouth communications, advertising, and purchase; and

- c) The usage of product pictures or product displays during the interview process, in order to cope with the consumers lack of awareness of relevant cues.

MEANS-END CHAIN: THE USAGE OF GOALS

Action categorisation scheme

The action scheme offers two main types of acts, namely the behavioral and the cognitive (Gutman, 1995). The former type facilitates the individual's behaviour expressed both in a self oriented manner such as 'what I do', and in a social environmental manner such as 'what others do for me'. The latter type, relies in part on the individuals emotions expressed in terms of a self-centered approach such as 'how I want to think about my self', and social-centered approach of 'how I want others think of me'.

Given these categories, the basic principle of the scheme is that the initiation of the action comprises not only of the individual's own resolution to reach his/her goals, but also the acts of others (Gutman, 1995).

Goal categorisation scheme

The goal classification scheme is harvested from evidence that goals are the aims of actions which can exist at any level of desired aspects of products (Gutman, 1995). The scheme arises as a result of the hierarchical abstraction concept, but quite differently embedded two main categories of goals: product goals and personal outcome goals (Gutman, 1995).

Product goals refer to desired physical or abstract attributes expressed in the form of goals which people have about a product. On the other hand, personal outcome goals are the direct or indirect wants people have about product consumption. Thereafter, this entails three main sub-elements of goals: Sensory experience goals; Functional goals; and Social psychological goals (see table 1).

Table 1 Goal categorisation scheme

<i>Product goals</i>	<i>Outcome goals</i>
<p><i>Physical concrete:</i> associated with product attributes</p> <p><i>Abstract or perceived brand benefits:</i> goals stem from an evaluation of the attribute</p>	<p><i>Sensory experience goals (lower level):</i> goals expressed as a pleasure or enjoyment derived from an action (i.e. taking a photo)</p> <p><i>Functional goals (mid range):</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Physical psychological: satisfying the inner state of the individual's psychological function (i.e. thirst, warmth) b. Physical appearance: goals in relation to the external aspects of personal appearance c. Impersonal functional: direct product benefits of an impersonal nature (i.e. saving money) d. Performance: outcomes relating to change inability's to perform actions. <p><i>Social-psychological goals (higher level):</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Personal security: feeling secure, safety b. Social: goals in relation to social environment (i.e. friendship or acceptance and feedback from others) c. Ego: success, self-confidence d. Self actualisation: self-fulfillment

This goal classification scheme is also linked to the creation of different goal hierarchies, organised to include the different scenarios of goal usage. Much of this process relies on the integration of goals and actions expressed in the form of five distinct hierarchies (Gutman, 1995):

1. Product use/consumption in a situation: Product goals center around the sensory enjoyment of a situation [product use/consumption → product goals];
2. The situational achievement: The consumption of a product leads to a goal achieved in a particular situation [product use/consumption → product goals → situational goals];
3. Product use/ consumption contributes to the achievement of personal goals [product use/ consumption → product goals → situational goals → personal goals];

4. Product use/ consumption goals contribute to the satisfaction of personal goals, without any situational influence [product use/consumption → product goals → personal goals]; and
5. Few product goals contribute to situational goals satisfaction in the immediate situation [product use/ consumption → product goals → product goals → situational goals → personal goals]

These different types of goal hierarchies which stem from the goal classifications, could well be linked to the means-end chain (Gutman, 1995). Linked to this however, is the criticism, that neither of these provide an indication of any product knowledge and/or any evidence of consumer's involvement. This is further enhanced from an additional statement that the final elements of the chain may not be linked to the final goals in any meaningful way (Gutman, 1995: 8). The reasoning behind this last argument is derived from four main factors influencing the initiation of a planned action sequence. These are (Gutman, 1995):

- The situation: refers to the basic factors where the consumer considers the product in a particular situation, the demands of the situation, the presence of others as well as the persons situational involvement;
- One act versus many acts: points out the circumstances when a single act accomplishes more than one goal;
- Act difficulty: refers to the scenario where some consumer acts are more difficult to perform than others; and
- Act of others: describes the process of other's acts influencing the accomplishment of certain goals, such as social goals require feedback from others and/or ego goals are dependent on being admired by others.

APPENDIX TWO

PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE AND LETTER

November 1996

Dear Sir/ Madam,

I would like to introduce myself as a Ph.D student at Bournemouth University undertaking studies in the field of tourism.

The main research interest of my work concerns the area of ecotourism. Throughout the 1990s this form of travel to natural areas has become an important ingredient for the successful future of tourism. The overall responsibility of protecting the environment has placed ecotourism at the forefront of any tourism development action.

I am writing to you to ask for your assistance in order to determine your views and opinions towards ecotourism. For this purpose I have enclosed a questionnaire which is seeking to determine just what you think about this form of travel. This questionnaire should take up approximately ten minutes of your time, also please find enclosed a self addressed envelope for your convenience.

Your support will be valuable not only as a form of assistance to the implementation of my studies but more importantly as an element which can increase our knowledge of ecotourism. Your replies will of course be kept *completely confidential* and no individual responses will be identified in the final thesis.

May I take this opportunity to thank you for your help in this matter as well as for your contribution to my research and I look forward to your correspondence.

Yours Faithfully

Dimitrios Diamantis

Private and Confidential Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of three sections, which are seeking to determine your views and opinions about ecotourism.

Section A

✎ This section explores your personal travel philosophies

1) Please indicate the degree of the importance of the following statements when you consider an 'overseas trip', by using the scale below:

Not at all important	Little importance	Moderately important	Very important	Extremely important
1	2	3	4	5

Please answer
here

- 1) Getting value for my holiday is very important to me
- 2) I like to be flexible on my holiday
- 3) I usually travel on all-inclusive package holidays
- 4) I do consider the environmental sensitivity of the travel agent
- 5) I take short holidays abroad whenever I have the opportunity
- 6) When travelling overseas I usually take holidays of two weeks or less
- 7) I like to have my arrangements made before I leave to go abroad
- 8) I enjoy undertaking outdoor activities
- 9) Inexpensive air tickets to the destination country are important to me
- 10) I choose the destination because it is cheap to be there on holiday
- 11) I usually prefer to go to a different place on each new holiday trip
- 12) I tend to consider going to the protected areas or national parks of the destination
- 13) I prefer to travel within the destination with only one person

2) Which of the following 'continents' do you usually visit for your holiday

(select only one)

- i) Europe
- ii) Asia
- iii) Africa
- iiii) Australia/ New Zealand/ Pacific
- iv) Americas

3) Please indicate the degree of importance of each of the following listed factors when you consider an '*ecotourism holiday*' by using the scale below:

Not at all important	Little importance	Moderately important	Very important	Extremely important
1	2	3	4	5

	<i>Please answer here</i>
a) Going places I have not visited before	_____
b) Meeting new and different people	_____
c) Opportunities to increase one's knowledge	_____
d) Interesting rural countryside	_____
e) Destinations that provide value for my holiday money	_____
f) To experience the tranquillity	_____
g) To visit cultural attractions	_____
h) Experiencing new and different lifestyles	_____
i) To explore the area and be educated	_____
j) To become more energetic	_____
k) To enjoy the lakes and streams	_____
l) The best deal I could get	_____
m) To be with others who enjoy the same	_____
n) To go to local festivals and events	_____
o) Nice weather	_____
p) Outdoor recreation activities	_____
q) To visit the national parks	_____
r) To rest and relax physically	_____
s) To develop my skills and abilities	_____
t) To do something with my family	_____
u) To be in an undisturbed natural area	_____
v) To shop in the local stores	_____
w) To enjoy the tour guides in the natural areas	_____
x) To stay at the ecolodge	_____

Section B

✍ The purpose of this section is to measure your personal interest in ecotourism. In order to do this, we need you to judge the ecotourism holiday against a series of descriptive words according to how YOU perceive the concept of ecotourism.

4) Please circle the number of your choice:

To me ecotourism holidays are:

- | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| a. Unimportant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Important |
| b. Boring | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Interesting |
| c. Irrelevant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Relevant |
| d. Unexciting | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Exciting |
| e. Means Nothing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Means a lot to me |
| f. Unappealing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Appealing |
| g. Mundane | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Fascinating |
| h. Worthless | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Valuable |
| i. Uninvolving | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Involving |
| j. Not needed | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Needed |

5) Please circle the degree of the importance (1 to 9) of each of the following 'values', concerning your choice for ecotourism holidays.

When I choose an ecotourism holiday I get:

	Extremely unimportant (1)			Neutral (5)			Extremely important (9)		
1. Self-respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. Self-fulfilment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. Sense of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Being well respected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. Fun and enjoyment in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Sense of belonging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. Warm relationship with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. Security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

6) Which of the following 'activities' do you undertake when you are on ecotourism holiday:
(tick more than one)

1) Educational guided tours	_____	9) Bird watching	_____
2) Diving	_____	10) Turtle watching	_____
3) Whale watching	_____	11) Nature photography	_____
4) Marine fishing	_____	12) Camping	_____
5) White-water rafting	_____	13) Backpacking	_____
6) Observing animals	_____	14) Observing flowers	_____
7) Adventure tours	_____	15) Other	_____
8) Heli-sking	_____		(please specify)

Section C

✍ The purpose of this section is to ask for some details on yourself which will assist us to clarify your answers

7) Your gender:

Male 1
Female 2

8) Your Marital Status:

Single 1
Married/partners 2
Widowed
Divorced/separated 3

10) Your educational status:

Secondary education 1
HND/ Diploma 2

Please Specify: _____

First degree 3

Please Specify: _____

Post graduate degree 4

Please Specify: _____

Other 5

Please Specify: _____

**9) How many people normally travel with you
-excluding your self- ?:**

One ☐
Two ☐
Three ☐
Four ☐
Other ☐

Please Specify: _____

11) Your Age (years):

17-24 1
25-34 2
35-44 3
45-54 4
55-64 5
65+ 6

12) Describe the type of accommodation you used when you enjoyed the nature, outdoor activity or cultural experiences.

- Hotel/ Motel ☐
- Lodge/inn ☐
- Cabin ☐
- Tent ☐
- Cruise ship ☐
- Ranch ☐
- Bed & breakfast ☐
- Other ☐

Please Specify: _____

13) Which of the following describes the level of luxury you prefer for this accommodation?

- Luxurious ☐
- Middle range ☐
- Basic/budget ☐

14) Are you member of an environmental group or society?

- Yes ☐
- No ☐

15) Do you have any comments and/or suggestions regarding the concept of ecotourism?

Thank you very much for your cooperation

APPENDIX THREE

PILOT CLUSTER ANALYSIS RESULTS

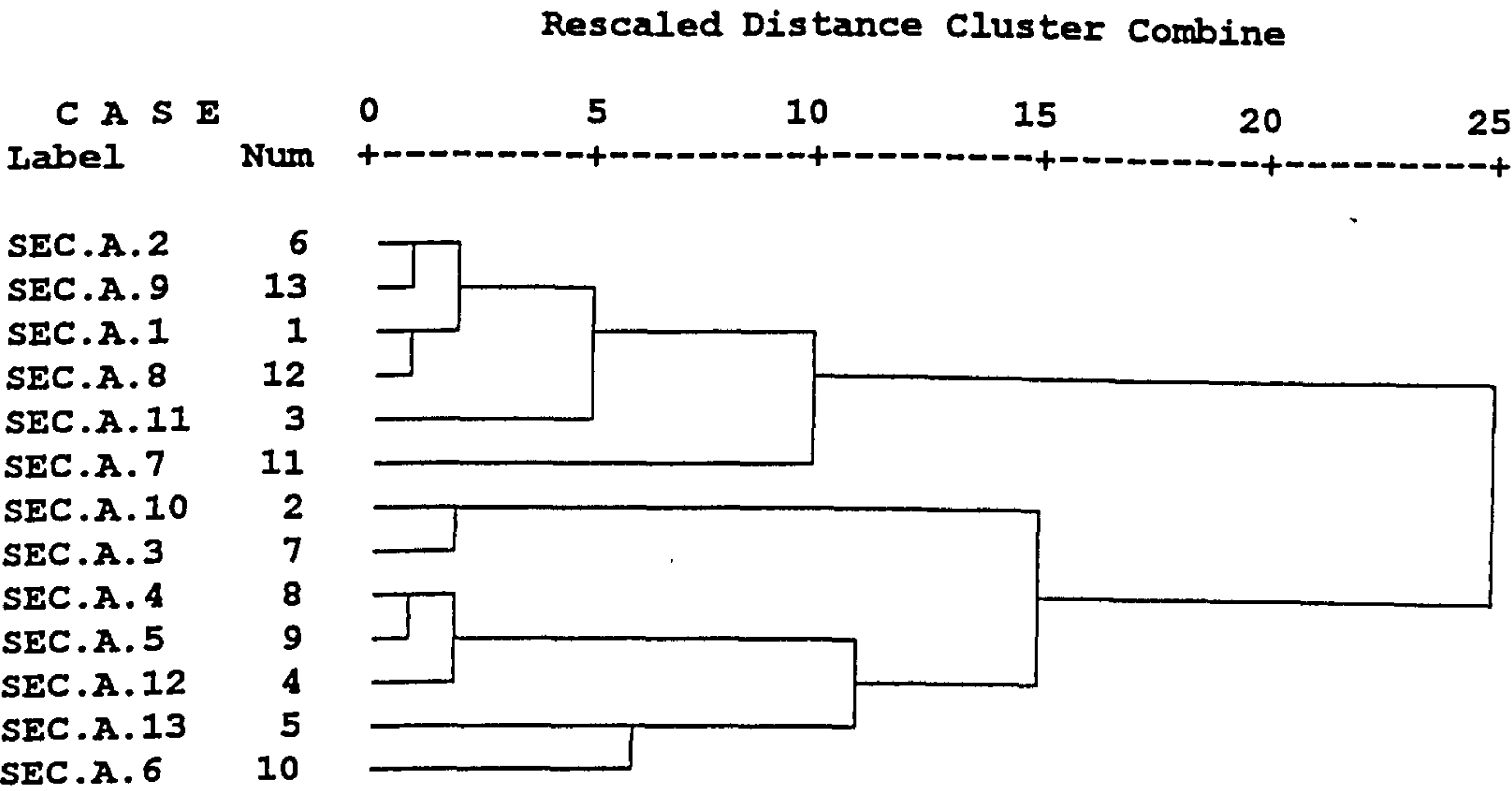
OVERSEAS TRAVEL MOTIVES

Agglomeration Schedule using Ward Method

Stage	Clusters Cluster 1	Combined Cluster 2	Coefficient	Stage Cluster Cluster 1	1st Appears Cluster 2	Next Stage
1	6	13	26,500000	0	0	5
2	8	9	53,500000	0	0	4
3	1	12	81,000000	0	0	5
4	4	8	112,666664	0	2	10
5	1	6	146,166656	3	1	7
6	2	7	180,666656	0	0	11
7	1	3	227,566650	5	0	9
8	5	10	281,066650	0	0	10
9	1	11	353,500000	7	0	12
10	4	5	433,333313	4	8	11
11	2	4	534,261902	6	10	12
12	1	2	685,538452	9	11	0

OVERSEAS TRAVEL MOTIVES

Dendrogram using Ward Method



* * * * *

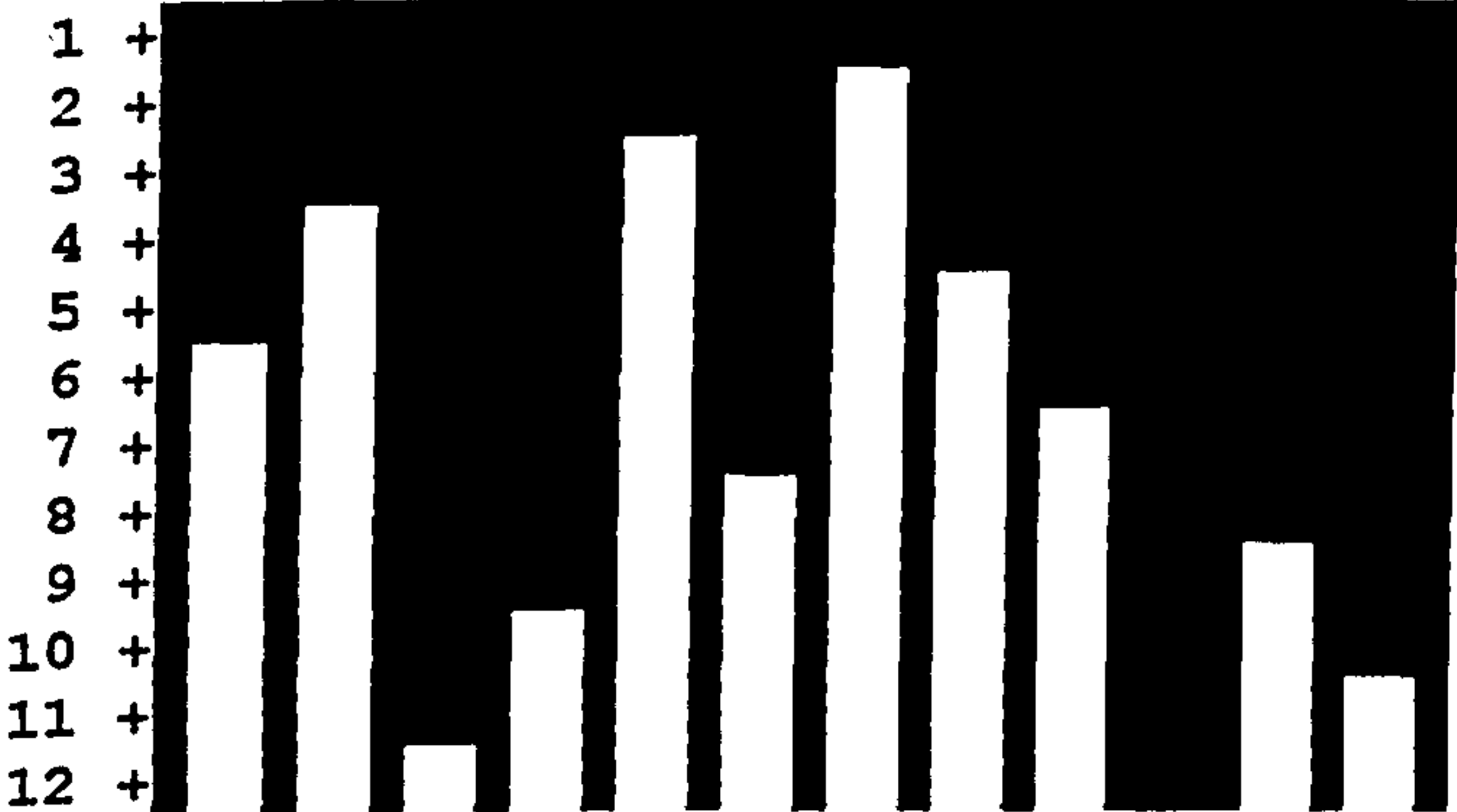
OVERSEAS TRAVEL MOTIVES

Vertical Icicle Plot using Ward Method

(Down) Number of Clusters (Across) Case Label and number

S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
.
A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
.
6	1	5	4	1	3	1	7	1	9	2	8	1
	3			2		0		1				

1 1 1
0 5 9 8 4 7 2 1 3 3 6 2 1



ECOTOURISM ELEMENTS

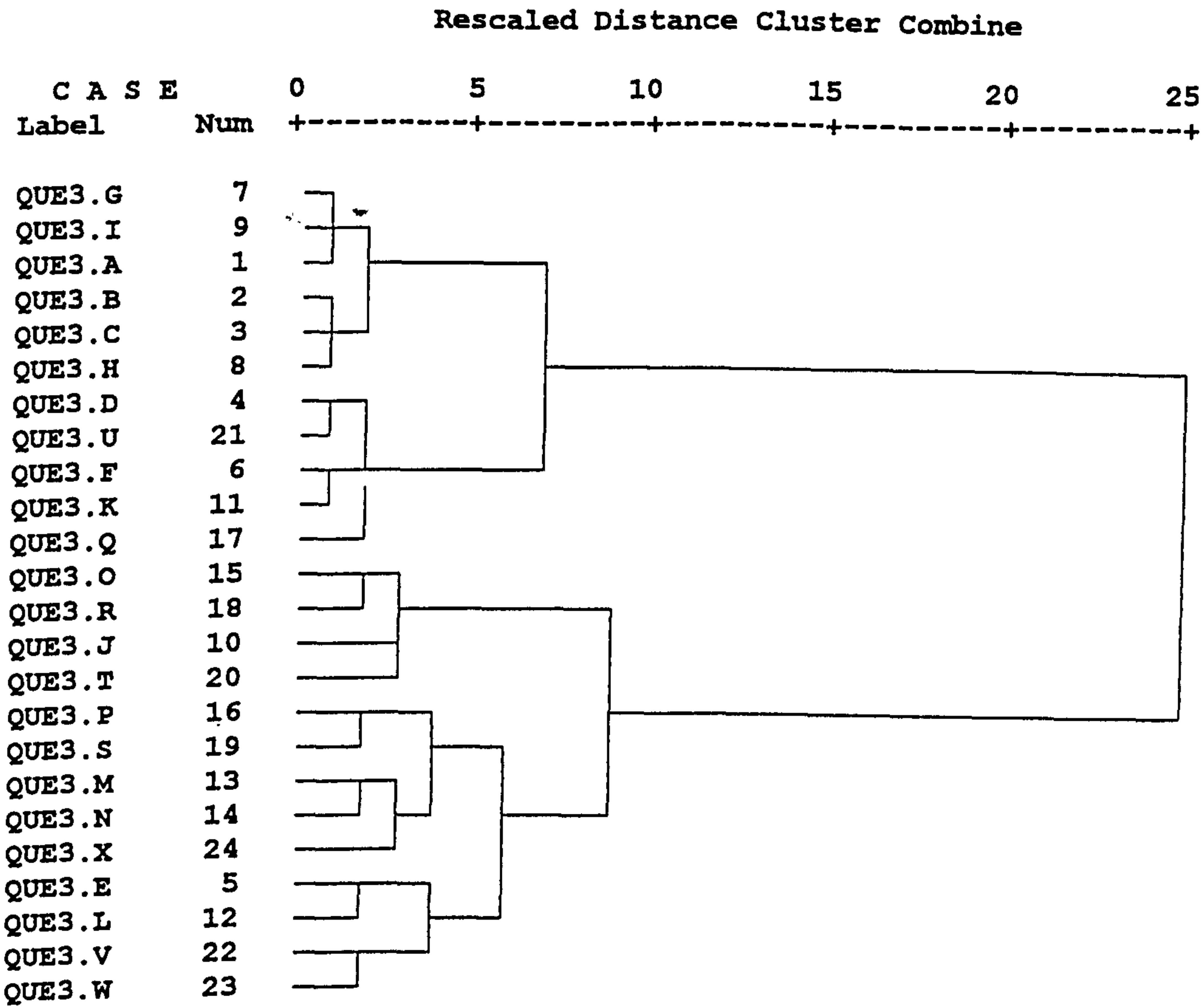
*

Agglomeration Schedule using Ward Method

Stage	Clusters Cluster 1	Combined Cluster 2	Coefficient	Stage Cluster Cluster 1	1st Appears Cluster 2	Next Stage
1	7	9	10,000000	0	0	6
2	4	21	20,500000	0	0	10
3	2	3	31,000000	0	0	4
4	2	8	46,500000	3	0	13
5	6	11	63,500000	0	0	10
6	1	7	80,833336	0	1	13
7	16	19	100,833336	0	0	18
8	5	12	122,333336	0	0	19
9	15	18	144,833344	0	0	16
10	4	6	168,083344	2	5	11
11	4	17	192,133347	10	0	21
12	13	14	217,133347	0	0	17
13	1	2	243,966675	6	4	21
14	22	23	270,966675	0	0	19
15	10	20	301,466675	0	0	16
16	10	15	335,466675	15	9	22
17	13	24	370,466675	12	0	18
18	13	16	406,466675	17	7	20
19	5	22	450,716675	8	14	20
20	5	13	508,855560	19	18	22
21	1	4	571,888916	13	11	23
22	5	10	657,076965	20	16	23
23	1	5	882,666748	21	22	0

ECOTOURISM ELEMENTS

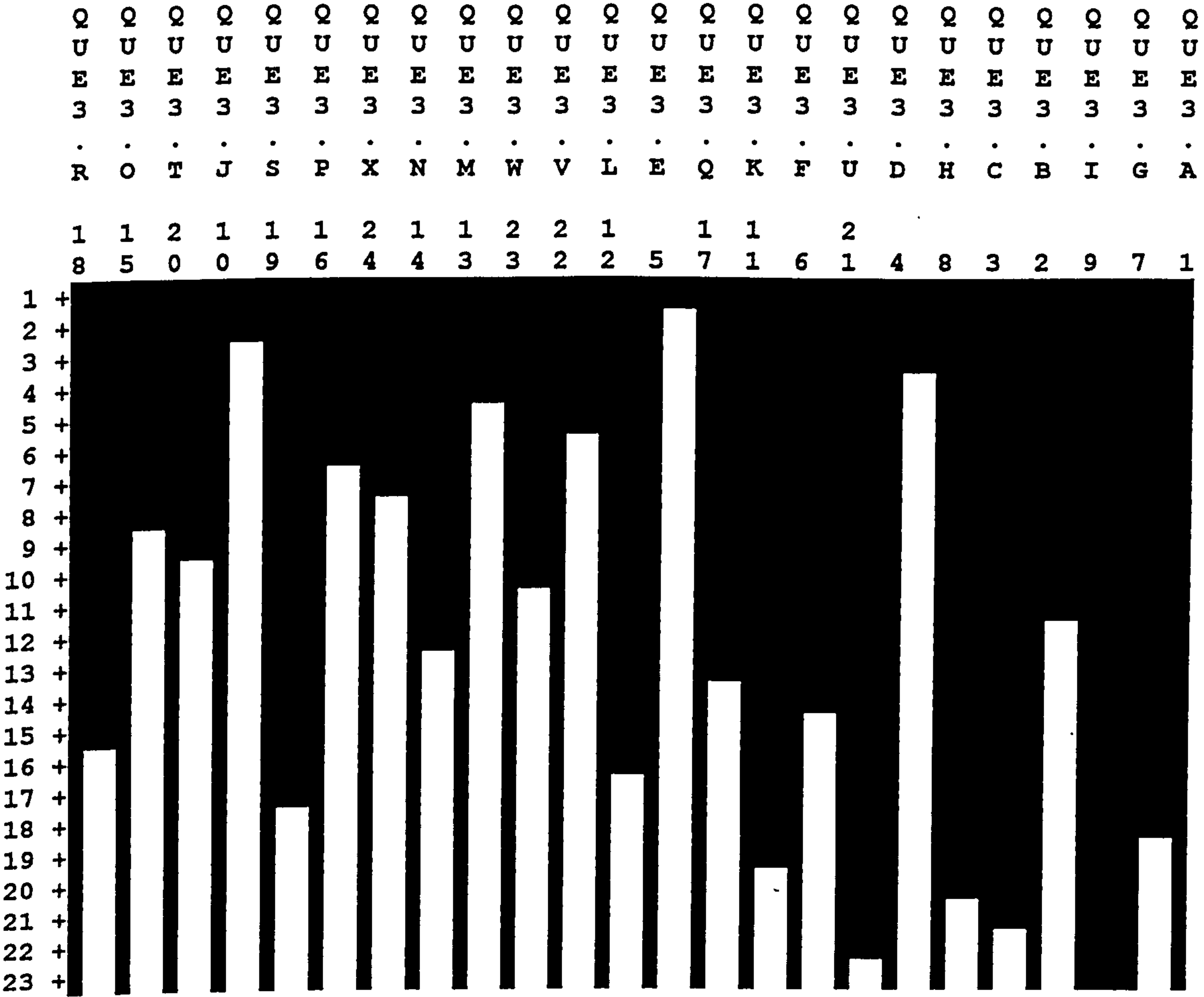
Dendrogram using Ward Method



ECOTOURISM ELEMENTS

Vertical Icicle Plot using Ward Method

(Down) Number of Clusters (Across) Case Label and number



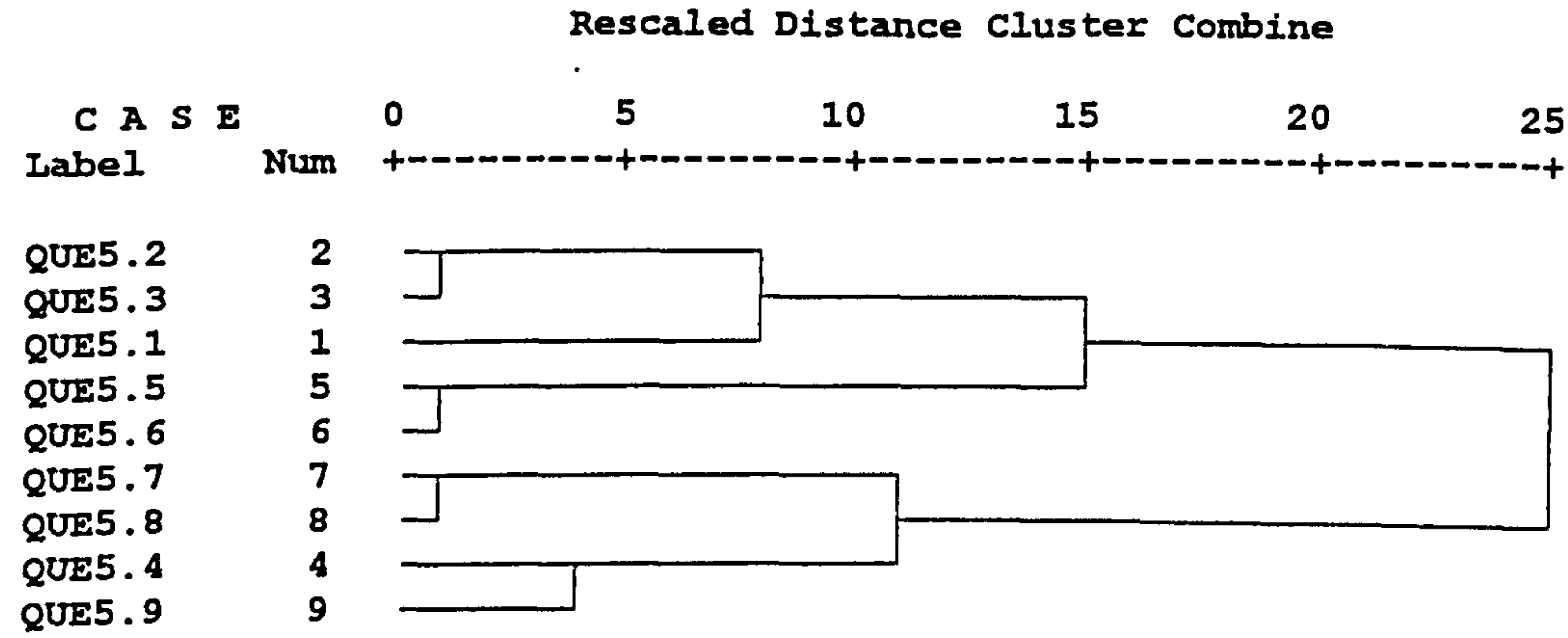
VALUES

Agglomeration Schedule using Ward Method

Stage	Clusters Cluster 1	Combined Cluster 2	Coefficient	Stage Cluster Cluster 1	1st Appears Cluster 2	Next Stage
1	2	3	25,000000	0	0	5
2	5	6	50,500000	0	0	7
3	7	8	85,500000	0	0	6
4	4	9	149,500000	0	0	6
5	1	2	251,166656	0	1	7
6	4	7	392,666656	4	3	8
7	1	5	574,500000	5	2	8
8	1	4	865,111084	7	6	0

VALUES

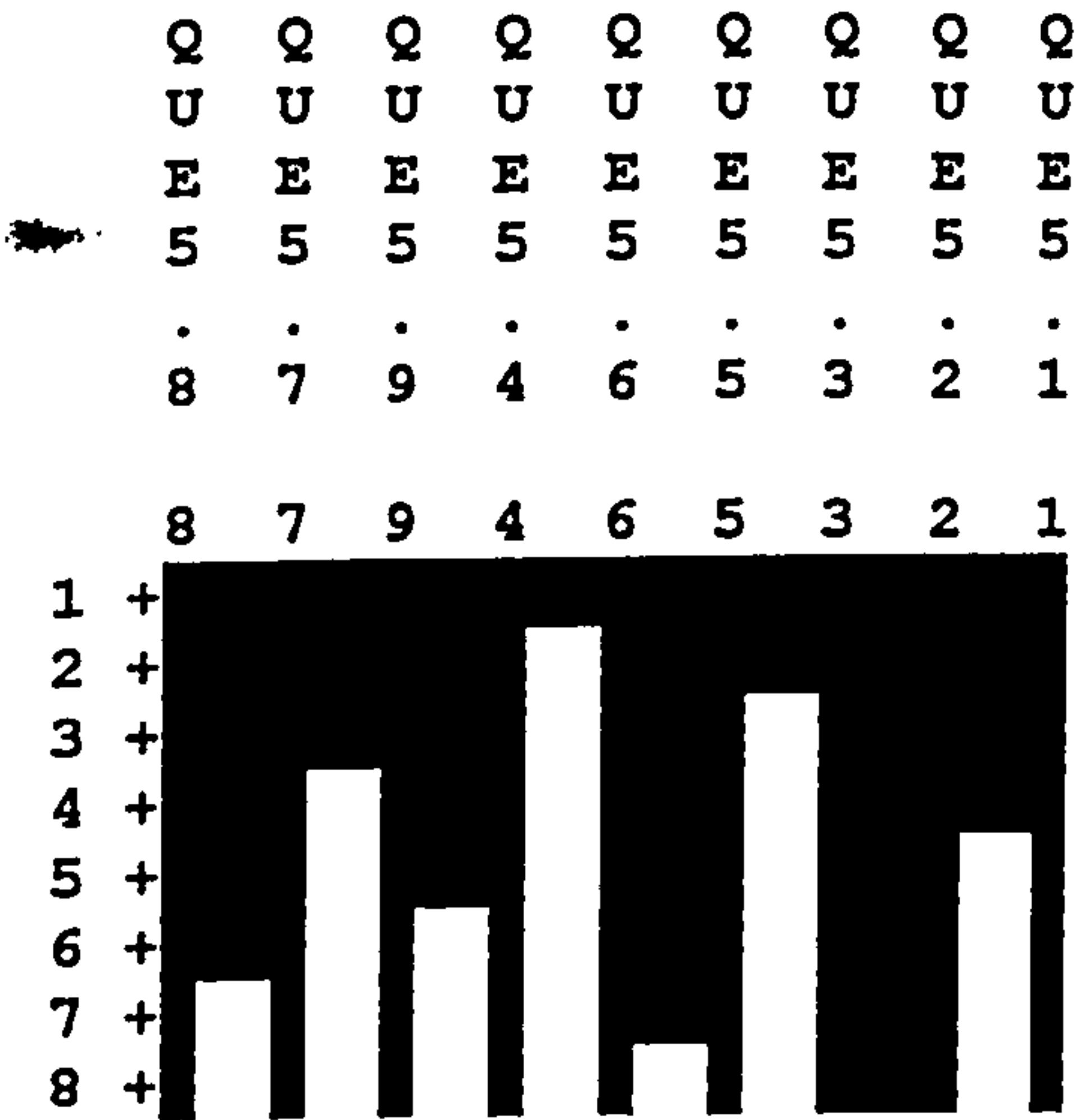
Dendrogram using Ward Method



VALUES

Vertical Icicle Plot using Ward Method

(Down) Number of Clusters (Across) Case Label and number



APPENDIX FOUR

***QUESTIONNAIRE FOR OCCASIONAL
ECOTOURISTS***

Private and Confidential Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of three sections, which are seeking to determine your views and opinions about ecotourism holidays (holidays related to travel to natural areas).

Section A

✍ This section explores your personal travel philosophies

1) Please indicate the degree of your agreement of the following statements when *you consider an 'overseas trip'*, by using the scale below:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

- 1) Getting value for my holiday is very important to me
- 2) I like to be flexible on my holiday
- 3) I do consider the environmental sensitivity of the travel agent
- 4) I take short holidays abroad whenever I have the opportunity
- 5) When travelling overseas I usually take holidays of two weeks or less
- 6) I enjoy undertaking outdoor activities
- 7) Inexpensive air tickets to the destination country are important to me
- 8) I choose the destination because it is cheap to be there on holiday
- 9) I usually prefer to go to a different place on each new holiday trip
- 10) I tend to consider going to the protected areas or national parks of the destination

*Please answer
here*

[illegible]

2) Please indicate the degree of your agreement of each of the following listed factors *when you consider an 'ecotourism holiday'* by using the scale below:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

*Please answer
here*

- a) Meeting new and different people
- b) Intend to study and admire an undisturbed area
- c) Interesting rural countryside
- d) To experience the tranquillity
- e) To visit cultural attractions
- f) Experiencing new and different lifestyles
- g) To explore the area and be educated
- h) To become more energetic
- i) To enjoy the lakes and streams
- j) To be with others who enjoy the same
- k) To go to local festivals and events
- l) To enjoy the weather
- m) Outdoor recreation activities
- n) To visit the national parks
- o) To rest and relax physically
- p) To develop my skills and abilities
- q) Inexpensive entrance fees to national parks
- r) To be in an undisturbed natural area
- s) To shop in the local stores
- t) To enjoy the tour guides in the natural areas
- u) Opportunities to increase one's knowledge

Section B

✍ The purpose of this section is to measure your personal interest in ecotourism. In order to do this, we need you to judge the ecotourism holiday against a series of descriptive words according to how YOU perceive the concept of ecotourism.

3) Please **circle** the number of your choice:

To me ecotourism holidays are:

- | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| a. Unimportant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Important |
| b. Boring | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Interesting |
| c. Irrelevant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Relevant |
| d. Unexciting | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Exciting |
| e. Means Nothing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Means a lot to me |
| f. Unappealing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Appealing |
| g. Mundane | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Fascinating |
| h. Worthless | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Valuable |
| i. Uninvolving | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Involving |
| j. Not needed | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Needed |

4) Please circle the degree of your agreement of each of the following 'values', concerning your choice for ecotourism holidays.

When I choose an ecotourism holiday I get:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. Self-respect	1	2	3	4	5
2. Self-fulfilment	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sense of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5
4. Being well respected	1	2	3	4	5
5. Fun and enjoyment in life	1	2	3	4	5
6. Excitement	1	2	3	4	5
7. Sense of belonging	1	2	3	4	5
8. Warm relationship with others	1	2	3	4	5
9. Security	1	2	3	4	5

5) Which of the following 'activities' do you undertake when you are on ecotourism holiday:
(tick more than one)

1) Educational guided tours	_____	10) Bird watching	_____
2) Diving	_____	11) Bushwalking	_____
3) Whale watching	_____	12) Nature photography	_____
4) Marine fishing	_____	13) Admiring nature	_____
5) White-water rafting	_____	14) Camping	_____
6) Observing animals	_____	15) Observing flowers	_____
7) Adventure tours	_____	16) Snorkelling	_____
8) Turtle watching	_____	17) Rockclimbing	_____
9) Scuba diving	_____	18) Horse riding	_____

Section C

✍ The purpose of this section is to ask for some details on yourself which will assist us to clarify your answers

6) Your gender:

Male 1
Female 2

7) Your Marital Status:

Single 1
Married/partners 2
Widowed
Divorced/separated 3

10) Your educational status:

Secondary education 1
HND/ Diploma 2

Please Specify: _____

First degree 3

Please Specify: _____

Post graduate degree 4

Please Specify: _____

Other 5

Please Specify: _____

**8) How many people normally travel with you
-excluding your self- ?:**

One ☐
Two ☐
Three ☐
Four ☐
Other ☐

Please Specify: _____

11) Your Age (years):

17-24 1
25-34 2
35-44 3
45-54 4
55-64 5
65+ 6

9) Your income (in pounds):

Less than 10,000 1
10,000-15,000 2
15,000-20,000 3
20,000-25,000 4
25,000-30,000 5
30,000 + 6

12) Which of the following 'continents' do you usually visit for your ecotourism holiday (select only one)?

- | | | |
|-------|---------------------------------|--------------------------|
| i) | Europe | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ii) | Asia | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iii) | Africa | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iiii) | Australia/ New Zealand/ Pacific | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iv) | Americas | <input type="checkbox"/> |

13) Describe the type of accommodation you used when you enjoyed the nature, outdoor activity or cultural experiences.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------|
| Hotel/ Motel | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Inn | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Cabin | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Tent | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Ecolodge (Lodge within a natural area) | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Ranch | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Bed & breakfast | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Other | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Please Specify: _____

14) Which of the following describes the level of luxury you prefer for this accommodation?

- | | |
|--------------|--------------------------|
| Luxurious | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Middle range | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Basic/budget | <input type="checkbox"/> |

15) Are you member of an environmental group or society?

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	No	<input type="checkbox"/>
-----	--------------------------	----	--------------------------

If Yes, Please Specify: _____

Thank you very much for your cooperation

16) Do you have any comments and/or suggestions regarding the concept of ecotourism?

Thank you very much for your cooperation

APPENDIX FIVE

LADDERING ITEMS SELECTION

Codes selected for this report:

LADDERMAP 5.1

AGE = 1 2 3 4 5
GENDER = Female (F) Male (M)
INVOL = High (H) Low (L) Medium (M)

ATTRIBUTE LISTING

To visit the historical attractions

ATTR	n= 8
To see the different attractions	n= 1
To visit historical and manmade attractions	n= 1
To visit the historical attractions	n= 1
To visit the attractions of the country	n= 1
To see manmade attractions	n= 1
To see historic places	n= 1
To see the historical attractions	n= 1.
To see the cultural attractions	n= 1

An expensive holiday

EXP	n=14
It was an expensive holiday, but it was worth the money	n= 1
I have paid a lot of money to see these places	n= 1
It was an expensive holiday	n= 6
It was an expensive holiday package	n= 2
It is a shame that eco-holidays are not cheap	n= 1
It cost over 2000 pounds	n= 1
It was expensive to go there	n= 1
It is an expensive holiday	n= 1

Experience local culture

LC	n=13
Meet local people	n= 2
To see the local culture	n= 7
To see other cultures	n= 1
Holidays to see other cultures	n= 1
Allow you to meet local people	n= 1
To meet local people	n= 1

To see the natural environment and protected areas

NA

n=32

To see the wealth flora and fauna	n= 1
To go to a place which is diferent and unspoilt	n= 1
To go somewhere that is not artificial	n= 1
To see the natural heritage	n= 1
To see the flora	n= 1
To go to the natural areas	n= 1
To visit natural areas	n= 1
To see the natural environment	n= 2
To see the scenery	n= 2
To go to see the rainforests and coral reefs	n= 1
To see the natural areas	n= 2
To see different birds	n= 1
To see the protected areas	n= 1
To see nature	n= 1
To see the natural world	n= 2
Travel to see the protected areas	n= 1
To see the rainforests and coral reefs	n= 1
To see the areas of outstanding ecological appeal	n= 1
To see the coral reefs	n= 1
To see the eco-areas	n= 1
To see all these new places and natural beauty	n= 1
To go to see the plants and trees	n= 1
To enjoy the scenery	n= 1
To view rare species of birds	n= 1
To see the natural havens	n= 1
Get away from civilization	n= 1
To see the environment	n= 1
To see protected areas	n= 1

To participate in outdoor/ recreational activities

ORA

n=12

I like to capture all these places on camera	n= 1
I am interest in scuba diving	n= 1
In order to do some outdoor activities such as bushwalking	n= 1
To go somewhere I can dive	n= 1
I like to capture them on camera	n= 1
To do scuba diving in Belize	n= 1
To go diving	n= 1
To being physically active	n= 1
To develop my skills and abilities	n= 1
To do a horse riding	n= 1
To go to have an adventure	n= 1
To go somewhere to experience risky situations	n= 1

To go somewhere that is not solely commercial

SC

n=11

- To travel to less populated areas on earth
- Travel to less populated areas
- To go somewhere that is not solely commercial
- To go somewhere that is not that popular
- To go somewhere that not a lot of tourists going
- To go somewhere more inaccessible
- To go somewhere that is not very popular
- To go to remote areas
- It is not a very popular destination

n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 3
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1

To do a survey and/or study of natural habitats

SNH

n=13

- To participate in guided tours
- To study different natural assets
- To view and participate in the conservation efforts of other countries
- To be part of conservation projects
- I want to learn something not just go for the sun
- To study the different species
- To study the coral reefs
- To do an expedition
- To study about the natural habitats
- I went for a conservation expedition
- To do a survey
- To study the flowers

n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 2
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1

To experience traditional and natural lifestyles

TNL

n= 6

- To see different lifestyles
- To see different traditional and natural lifestyles
- I like to see other ways of life
- To go to see different lifestyles
- To experience the local lifestyles
- To see other ways of life

n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1

To travel to third world countries

TWC

n= 5

- Travel to third world countries
- To travel to a third world country
- Commercialised areas of the third world
- It was travel to a third world country
- To go to a third world country

n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1

To experience a unique exclusive place

UEP

n=14

- To experience a unique place
- These are exclusive holidays
- To see a unique place on earth
- To experience something different
- To go to a unique place
- To go somewhere unique
- It is unique
- To go somewhere that is unique
- To go somewhere that I have been before
- Discover the world
- It is a unique place
- To go to a unique place

n= 2
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 2
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1

To travel to a wild place

WP

n=16

- The place which I normally go has a wild natural environmet
- Travel to wilderness
- Travel to wild places on earth
- Travel to wild places
- To travel somewhere exotic and wild
- To travel to wilderesses
- Go to wild places
- To go to the wild places
- To travel to see a wild place
- To see a wild place
- To go to a wild place
- To travel to a wild place on earth
- To see different wild places
- The place where I normally go has a wild natural environment

n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 2
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1
n= 2
n= 1
n= 1
n= 1

CONSEQUENCES LISTING

Have an awareness of the world's natural environment

AWE

n=13

I am aware of the long term survival of the environment	n= 2
I want to see it before it dissapears	n= 1
I am aware of the variety of the world's wildlife and species	n= 1
I am concerned about their survival	n= 1
They are not going to remain natural	n= 1
To increase their environmental awarness	n= 1
I am aware about them	n= 1
I am aware about their long term survival	n= 1
I must protect the environment because I want everyone to enjoy it	n= 1
I am aware of it	n= 1
I like to see the place untouched, not polluted	n= 1
It is an area under threat	n= 1

To be concerned that your presence there may damage the natural environment

CDE

n= 8

I am worried that by being there I might destroy the natural beauty	n= 1
I am concerned that if a lot of people go somewhere they may destroy the area	n= 1
Ecotourism may end up on the Band-Waggon	n= 1
If the majority of the population are participating, what is going to be the future	n= 1
I think that the more tourists go somewhere, the more polution you get	n= 1
I am concerned that if a lot of people go they may damage the area	n= 1
Tourists may destroy these place	n= 1
I am concerned that by being there I might destroy it	n= 1

To contribute actively in conservation of these areas

CONS

n=13

I go there because I want to help protect the environment	n= 1
To help protect the environment	n= 1
To contribute personally to conservation effort	n= 1
To get involed in conservation work	n= 1
Contribute personally to conservation effort	n= 1
I would like to work on some conservation projects	n= 2
I encourage its protection by doing some projects there	n= 1
I like to help protect the environment	n= 1
To contribute to the conservation of the area	n= 1
I am involved on their protection	n= 1
A chance to help the environment	n= 1
Contribute to the preservation of nature	n= 1

To be more energetic and adventurous

EA	n= 8
I want to have a nice adventure	n= 1
It makes me become more adventurous	n= 1
I went there to have an adventure	n= 1
Being more adventurous	n= 1
To be physically fit	n= 1
It makes me more active	n= 1
I like to have adventures	n= 1
To have an adventure	n= 1

To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday

EEEH	n=16
To take all this knowledge and try to make use of it	n= 1
To become more knowledgeable about different ways of life	n= 1
To learn about nature and its species	n= 2
To increase my knowledge about nature and locals	n= 1
To find out about it	n= 1
To learn about different species	n= 1
To learn something from it	n= 1
To learn something different	n= 1
I am going there to learn about it	n= 1
To learn about the species and plants	n= 1
To go to see how other countries are protecting the environment	n= 1
I learn so many things	n= 1
To learn about the history and culture	n= 1
To learn about the nature	n= 1
To know more about the habitants	n= 1

To educate and be educated by local people

EELP	n=13
To educate my self about the different cultures, and ways of life	n= 1
To learn from them	n= 1
To study with local people	n= 1
Educate local people in conserving the environment	n= 1
I want to know about their way of life	n= 1
To learn about the local culture and people	n= 1
I like to learn about the way of life of local people	n= 1
To learn their culture	n= 1
Educating and be educated by the local communities	n= 1
Learn from and give benefit to the local people	n= 1
I like to learn about it	n= 1
To experience the way they live	n= 1
I like to learn about their culture	n= 1

To go again, when possible

GOAGA

n= 7

I'de like to go more often when I've got the money

n= 1

I'de like to go again if I find the opportunity

n= 1

I'de like to visit that area again

n= 1

We go every time

n= 1

I would go every time

n= 1

I'de like to go again

n= 1

I am going there every time

n= 1

To create a memory that normal holidays could not give me

LTM

n=11

To experience something that normal holidays would not give me

n= 1

It is an opportunity to create a memory of a lifetime

n= 1

To create a memory of a life time

n= 1

The best two months of my life

n= 1

To have a holiday of a life time

n= 2

To experience a dream

n= 1

I like to have a great memory

n= 1

To have an excellent time. A nice memory

n= 1

I create a memory that normal holidays are not going to give me

n= 1

To have a nice memory

n= 1

To feel relaxed and calm

RC

n= 7

To feel calm and relaxed

n= 1

Ecotourism holidays give me the opportunity to have a nice relaxation

n= 1

It makes me relaxed

n= 1

To feel relax and calm

n= 2

I like to relax

n= 1

It makes me relax mentally

n= 1

It was recommended to me by friends

RECFR

n= 7

My friends had a great time

n= 1

My friends recommended this place to me

n= 1

I am going there with my friends

n= 1

It was recommended to me by all my friends

n= 1

My friends recommended the place to me

n= 1

My friends told me about it

n= 1

I am going there with my friends. They told me about it

n= 1

To respect the local population and indigenous people

RLPIP

n= 7

I admire their way of living

n= 1

Respect the local population

n= 1

I admire it

n= 3

I admire their way of life

n= 1

I admire these people

n= 1

To maintain environmental standards for future holiday makers

SFHM

n= 8

To set environmental standards

n= 2

To set the correct environmental standards for other tourists

n= 1

To set the environmental standards for others

n= 1

To set the correct environmental standards

n= 1

To set the standards

n= 1

I like to set the environmental standards by being a pionner

n= 1

I like ecotourism holidays. I maintain the standards there
for other tourists

n= 1

I felt that travel companies just use the word ecoholidays to attract more people

TCWA

n= 7

I am sort of upset that travel agencies exploit these areas

n= 1

Travel companies want to sell you large hotels

n= 1

I am sure some companies use the word as an excuse to put prices up

n= 1

Travel companies overcharged the people

n= 1

I feel that travel companies just use the word eco

n= 1

I do not trust the travel agencies information

n= 1

Travel agencies do not provide enough information

n= 1

VALUE LISTING

Get a sense of accomplishment

ACC

n=14

I like to help the local population	n= 1
To assist the local population	n= 1
In order to work for the preservation of the environment	n= 1
To contribute to something useful	n= 1
In order to contribute to protect the environment	n= 1
I like to help to protect these areas	n= 2
I like to contribute on something to destroy	n= 1
I like to protect them	n= 1
I like to protect it	n= 2
I like to assist the local population protecting their environment	n= 1
I like to work for the preservation of the environment	n= 1
To contribute to something	n= 1

Appreciate and respect the world we live in

AWOB

n=29

I appreciate the world we live in.It has been destroyed	n= 1
I appreciate the world we live in more	n= 2
I go there because I appreciate the environment	n= 1
I admire the natural world	n= 1
I do not like see places disappear	n= 1
I appreciate the natural beauty	n= 1
I am concerned about the natural environment	n= 2
I appreciate the world we live in	n= 2
I appreciate the natural world	n= 1
I appreciate the environment we live	n= 1
I care about the long term survival of nature	n= 1
I love to be with nature	n= 1
I appreciate the world	n= 2
I get upset to see how many places are destroyed	n= 3
I am worry that many beautiful places have been destroyed	n= 1
I have a great value to the world we live in	n= 1
I like to see the natural environment of that area, as I left it	n= 1
I do not like to see it destroyed	n= 1
I care about their survival	n= 1
I like to see 'nature alive'	n= 1
I am concerned about its existance	n= 1
I appreciate their way of life	n= 1
I do not like to see it damaged	n= 1

Have fun and enjoyment in life

ENJOY

n=25

I enjoy it	n= 9
To enjoy my self	n= 2
I gain enjoyment	n= 1
I like to enjoy my self	n= 2
You get the fun and excitement	n= 2
To have a wild time	n= 1
I enjoy my self there	n= 1
To have fun with my friends	n= 1
To have a good time	n= 1
I enjoy the environment	n= 1
I like to have fun	n= 1
I enjoy being there	n= 1
I enjoy doing that	n= 1
I had fun	n= 1

Get excitement

EXC

n=11

I am excited to see other cultures	n= 1
It makes me excited	n= 4
I am excited to learn about it	n= 1
It makes me feel excited	n= 1
It attracts my interest	n= 1
I am excited to find out	n= 1
I am excited to see other ways of life	n= 1
It excites me	n= 1

Get self fulfilment

FUL

n=10

I planned to go there for a long time	n= 2
A sense of achievement	n= 2
It was my dream to be there	n= 1
It is my hobby, my dream to be there	n= 1
It was my dream to go there	n= 1
It was a life time dream	n= 1
We planned to go there for a long time	n= 1
I feel that I contributed to the preservation	n= 1

Get value for money

GVFM

n= 6

It is a value for money holiday

n= 1

I like to get great value for my money

n= 1

I like to get value for money, not to end up paying more

n= 1

It is worth every penny

n= 1

I do not like to waste my money

n= 1

I do not like to spend my money

n= 1

Experience a warm relationship with others

GWRO

n=10

To meet different people

n= 1

To meet other people and create some friendships

n= 1

I meet new people

n= 1

It brings together people who share a common interest

n= 1

Meet a lot of new people

n= 1

I meet other people who enjoy the same

n= 1

I meet a lot of new people

n= 1

I get to know a lot of people

n= 1

To meet a lot of people

n= 1

I meet lot's of people

n= 1

Achieve happiness

HAP

n= 14

To be happy

n= 1

It makes me happy

n= 8

It makes me happy to see other cultures

n= 1

It makes me happy to see the historical places

n= 1

It makes me more happy

n= 2

It will make me feel happier

n= 1

Become more knowledgable

KNOW	n= 17
To become more knowledgable	n= 2
To learn something	n= 3
I increase my historical knowledge	n= 1
I like to become more knowledgable	n= 1
I like to learn how they developed their culture	n= 1
Increase my knowledge	n= 1
I learn new things	n= 1
I like to learn something when I am on a holiday	n= 1
To take all this knowledge and try and make use of it, like wise	n= 1
I like to increase my knowledge	n= 1
I like to learn more about their culture	n= 1
To increase my knowledge	n= 1
To increase my knowledge about it	n= 1
I get to learn about it	n= 1

APPENDIX SIX

*QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FREQUENT
ECOTOURISTS*

Private and Confidential Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of three sections, which are seeking to determine your views and opinions about ecotourism holidays (holidays related to travel to natural areas).

Section A

✎ This section explores your personal travel philosophies

1) Please indicate the degree of your agreement to each of the following statements *when you think about an 'ecotourism holiday'* by using the scale below:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

*Please answer
here*

- 1) To see the natural environment and protected areas
- 2) To travel to wild places on earth
- 3) Experience local culture
- 4) To experience traditional and natural lifestyles
- 5) To experience a unique exclusive place
- 6) To participate in outdoor/recreational activities
- 7) To visit the historical attractions
- 8) To do a survey and /or study of natural habitats
- 9) To travel to third world countries
- 10) An expensive holiday
- 11) To go somewhere that is not solely commercial

Section B

✍ The purpose of this section is to measure your personal interest in ecotourism. In order to do this, we need you to judge the ecotourism holiday against a series of descriptive words according to how YOU perceive the concept of ecotourism.

3) Please circle the number of your choice:

To me ecotourism holidays are:

a. Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Important
b. Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
c. Irrelevant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Relevant
d. Unexciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
e. Means Nothing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Means a lot to me
f. Unappealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Appealing
g. Mundane	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fascinating
h. Worthless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Valuable
i. Uninvolving	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Involving
j. Not needed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Needed

4) Please circle the degree of your agreement of each of the following 'values', concerning your choice for ecotourism holidays.

When I go on an ecotourism holiday I :

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. Get self-respect	1	2	3	4	5
2. Get self-fulfilment	1	2	3	4	5
3. Get a sense of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5
4. Become well respected	1	2	3	4	5
5. Have fun and enjoyment in life	1	2	3	4	5
6. Get excitement	1	2	3	4	5
7. Get a sense of belonging	1	2	3	4	5
8. Experience a warm relationship with others	1	2	3	4	5
9. Get security	1	2	3	4	5
10. Get value for money	1	2	3	4	5
11. Achieve happiness	1	2	3	4	5
12. Become more knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5
13. Appreciate and respect the world we live in	1	2	3	4	5

5) Which of the following 'activities' do you undertake when you are on ecotourism holiday:
(tick more than one)

1) Educational guided tours	_____	8) Bird watching	_____
2) Scuba Diving	_____	9) Bushwalking	_____
3) Whale watching	_____	10) Nature photography	_____
4) White-water rafting	_____	11) Admiring nature	_____
5) Observing animals	_____	12) Observing flowers	_____
6) Adventure tours	_____	13) Snorkelling	_____
7) Horse riding	_____	14) Rockclimbing	_____

Section C

✂ The purpose of this section is to ask for some details on yourself which will assist us to clarify your answers

6) Your gender:

Male

1

Female

2

7) Your Marital Status:

Single

1

Married/partners

2

Widowed

Divorced/separated

3

10) Your educational status:

Secondary education

1

HND/ Diploma

2

Please Specify:

First degree

3

Please Specify:

Post graduate degree

4

Please Specify:

Other

5

Please Specify:

8) How many people normally travel with you
-excluding your self- ?:

One

Two

Three

Four

Other

Please Specify:

11) Your Age (years):

17-24

1

25-34

2

35-44

3

45-54

4

55-64

5

65+

6

9) Your income (in pounds):

Less than 10,000

1

10,000-15,000

2

15,000-20,000

3

20,000-25,000

4

25,000-30,000

5

30,000 +

6

12) Which of the following ‘*continents*’ do you usually visit for your ecotourism holiday ?

- | | | |
|-------|---------------------------------|--------------------------|
| i) | Europe | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ii) | Asia | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iii) | Africa | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iiii) | Australia/ New Zealand/ Pacific | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| iv) | Americas | <input type="checkbox"/> |

13) Describe the type of accommodation you used when you enjoyed the nature, outdoor activity or cultural experiences.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------|
| Hotel/ Motel | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Inn | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Cabin | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Tent | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Ecolodge (Lodge within a natural area) | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Ranch | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Bed & breakfast | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Other | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Please Specify: _____

14) Which of the following describes the level of luxury you prefer for this accommodation?

- | | |
|--------------|--------------------------|
| Luxurious | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Middle range | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Basic/budget | <input type="checkbox"/> |

15) Are you member of an environmental group or society?

- | | | | |
|-----|--------------------------|----|--------------------------|
| Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> | No | <input type="checkbox"/> |
|-----|--------------------------|----|--------------------------|

If Yes, Please Specify: _____

16) Do you have any comments and/or suggestions regarding the concept of ecotourism?

Thank you very much for your cooperation

APPENDIX SEVEN

LADDERRING INTERVIEWS

L A D D E R L I S T filename=ecotourism.lad
Laddermap 5.1 Dimitrios Diamantis

A: Attributes C: Consequences V: Values

ID=001 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I appreciate the world we live in.It has been destroyed
syn = AWOB
C To take all this knowledge and try to make use of it
syn = EEEH
A To see the wealth flora and fauna
syn = NA

ID=001 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I enjoy it
syn = ENJOY
V To be happy
syn = HAP
C To fell calm and relax
syn = RC
C To experience something not normal holidays will give to me
syn = LTM
A To experience a unique place
syn = UEP

ID=002 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I appreciate the world we living more
syn = AWOB
V To become more knowledgable
syn = KNOW
C I go there because I will like to help protecting the environment
syn = CONS
A The place which I normally go has a wild natural environmet
syn = WP
A To go to a place which is diferent and unspoilt
syn = NA

ID=002 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V It is a value of money holiday
syn = GVFM
C I am sort of upset that travel agencies exploit these areas
syn = TCWA
C I will like to go more often when I am going to find the money
syn = GOAGA
A It was an expensive holiday, but it is worth the money
syn = EXP

ID=003 ladder # =1
AGE =4 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V To enjoy my self
syn = ENJOY
C To educate my self about the different cultures and way of life
syn = EELP
A I paid a lot's of money to see these places
syn = EXP
A To go somewhere that is not artificial
syn = NA

ID=003 ladder # =2
AGE =4 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I like to help the local population
syn = ACC
C I admire their way of living
syn = RLPIP
C To learn from them
syn = EELP
A Meet local people
syn = LC
A To see the natural heritage
syn = NA

ID=003 ladder # =3
AGE =4 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I gain an enjoyment
syn = ENJOY
C Ecotourism holidays give me the opportunity to have a nice relaxation
syn = RC
C It is an opportunity to have a memory of a lifetime
syn = LTM
A There are exclusive holidays
syn = UEP

ID=004 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =L
V To meet different people
syn = GWRO
A To see different lifestyles
syn = TNL
A To see the local culture
syn = LC

ID=004 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =L
V To meet with other people and create some friendships
syn = GWRO
C To become more knowledgable about different ways of living
syn = EEEH
A To participate in guided tours
syn = SNH

ID=005 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I am going there because I appreciate the environment
syn = AWOB
C To help protecting the environment
syn = CONS
A To see the flora
syn = NA
A Travel to wilderness
syn = WP

ID=005 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V To assist the local population
syn = ACC
C To set environmental standards
syn = SFHM
C To contribute personally to conservation effort
syn = CONS
A To go to the nature
syn = NA

ID=006 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V To enjoy my self
syn = ENJOY
C To have a memory of a life time
syn = LTM
A Travel to wild places on earth
syn = WP
A To travel to less populated areas on earth
syn = SC

ID=006 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I admire the natural world
syn = AWOB
V To become more knowledgable
syn = KNOW
C To learn about the nature and its species
syn = EEEH
A To study different natural assets
syn = SNH
A To see a unique place on earth
syn = UEP

ID=007 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =L
V I do not like see places going
syn = AWOB
C To set environmental standards
syn = SFHM
A It was an expensive holiday
syn = EXP
A To visit natural areas
syn = NA

ID=008 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V In order to work for the preservation of the environment
syn = ACC
C Respect the local population
syn = RLPIP
C To study with local people
syn = EELP
A To see other cultures
syn = LC
A To see the natural environment
syn = NA

ID=008 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V It makes me happy
syn = HAP
V To contribute on something useful
syn = ACC
C To increase my knowledge about the nature and locals
syn = EEEH
A Meet local people
syn = LC
A To experience something different
syn = UEP

ID=009 ladder # =1
AGE =1 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I enjoy it
syn = ENJOY
C It makes me relax
syn = RC
A To go on a unique place
syn = UEP
A To see the scenery
syn = NA

ID=009 ladder # =2
AGE =1 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I like to enjoy my self
syn = ENJOY
C My friends had a great time
syn = RECFR
C The best two months of my life
syn = LTM
A It was an expensive holiday
syn = EXP

ID=010 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I meet new people
syn = GWRO
V I like to enjoy my self
syn = ENJOY
A To go somewhere unique
syn = UEP

ID=010 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I appreciate the natural beauty
syn = AWOB
C To set the correct environmental standards for other tourists
syn = SFHM
C To get involved in a conservation work
syn = CONS
A To go to see the rainforests and coral reefs
syn = NA

ID=011 ladder # =1
AGE =1 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I am concern about the natural environment
syn = AWOB
V It makes me happy
syn = HAP
C Educate local people in conserving the environment
syn = EELP
C Contribute personally to conservation effort
syn = CONS
A To view and participate in the conservation efforts of other countries
syn = SNH

ID=011 ladder # =2
AGE =1 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V In order to contribute to protect the environment
syn = ACC
C I like to go again when I found the opportunity
syn = GOAGA
C I am worry that by being there I might destroy the natural beaty
syn = CDE
A To see different traditional and natural lifestyles
syn = TNL
A Travel to wild places
syn = WP

ID=012 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =M
V It makes me happy
syn = HAP
V I planned to go there for a long time
syn = FUL
C To feel relax and calm
syn = RC
A To travel somewhere exotic and wild
syn = WP

ID=012 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =M
V I appreciate the world we live in
syn = AWOB
V I like to help to protect these areas
syn = ACC
C I am aware of the long term survival of the environment
syn = AWE
C I like to work on some conservation projects
syn = CONS
A It was an expensive holiday package
syn = EXP

ID=013 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V A sense of achievement
syn = FUL
V You get the fun and excitement
syn = ENJOY
C To have a holiday of a life time
syn = LTM
A To be part in a conservation projects
syn = SNH

ID=014 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V To learn something
syn = KNOW
C To find out about it
syn = EEEH
A I like to see other ways of life
syn = TNL
A To see the natural areas
syn = NA

ID=014 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I am excitent to see other cultures
syn = EXC
C I like to know their way of life
syn = EELP
A holidays to see other cultures
syn = LC

ID=015 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V It makes me happy to see other cultures
syn = HAP
A To see the different attractions
syn = ATTR
A Travel to less populated areas
syn = SC

ID=015 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I like to get great value of my money
syn = GVFM
C Travel companies want to sell you large hotels
syn = TCWA
C My friends recommended this place to me
syn = RECFR
A To see different birds
syn = NA

ID=016 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I appreciate the natural world
syn = AWOB
V It makes me excited
syn = EXC
A I like to capture all these places on camera
syn = ORA
A To travel to wilderesses
syn = WP

ID=016 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I increase my historical knowledge
syn = KNOW
V It makes me happy to see the historical places
syn = HAP
A To visit historical and manmade attractions
syn = ATTR

ID=017 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I appreciate the environment we live
syn = AWOB
C I like to see them before they go
syn = AWE
C To learn about different species
syn = EEEH
A To see the protected areas
syn = NA

ID=017 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V To have a wild time
syn = ENJOY
A To visit the historical attractions
syn = ATTR
A Go to wild places
syn = WP

ID=018 ladder # =1
AGE =1 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I like to become more knowledgable
syn = KNOW
C To learn about the local culture and people
syn = EELP
C To learn something from it
syn = EEEH
A To see the nature
syn = NA

ID=018 ladder # =2
AGE =1 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I am excited to learn about it
syn = EXC
C To learn something different
syn = EEEH
A To visit the attractions of the country
syn = ATTR

ID=019 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =L
V It was my dream to be there
syn = FUL
A to go to the wild places
syn = WP

ID=019 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =L
V I like to learn how they developed their culture
syn = KNOW
C I like to learn about the way of life of local people
syn = EELP
A To go to see different lifestyles
syn = TNL

ID=019 ladder # =3
AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =L
V I care about the long term survival of the nature
syn = AWOB
C I am aware of the variety of world's wildlife and species
syn = AWE
A I like to learn something not to go for the sun
syn = SNH

ID=020 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I love to be with the nature
syn = AWOB
C I am going there to learn about it
syn = EEH
A To see the natural world
syn = NA

ID=020 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I appreciate the world
syn = AWOB
V I like to contribute on something to destroy
syn = ACC
C I am concerned that if a lot of people go somewhere may destroy the area
syn = CDE
A To go somewhere that is not solely commercial
syn = SC

ID=021 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I like to protect them
syn = ACC
V I am getting upset to see how many places are destroyed
syn = AWOB
C Ecotourism may become a Band-Waggon
syn = CDE
C I am concern about their survival
syn = AWE
A Travel to see the protected areas
syn = NA

ID=021 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V It is my hobby, my dream to be there
syn = FUL
A To study the different species
syn = SNH

ID=021 ladder # =3
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I like to get value for money, not to end up paying more
syn = GVFM
C I am sure some companies use the word as an excuse to put prices up
syn = TCWA
A It is a shame that eco-holidays are not cheap
syn = EXP

ID=022 ladder # =1
AGE =4 GENDER =M INVOL =L
V I like to protect it
syn = ACC
V I am concern about the natural environment
syn = AWOB
C To experience a memory
syn = LTM
A To see the rainforests and coral reefs
syn = NA

ID=022 ladder # =2
AGE =4 GENDER =M INVOL =L
V Increase my knowledge
syn = KNOW
A To do study the coral reefs
syn = SNH
A Travel to third world countries
syn = TWC

ID=023 ladder # =1
AGE =1 GENDER =M INVOL =M
V To learn something
syn = KNOW
C I like to have a nice adventure
syn = EA
A I am interest in scuba diving
syn = ORA
A To do an expedition
syn = SNH

ID=023 ladder # =2
AGE =1 GENDER =M INVOL =M
V It is worth every penny
syn = GVFM
A It cost over 2000 pounds
syn = EXP

ID=024 ladder # =1
AGE =1 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V It brings together people who share a common interest
syn = GWRO
A To see the natural world
syn = NA

ID=024 ladder # =2
AGE =1 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V It makes me excited
syn = EXC
C To learn their culture
syn = EELP
A Allow you to meet local people
syn = LC

ID=025 ladder # =1
AGE =1 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I like to protect it
syn = ACC
V I am worry that many beautiful places have been destroyed
syn = AWOB
C I encourage its protection by doing some projects there
syn = CONS
A To go somewhere that is not that popular
syn = SC
A To travel to see a wild place
syn = WP

ID=026 ladder # =1

AGE =1 GENDER =M INVOL =H

V I am getting upset to see how many places are destroyed

syn = AWOB

C Are not going to remain natural

syn = AWE

C If the majority of population participating, what is going to be the future

syn = CDE

A To go somewhere that not a lot of tourists going

syn = SC

A To see the natural areas

syn = NA

ID=026 ladder # =2

AGE =1 GENDER =M INVOL =H

V I enjoy my self there

syn = ENJOY

V It makes me happy

syn = HAP

C To feel relax and calm

syn = RC

A To see the areas of an outstandig ecological appeal

syn = NA

ID=027 ladder # =1

AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H

V It makes me happy

syn = HAP

A It is unique

syn = UEP

A To see the coral recfs

syn = NA

ID=027 ladder # =2

AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H

V To learn something

syn = KNOW

C I admire it

syn = RLPIP

A To see the local culture

syn = LC

A To see manmade attractions

syn = ATTR

ID=027 ladder # =3

AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H

V I like to assist the local population protecting their environment

syn = ACC

C To increase their environmental awarness

syn = AWE

C Educating and be educated by the local communities

syn = EELP

A To experience the local lifestyles

syn = TNL

A It was expensive to go there

syn = EXP

ID=028 ladder # =1

AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =L

V I learn new things

syn = KNOW

C Learn from and give benefit to the local people

syn = EELP

A To see the local culture

syn = LC

A To see the eco-areas

syn = NA

ID=028 ladder # =2

AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =L

V It was my dream to go there

syn = FUL

C Travel companies pricing out the people

syn = TCWA

A It was an expensive holiday

syn = EXP

ID=029 ladder # =1

AGE =1 GENDER =F INVOL =M

V I give a great value to the world we live in

syn = AWOB

C I am aware about them

syn = AWE

C To learn about the species and plants

syn = EEEH

A To see all these new places and natural beauty

syn = NA

ID=029 ladder # =2

AGE =1 GENDER =F INVOL =M

V Meet a lot of new people

syn = GWRO

V To have fun with my friends

syn = ENJOY

A To go somewhere more inaccessible

syn = SC

ID=030 ladder # =1
AGE =4 GENDER =M INVOL =M
V I enjoy it
syn = ENJOY
C It makes me become more adventures
syn = EA
A In order to do some outdoor activities such as bushwalking
syn = ORA
A To see a wild place
syn = WP

ID=030 ladder # =2
AGE =4 GENDER =M INVOL =M
V I meet other people who enjoy the same
syn = GWRO
C I like to have a great time
syn = LTM
A To experience a unique place
syn = UEP

ID=031 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I like to learn something when I am on a holiday
syn = KNOW
C I am aware about their long term survival
syn = AWE
A To study about the natural habitats
syn = SNH

ID=031 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I like to see the natural environment of that area, as I left it
syn = AWOB
C I like to visit that area again
syn = GOAGA
C I think that the more tourists who go somewhere, the more pollution you have
syn = CDE
A To go somewhere that is not that popular
syn = SC

ID=031 ladder # =3
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V A sense of achievement
syn = FUL
V You get the fun and excitement
syn = ENJOY
C To have a holiday of a life time
syn = LTM
A To be part in a conservation projects
syn = SNH

ID=032 ladder # =1
 AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =M
 V I appreciate the world we live in
 syn = AWOB
 V I like to help to protect these areas
 syn = ACC
 C I am aware of the long term survival of the environment
 syn = AWE
 C I like to work on some conservation projects
 syn = CONS
 A It was an expensive holiday package
 syn = EXP

ID=033 ladder # =1
 AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =H
 V To take all this knowledge and try and make the use of it like wise
 syn = KNOW
 C We must protect the environment because I like everyone to enjoy it
 syn = AWE
 C To go to see how other countries are protecting the environment
 syn = EEH
 A To travel to a third world country
 syn = TWC

ID=033 ladder # =2
 AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =H
 V To have a good time
 syn = ENJOY
 C We going every time
 syn = GOAGA
 C I am going there with my friends
 syn = RECFR
 A To see the natural environment
 syn = NA

ID=034 ladder # =1
 AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =M
 V I enjoy the environment
 syn = ENJOY
 C I like to relax
 syn = RC
 A To go somewhere unique
 syn = UEP

ID=034 ladder # =2
 AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =M
 V I do not like to see it destroyed
 syn = AWOB
 C I like to help to protect the environment
 syn = CONS
 C I am concerned that If a lot of people go may damage the area
 syn = CDE
 A To go somewhere that is not that popular
 syn = SC

ID=035 ladder # =1
AGE =1 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I enjoy it
syn = ENJOY
C To have an excellent time. A nice memory
syn = LTM
A To go somewhere for diving
syn = ORA

ID=035 ladder # =2
AGE =1 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I like to have fun
syn = ENJOY
C I went there to have an adventure
syn = EA
C I feel that travel companies just use the word eco
syn = TCWA
A It was an expensive holiday
syn = EXP

ID=036 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =M
V I like to work for the preservation of the environment
syn = ACC
C To set the environmental standards for others
syn = SFHM
C To contribute on a conservation of the area
syn = CONS
A To went for a conservation expedition
syn = SNH

ID=037 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V It is making me feel excited
syn = EXC
V I enjoy be there
syn = ENJOY
A To go to a wild place
syn = WP

ID=037 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I do not like to waste my money
syn = GVFM
C I do not trust the travel agencies information
syn = TCWA
C It was recommended to me by all my friends
syn = RECFR
A To go to see the plants and trees
syn = NA

ID=038 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I like to increase my knowledge
syn = KNOW
C I like to learn about it
syn = EELP
A To see the local culture
syn = LC
A Commercialised areas of third world
syn = TWC

ID=038 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I like to learn more about their culture
syn = KNOW
V It is attracts my interest
syn = EXC
C I admire their way of life
syn = RLPIP
A To see the way of life
syn = TNL

ID=039 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =M
V It makes me more happy
syn = HAP
C It makes me relax mentally
syn = RC
A To enjoy the scenery
syn = NA
A To go somewhere that is unique
syn = UEP

ID=039 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =M
V I care about their survival
syn = AWOB
V I enjoy doing that
syn = ENJOY
A I like to capture them on camera
syn = ORA
A To view the rare species of birds
syn = NA

ID=040 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =L
V I enjoy it
syn = ENJOY
A To do scuba diving in Belize
syn = ORA

ID=040 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =L
V I meet a lot of new people
syn = GWRO
C I am going it every time
syn = GOAGA
A To do diving
syn = ORA

ID=041 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I like to see the 'nature alive'
syn = AWOB
C Tourists may destroy them
syn = CDE
C To set the correct environmental standards
syn = SFHM
A To do a survey
syn = SNH
A To go somewhere that is not very popular
syn = SC

ID=041 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V It makes me excited
syn = EXC
C I like to go again
syn = GOAGA
C I am involve on their protection
syn = CONS
A To see the natural havens
syn = NA

ID=042 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V It was a life time dream
syn = FUL
A It was a travel to a third world country
syn = TWC
A It was an expensive holiday
syn = EXP

ID=042 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I am excited to find out
syn = EXC
C To experience the way they live
syn = EELP
A To meet local people
syn = LC
A To travel to a wild place on earth
syn = WP

ID=043 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =M
V It makes me happy
syn = HAP
V I planned to go there for a long time
syn = FUL
A To travel somewhere exotic and wild
syn = WP

ID=043 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =M
V It makes me happy
syn = HAP
C Being more adventurous
syn = EA
A To being physically active
syn = ORA
A To go somewhere that I did go before
syn = UEP

ID=044 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I enjoy it
syn = ENJOY
C To be physically fit
syn = EA
A To develop my skills and abilities
syn = ORA
A To go to remote areas
syn = SC

ID=044 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I am getting upset to see how many places are destroyed
syn = AWOB
C A chance to help the environment
syn = CONS
A Discover the world
syn = UEP

ID=045 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =L
V I had fun
syn = ENJOY
C I experience a memory that normal holigays are not going to give me
syn = LTM
C I learn so many things
syn = EEEH
A It was an expensive holiday
syn = EXP

ID=046 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V We planned to go there for a long time
syn = FUL
C My friends recommended the place to me
syn = RECFR
A To see historic places
syn = ATTR

ID=046 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V I am excited to see other ways of life
syn = EXC
C I admire these people
syn = RLPIP
A To see the local culture
syn = LC
A To go to a thirld world country
syn = TWC

ID=047 ladder # =1
AGE =5 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I appreciate the world
syn = AWOB
C To set the standards
syn = SFHM
C Contribute to the preservation of nature
syn = CONS
A Get away from civilization
syn = NA

ID=047 ladder # =2
AGE =5 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V I enjoy it
syn = ENJOY
C It makes me more active
syn = EA
A To do a horse riding
syn = ORA

ID=048 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V It makes me more happy
syn = HAP
V I Enjoy it
syn = ENJOY
A To go to have an adventure
syn = ORA

ID=048 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =M
V It will make me feel happier
syn = HAP
V It makes me excited
syn = EXC
C I like to be more adventures
syn = EA
A To go somewhere to experience risky situations
syn = ORA

ID=049 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V It makes me happy
syn = HAP
V To contribute on something
syn = ACC
C I like to set the standards by being a pionner
syn = SFHM
C I am aware of it
syn = AWE
C I am concerned that by being there I might destroyed it
syn = CDE
A To see the environment
syn = NA

ID=050 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I am concerned about its existance
syn = AWOB
C I like to see the place untouched, not polluted
syn = AWE
A It is a unique place
syn = UEP
A To study the flowers
syn = SNH

ID=050 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I do not like to spent my money
syn = GVFM
C Travel agencies do not provide enough information
syn = TCWA
C My friends told me about it
syn = RECFR
A To see different wild places
syn = WP

ID=051 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I get to know a lot of people
syn = GWRO
C I am going there every time
syn = GOAGA
C To learn about the history and culture
syn = EEH
A To see the historical attractions
syn = ATTR

ID=051 ladder # =2
AGE =3 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I appreciate their way of life
syn = AWOB
V To increase my knowledge
syn = KNOW
A To see the local culture
syn = LC

ID=052 ladder # =1
AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V To increase my knowledge about it
syn = KNOW
C I admire it
syn = RLPIP
C I like to learn their culture
syn = EELP
A To see the local culture
syn = LC

ID=052 ladder # =2
AGE =2 GENDER =M INVOL =H
V I appreciate the world we living more
syn = AWOB
V I get to learn about it
syn = KNOW
C I admire it
syn = RLPIP
A To see the cultural attractions
syn = ATTR

ID=053 ladder # =1
AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H
V To meet a lot of people
syn = GWRO
C I am going there with my friends. They told me about it
syn = RECFR
C To learn about the nature
syn = EEH
A The place where I normally go has a wild natural environment
syn = WP

ID=053 ladder # =2

AGE . =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H

C I like ecotourism holidays. I maintain the standards for other tourists

syn = SFHM

C To learn about the nature and its species

syn = EEEH

A To see the scenery

syn = NA

ID=053 ladder # =3

AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =H

V I meet lot's of people

syn = GWRO

C To have a nice memory

syn = LTM

A It is expensive holiday

syn = EXP

ID=054 ladder # =1

AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =M

V I enjoy it

syn = ENJOY

A To do outdoor activities

syn = ORA

A To go to a wild place

syn = WP

ID=054 ladder # =2

AGE =3 GENDER =F INVOL =M

V It is excites me

syn = EXC

C To have an adventure

syn = EA

A It is not that popular destination

syn = SC

A To go to a unique place

syn = UEP

ID=055 ladder # =1

AGE =2 GENDER =F INVOL =M

V Feel that I contributed to the preservation

syn = FUL

V I do not like to see it damaged

syn = AWOB

C It is an area under threat

syn = AWE

C To know more about habitants

syn = EEEH

A To see protected areas

syn = NA

APPENDIX EIGHT

OCCASIONAL ECOTOURISTS: STATISTICAL TESTS

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OVERSEAS TRAVEL MOTIVES AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between the overseas travel motives and the sociodemographic variables, a set of null hypothesis were tested (see chapter 5 and section 5.4). Selecting age, education, income, gender and level of involvement as independent variables the aim at this stage is to manifest the different preferences according to these variables. The constant review of the socio-demographics will advocate the areas where influence lies. Of course, the low reliability results ($\alpha=0.50$) did not permit such factors to have wide merit, although it can be adopted as an indication rather than conclusive remarks. Here, the disagreement answers were recorded as (1), neutral (2), agree (3), and strongly agree (4). The age, income and level of involvement classifications were computed as previously (see chapter 5). This was done to meet the conditions of the chi-square while presenting similar data. The most influential factor over the elements of the first questions was related to the age of occasional ecotourists (see table 1).

Table 1 The relationships between overseas travel motives and sociodemographics

Variables	Chi-square (χ^2)	Significance
<u>Age</u>		
Enjoy outdoor activities	20.74	$p < 0.001$
Choose the destination because it is cheap	16.41	$p < 0.01$
Environmental sensitivity of travel agent	13.85	$p < 0.01$
Go to a different place on each new holiday trip	12.65	$p < 0.01$
Importance of inexpensive air tickets	12.42	$p < 0.05$
Take short holidays abroad	11.14	$p < 0.05$
<u>Income</u>		
Choose the destination because it is cheap	14.17	$p < 0.05$
Environmental sensitivity of travel agent	11.00	$p < 0.05$
<u>Level of involvement</u>		
Going to protected areas or national parks	38.52	$p < 0.00001$
Environmental sensitivity of travel agent	23.94	$p < 0.00001$
Choose the destination because it is cheap	13.74	$p < 0.001$
<u>Education</u>		
Take holidays of two weeks or less	20.93	$p < 0.01$
<u>Gender</u>		
Environmental sensitivity of travel agent	12.38	$p < 0.005$
Go to a different place on each new holiday trip	8.58	$p < 0.01$

Age and overseas travel motives

Six overseas travel motives showed a relationship with age (see table 1). These were:

- **Outdoor-recreational activities** ($\chi^2 = 20.74$): As expected the majority of young occasional ecotourists (90.6%) sought to participate in such activities ($p < 0.001$). Indeed, such interest was likely to be essential in their pre-trip choices, *especially to young and middle-aged occasional ecotourists, and this influences their decision to visit destinations* ($p < 0.001$);
- **Cheap holiday destinations** ($\chi^2 = 16.41$): To put it more precisely all the age groups disagreed with such a search for cheap destinations ($p < 0.01$), in particular the middle (66.7%) and older (75%) aged groups. Hence, *the majority of occasional*

ecotourists did not attempt to visit cheap destinations with the slight exception of the younger group ($p < 0.01$);

- Different place on each holiday trip ($x^2 = 12.65$): In particular, 82.1% of the older-aged occasional ecotourists preferred such vacations. However, 77.6% of the young occasional ecotourists tended to consider such a factor which was less likely to be considered by the middle-aged group (65.4%). In sum, *the majority of occasional ecotourists tended to travel to different places, with the older-aged group being the pioneers of such a preference ($p < 0.01$);*
- Inexpensive air tickets ($x^2 = 12.42$). Implicit to this relationship was an indication that 73.2% of the young, and 72.8% of the middle-aged occasional ecotourists were searching for such offers ($p < 0.05$). Older-aged occasional ecotourists, on the other hand generated only a 57.1% agreement together with an illustration of 25% disagreement. This suggested *that a considerable proportion of occasional ecotourists, especially young and middle aged, spanning all age categories had a strong 'inexpensive air tickets' orientation ($p < 0.05$);*
- Consideration for environmental practices ($x^2 = 13.85$). Here, 57.3% of young occasional ecotourists seemed to search for such guidelines ($p < 0.01$). It followed that 6.5% disagreed with such a search and 36.2% had a neutral opinion. The other age groups seemed to be less keen on such a consideration. This point illustrated that *it was mainly the young people who searched for such guidelines and as an inclusion of their pre-trip motives towards ecotourism ($p < 0.01$); and*
- Participation in short eco-holidays abroad ($x^2 = 11.14$). Most of the occasional ecotourists did not really consider short trips abroad, with an exception among 46.5% of the old-aged group. Although both the young and middle-aged agreed to participate on such trips (17-34: 42.8%; 35-54: 39.5%), they demonstrated a considerable disagreement and neutral opinion. Overall, *occasional ecotourists had an average opinion for short-holidays, with the older and young groups acknowledging an interest ($p < 0.05$).*

Income and overseas travel motives

Two overseas travel motives showed a relationship with income (see table 1). These were:

- Cheap destinations ($x^2 = 14.17$). As expected, 66.7% of people with higher incomes showed a disagreement with the motive in question ($p < 0.05$). On a similar vein however, 60% of the occasional ecotourists in the medium-range revealed a similar pattern. Next, in the low range incomes there was only a 45% disagreement, a 22.5% agreement and the remaining 32.4% were indifferent. Considering that *the young occasional ecotourists generated most of the lower incomes, then their overall disagreement for a search for cheap destinations demonstrated a significant trend* ($p < 0.05$); and
- Consideration for environmental practices of the travel agents ($x^2 = 11.00$): The 53.1% of the low income groups did consider these practices together with 55.7% of the medium-income group. On the other hand, only 34.9% of the high-income earners were looking for such guidelines, with the remaining 47.0% expressing a neutral opinion. In sum, *the lower and middle-income earners considering these guidelines illustrated that the effects of low income did not control their attitude towards finding an environmentally responsible travel agency* ($p < 0.05$).

Gender, education and overseas travel motives

Two overseas travel motives showed a relationship with gender (see table 1). These were:

1. Consideration for environmental practices of the travel agents ($x^2 = 12.38$): The 55% of female occasional ecotourists seemed to agree more than males (41.1%), with the latter gender group indicating more neutral and disagreement views. *Although half of the female occasional ecotourists search for these guidelines in order to learn about environmental practices, males had a more apathetic role* ($p < 0.005$); and
2. Visits to different places ($x^2 = 8.58$): Here, the females revealed a slightly more agreeable opinion (80.7%) as opposed to their males counterparts (65.4%). This

was also highlighted by more neutral and disagreement opinions expressed by males, indicating that the female's travel-decision was not influenced by any past experiences ($p < 0.01$). It seemed that their expectations were based on the effects of past experiences in the form of satisfaction with eco-holidays, not with destination loyalty. *Visits to a different place, by both gender groups was seen as a process of increasing their overall knowledge and satisfaction from an eco-holiday ($p < 0.01$).*

One overseas travel motive showed a relationship with education (see table 1). This was:

1. Duration of eco-holidays abroad ($\chi^2 = 20.93$): In particular 50% of occasional ecotourists with a first degree, 49.1% with a secondary education and 39.2% of people with a postgraduate qualification tended to take holidays of more than two weeks ($p < 0.01$). On the other hand, the only clear indication of occasional ecotourists who took holidays of less than two weeks were those with an HND/Diploma (55.5%). However, 43.1% of occasional ecotourists with a postgraduate qualification, and 41.8% with a secondary education also took holidays of two weeks or less. Overall, *the results suggested that occasional ecotourists with a first degree and secondary education had an average opinion of taking holidays more than two weeks. Diploma/HND and postgraduate holders tended to visit destinations for less than two weeks ($p < 0.001$).*

Levels of involvement and overseas motives

Three overseas travel motives showed a relationship with levels of involvement (see table 1). These were:

- Visits to national parks and protected areas ($\chi^2 = 38.52$): Here, 67.6% of the high involvement group visited these natural attractions, as opposed to 21.6% of the medium-involvement group. On the other hand, medium-involved occasional ecotourists tended to have a neutral opinion (54.9%) illustrating their undecided view. Clearly, *the high-involvement group of occasional ecotourists represented a distinct segment of the natural-based tourism market, in terms of provision of an*

opportunity to experience the natural areas during their pre-trip, rather than their on-trip holiday choices. The preference of the medium-involvement group however, did not include this motive during decision making prior to travel ($p < 0.00005$);

- Search for environmental practices of travel agents ($\chi^2 = 23.94$): The 56.2% of the high-involved occasional ecotourists searched for such practices, followed by 36.1% with a neutral opinion. In contrast, 21.6% of the medium-involvement group agreed with such a search and 52.9% stated a neutral opinion. It was clear from these results, *that the high-involvement group searched for such 'green' practices, while the medium group did not consider such practices* ($p < 0.005$; and.
- Cheap destination's ($\chi^2 = 13.74$): The 59.3% of high-involvement occasional ecotourists were not choosing the less costly destinations. The 41.2% of the medium-involvement group showed a clear disagreement, followed by 45.1% with neutral opinions and only 13.7% with an agreement. Although both groups tended to disagree with such motives, *the high-involvement group generated more responses of not visiting such destinations* ($p < 0.005$). *Undoubtedly, these findings confirmed that 'cheap' destinations were not the most common motive for natural-based tourism experiences.*

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELEMENTS OF AN ECOTOURISM HOLIDAYS AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between the ecotourism elements (dependent variables), and selected sociodemographics (age, education, income, gender, and involvement) a number of hypothesis were tested based on the same computations which were recorded in overseas travel motives (see chapter 5, sections 5.4). The most influential variables over the elements of this question related to the income of the occasional ecotourists, followed by the levels of involvement, age or gender and education (see tables 1, 2). *It is quite interesting to note at this stage that all the relationships of the levels of involvement only concerned the natural-oriented elements*, outlining the importance of involvement in the selection of ecotourism holidays (see table 1).

Income and elements of an ecotourism holidays

Ten elements of an ecotourism holidays showed a relationship with income (see table 1). These were:

- Being with others who enjoyed the same ($\chi^2=40.26$): Here, from the 41.3% of the people who agreed, 55.9% were in the low category, 20.6% in the middle and 23.5% in the high income group. Similar observations were outlined with the strongly agree and neutral opinions. Overall, the evidence suggested that *low income earning occasional ecotourists value socialising with others who shared the same interests* ($p<0.00001$);
- Inexpensive entrance fees to national parks ($\chi^2=19.07$): Of the 43.3% of occasional ecotourists who shared a neutral opinion, 44.9% were in the low category, 29.9% were in the middle and 25.2% were in the high income category. Next, of the 27.5% of people who showed a disagreement, the majority were in the high-income range (44.1%), followed by low (32.4%) and middle income-ranges (23.5%). Of the occasional ecotourists who agreed to inexpensive entrance fees to national parks (29.1%), the majority of them were low-income earners, followed by middle and high. This suggested that there was an equal progression where *people with more incomes were searching less for inexpensive entrances* ($p<0.005$);

Table 1 The relationships between elements of an ecotourism holiday and sociodemographics

Variables	Chi-square (χ^2)	Significance
<u>Age</u>		
Develop my skills and abilities	43.66	$p < 0.00001$
Become more energetic	38.83	$p < 0.00001$
Outdoor recreational activities	31.95	$p < 0.00005$
Enjoy the tour guides in the natural areas	30.63	$p < 0.00005$
To be with others who enjoy the same	21.86	$p < 0.005$
Go to local festivals and events	15.44	$p < 0.05$
Enjoy the lakes and streams	12.39	$p < 0.1$
<u>Education</u>		
To be with others who enjoyed the same	21.93	$p < 0.01$
Intend to study and admire an undisturbed area	18.48	$p < 0.05$
Visit the national parks	15.36	$p < 0.1$
<u>Gender</u>		
Visits to cultural attractions	11.90	$p < 0.01$
Go to local festivals and events	10.61	$p < 0.05$
Experiencing new and different lifestyles	9.15	$p < 0.05$
Enjoy the guided tours in the natural areas	8.99	$p < 0.05$
Experience the tranquillity	7.51	$p < 0.1$
Explore the area and be educated	7.40	$p < 0.1$
To be with others who enjoyed the same	6.51	$p < 0.1$
<u>Income</u>		
To be with others who enjoyed the same	40.26	$p < 0.00001$
Inexpensive entrance fees to national parks	19.07	$p < 0.005$
Visit cultural attractions	17.53	$p < 0.01$
Outdoor recreational activities	16.64	$p < 0.05$
Go to local festivals and events	16.61	$p < 0.05$
Explore the area and be educated	14.52	$p < 0.05$
Visit the national parks	13.58	$p < 0.05$
Become more energetic	12.10	$p < 0.1$
Shop in the local stores	11.63	$p < 0.1$
Experiencing new and different lifestyles	11.43	$p < 0.1$

Table 2 The relationships between ecotourism elements and involvement

Variables	Chi-square (χ^2)	Significance
Level of involvement		
Intend to study and admire an undisturbed area	55.63	$p < 0.00001$
Visit the national parks	36.48	$p < 0.00001$
Be in an undisturbed natural area	35.77	$p < 0.00001$
Enjoy the lakes and streams	27.14	$p < 0.00001$
Opportunities to increase one's knowledge	24.79	$p < 0.00005$
Interested in rural countryside	20.59	$p < 0.001$
Develop my skills and abilities	13.71	$p < 0.005$
Enjoy the guided tours in the natural areas	13.00	$p < 0.005$
Experience the tranquillity	12.72	$p < 0.01$
Experiencing new and different lifestyles	8.69	$p < 0.05$

- Visits to cultural attractions ($\chi^2=17.53$): The 77.5% of the low income earners showed a form of agreement, 71.4% of the middle and 68.2% of the higher income earners revealed a similar response. This illustrated that all the *income groups were likely to visit the cultural attractions, although the low income earners slightly favored such visits* ($p < 0.01$);
- Outdoor recreational activities ($\chi^2= 16.64$): Here, 76.6% of the low income earners showed a form of agreement, as did 71.4% with middle incomes and 68.2% with higher incomes. These results suggested that *that the existing number of occasional ecotourists took part in outdoor activities, and of these it was occasional ecotourists with more income who were less likely to partake in outdoor activities* ($p < 0.05$);
- Going to festivals and events ($\chi^2=16.61$): Here, 65.7% of the low income earners showed a form of agreement, as did 55.7% of the middle-incomes and 34.8% of the higher-income earners ($p < 0.05$). This illustrated the same observation which occurred in the last two examples. Occasional ecotourists with low incomes were more likely to take part in different activities *of the ecotourism product, such as visits to festivals/events, as opposed to the other income categories* ($p < 0.05$);
- Exploration of an area and be educated ($\chi^2=14.52$): From the 111 occasional ecotourists with low incomes, 86.5% showed an agreement, from 70 people with middle incomes, 80% agreed, and from 66 people with higher incomes, 89%

showed a similar response ($n=59$). *All the income earners would more or less undertake the core elements of the ecotourism product experience process, (exploration of the area and be educated), although occasional ecotourists with higher incomes had a slightly higher propensity to do so ($p<0.05$);*

- Becoming more energetic ($\chi^2=12.10$): Out of the 36.4% who agreed, 46.7% were in the low-income bracket, 30.0% in the higher-income range, and 23.3% in the middle-income range. Both on the strongly agree and neutral sides, *the primary group was the lower income earners, followed by middle and higher ($p<0.1$);*
- Shopping in the local stores ($\chi^2=11.63$): Out of the 33.2% who indicated a neutral opinion, 45.1% had low incomes, 34.1% had high incomes, and 20.7% were in the middle income bracket. Approximately a quarter of the sample (29.1%) disagreed, and of these 37.5% were in low category, 31.9% in the middle, and 30.6% in the high. Quite interestingly however, from the 26.7% of occasional ecotourists who agreed to shopping in local enterprises, half of them were in the low income category (50.0%), followed by middle (28.8 %) and high categories (21.2%) [$p<0.1$]; and
- Experience of new and different lifestyles ($\chi^2=11.43$): From the 47.8% of the respondents who indicated an agreement to the statement, 39.8% were in the low income range, followed by 34.7% in the high, and 25.4% in the middle income range. From the 37.7% of the sample who strongly agreed, 51.6% had low incomes, 33.3% in the middle income bracket and 15.1% in the high ($p<0.1$).

In conclusion, these findings clearly reflected the sample distribution in which the majority of the people were in the low income category. Quite interestingly however, from all the examined elements low-income occasional ecotourists seemed to be the leading group. Low income occasional ecotourists gave a particular emphasis to the social and activity components of ecotourism holidays. Their sensitivity over certain financial constraints was fully justified, although it seemed that even in cases where the price-orientated motives were brought into the equation, (i.e. shop in the local stores, fees), the low income earners were the primary group to respond to such elements. This suggests a more general trend was observed for an overseas travel motives, and that the constraints involving finances may operate differently when going on

ecotourism holidays. Occasional ecotourists in all income categories however expressed their understanding of the core element of the ecotourism holiday, *illustrating that ecotourism holidays were considered as a learning experience.*

Level of involvement and elements of ecotourism holidays

Ten elements of an ecotourism holidays showed a relationship with levels of involvement (see table 2). These were:

1. Intention to study and admire an undisturbed area ($\chi^2= 55.63$): From the 48.6% of the people who agreed with this educational learning experience, 89.1% were in the high-involvement category and the remaining 10.9% in the medium category. A similar observation was noted amongst those who strongly agreed (24.5%), of which 91.7% were assigned to the high-involvement group and a minor 8.3% to the medium group. *This indicated that it was the high-involvement occasional ecotourists who were likely to undertake such natural based experiences* ($p<0.00001$).
2. Visits to national parks ($\chi^2=36.48$): From the 51.4% of occasional ecotourists who agreed, 85.7% were in the high involvement category. A similar opinion was shared by 26.9% who chose the neutral opinion (high: 62.1% versus medium: 37.9%) and by 18.4% who strongly agreed (95.6% versus 4.4% respectively) ($p<0.00001$);
3. Being in an undisturbed natural area ($\chi^2= 35.77$). Here 84.7% of the total 53.5% who agreed was allocated to the high involvement group, and of the total 22.4% who strongly agreed, 94.5% was registered by the high involved occasional ecotourists ($p<0.00001$);
4. Enjoyment of the lakes and streams ($\chi^2= 27.14$): From the 48.2% of people who agreed, the majority were in the high-involvement category (88.1%), and from the 19.6% who strongly agreed, a similar proportion was also indicated by the high involvement group (87.5%). Quite interestingly however, from almost a quarter of respondents indicating a neutral opinion, 64.2% were in the high involvement and the remaining 35.8% in the medium.

These results led to the conclusion that high- involved occasional ecotourists were particularly keen on enjoying areas of natural beauty, in this case the lakes and streams ($p < 0.00005$);

5. Opportunities to increase one's knowledge ($\chi^2=24.79$): Here, 51.0% of respondents agreed and a further 32.7% strongly agreed. In both cases, high-involved occasional ecotourists occupied the largest share (80 % versus 91.3%, respectively). On the other hand, however, medium-involved occasional ecotourists illustrated a more neutral opinion (48.6%) towards such a statement. In all the cases, *high-involved occasional ecotourists appeared to have a major interest in natural-orientated attributes, particularly on issues regarding educational experiences ($p < 0.00005$);*
6. Interests in rural countryside was rejected ($\chi^2=20.59$): From the total 74.3% who showed a form of agreement, high-involved occasional ecotourists dominated this opinion (agree: 82.8%; strongly agreed: 90 %). Medium-involved occasional ecotourists had a few agreeable opinions, in turn the majority of them illustrated a neutral opinion (32.7%). Thus, *visits to such areas were likely to be dominated mainly by high-involved occasional ecotourists rather than the medium involved occasional ecotourists ($p < 0.001$);*
7. Developing their skills and abilities ($\chi^2=13.71$): Although the majority of the sample indicated an agreement (agree: 31%; strongly agree: 16.7%), and with high-involved occasional ecotourists monopolizing this result (agree: 81.6%; strongly agree: 95.1%), a significant proportion of them also outlined a neutral opinion. From the 34.7% who had an average opinion, 77.6% were in the high-involvement category, suggesting that developing skills as a *result of active recreation was in the vicinity of an average opinion ($p < 0.0005$);*
8. Enjoying the tour guides in the natural area ($\chi^2=13.00$): From, the 38.0% who answered with a neutral opinion, 77.4% were in the high category. The agreeable opinions were also dominated by the high-involvement group as well as the disagreement. From the 22% who disagreed 64.8% were high-involved occasional ecotourists. Overall, *this attribute was not so popular, but in cases where it was undertaken, it was mainly done so by high-involved occasional ecotourists ($p < 0.0005$);*

9. Experience the tranquillity ($\chi^2=12.72$): The 45.3% agreed (high: 78.4%; medium: 21.6%) and 26.5% strongly agreed (high 92.3%; medium: 7.7%) illustrating that *such an experience was mainly undertaken by high-involved occasional ecotourists* ($p<0.01$); and
10. Experience new and different lifestyles ($\chi^2=8.69$): The 86.3% of the total medium-involvement occasional ecotourists showed a form of agreement in comparison to 85% of the high-involvement group. This illustrated that *both involvement groups tended to emphasize the social component of ecotourism* ($p<0.05$).

Gender and elements of ecotourism holidays

Ten elements of an ecotourism holidays showed a relationship with gender (see table 1). These were:

- Visits to cultural attractions ($\chi^2=11.90$): Overall, 78.7% of the female sample showed a form of agreement as did 65.4% of the males. *This suggested that it was the female occasional ecotourists who tended to visit cultural attractions* ($p<0.01$);
- Going to festivals and events ($\chi^2=10.61$): The 61.4% of the female sample showed a form of agreement, 30 % had neutral opinions and the remaining females disagreed. In contrast, 45.7% of the male sample showed an agreement, 38.3% had neutral opinions and the remaining men disagreed. *This suggested that it was the female occasional ecotourists who tended to go to festivals and events* ($p<0.05$);
- New and different lifestyles ($\chi^2=9.15$): The 87.8% of the total females and 82.2% of the total males showed a form of agreement. *This suggested that those most interested in the social component of the ecotourism product tended to be females, however males were more eager to experience different lifestyles than they were to enjoying certain festivities* ($p<0.05$);
- Enjoy the guided tours in the natural areas ($\chi^2= 8.99$). This element advocated a neutral opinion, of which from the 38.1% answering as such, males indicated slightly more answers (Females: 48.9%; Males: 51.1%). From the 31.6% who agreed, 59% were females and 41% were males. On the other hand, from the 22.3% of people who disagreed 56.4% were females, illustrating that this element

attracted mixed views, *although of the occasional ecotourists who enjoyed the guided tours, the majority of them tended to be females* ($p < 0.05$);

- Experience the tranquillity ($\chi^2 = 7.51$): The 77.1% of females and 65.4% of the males sample shared a form of agreement, *suggesting that females were more enthusiastic about experiencing the tranquillity of the natural areas* ($p < 0.1$);
- Explore the area and be educated ($\chi^2 = 7.40$): Here, 85% of males and 85.7% of the female sample showed a form of agreement. *This core element of the ecotourism experience product process was a characteristic of both groups* ($p < 0.1$); and
- To be with others who enjoy the same ($\chi^2 = 6.51$): From the 41.3% who agreed, 59.8% were females, and 40.2% males. From, 27.9% who showed a neutral opinion, 47.8% were females, 52.2% were males. From, 17.4% who strongly agreed, 69.8% were females and 30.2% were males. *This reinforced the evidence that showed females as being more attracted to the social elements examined in this section* ($p < 0.1$).

Age and elements of ecotourism holidays

Seven variables which showed a relationship with age (see table 1). These were:

- Developing skills and abilities ($\chi^2 = 43.66$): The 62.3% of the younger-aged [17-34], 35.8% of middle-aged [35-54] and 10.7% of the older-aged groups [55+] shared a type of agreement. This suggested that *developing skills and abilities was only being considered by the young occasional ecotourists* ($p < 0.00001$);
- Becoming more energetic ($\chi^2 = 38.83$). The 72.5% of the younger-aged [17-34], 44.4% of middle-aged [35-54] and a 21.5% of the older-aged group [55+] shared a type of agreement. This outlined that *becoming more energetic was considered more by young occasional ecotourists, as opposed to the other age groups* ($p < 0.00001$);
- outdoor recreational activities ($\chi^2 = 31.95$): The 83.3% of the younger-aged [17-34], 65.4% of middle-aged [35-54], and 43% of the older-aged group [55+] shared a type of agreement. *As expected, outdoor recreational activities were taken by young and middle-aged occasional ecotourists* ($p < 0.00005$);

- Guided tours in the natural area ($\chi^2=30.63$): In particular, 31.2% of the younger-aged [17-34], 43.2% of middle-aged [35-54] and 71.4% of the older-aged group [55+] shared a type of agreement. Overall, *evidence highlighted that tour guides were mainly undertaken by older people, as opposed to the middle and young-aged groups of occasional ecotourists* ($p<0.00005$);
- Being with others who enjoy the same ($\chi^2=21.86$): In particular, if actual respondents were taken into consideration, 94 young occasional ecotourists [17-34] and 18 older people [55+] answered with a form of agreement, highlighting their positive intentions (Total 17-34: 138; Total 55+: 28). The middle-aged group of occasional ecotourists tended to reveal more neutral and disagreement views [Neutral: 28 people; Disagreement: 20 people] showing their lack of interest (Total 35-54: 81). The results suggested that it was mainly the *young and older-aged group of occasional ecotourists who indicated an intention for this form of social interaction* ($p<0.005$);
- Going to festivals and events ($\chi^2=15.44$): The 61.6% of the younger-aged [17-34], 47% of middle-aged [35-54] and a 43% of the older-aged group [55+] shared a type of agreement. This of course *did necessarily implied that the middle and older-aged occasional ecotourists were not interested in going to cultural events, rather it implied that the majority of them were not so keen to do so* ($p<0.05$); and
- Enjoyment of lakes and streams ($\chi^2=12.39$). The 63% of the younger-aged [17-34], 66% of middle-aged [35-54], and 92% of the older-aged group [55+] shared a type of agreement. It seemed that it was a *priority of the older occasional ecotourists, as the majority of them agreed to enjoying such natural attractions* ($p<0.1$).

Education and elements of ecotourism holidays

There were three variables which were related with the education (see table 1):

- Being with others who enjoy the same ($\chi^2=21.93$): From the total sample, 76.4% with a secondary education, 44.4% with a Diploma, 60.5% with a degree, and 43.1% with a postgraduate qualification shared a kind of agreement. This illustrated *that occasional ecotourists with a secondary education and a degree were tempted to be with other people with the same interests* ($p<0.01$);

- Intention to study and admire an undisturbed area ($\chi^2=18.48$): From the total sample, 61.8% with a secondary education, 55.5% with a Diploma, 81.6% with a degree, and 76.5% with a postgraduate qualification shared a kind of agreement. The result *indicated that occasional ecotourists had a sound educational status and that people with a degree and postgraduate qualification were supporters of this attribute* ($p<0.05$); and
- Visits to the national parks ($\chi^2=18.49$): From the total sample, 65.5% with a secondary education, 70.3% with a Diploma, 81.6% with a degree, and 74.5% with a postgraduate qualification shared a kind of agreement. Similarly, *as with the last relationship all the occasional ecotourists tended to respond to such visits, especially the degree and postgraduate holders* ($p<0.1$).

FACTOR LOADINGS-ECOTOURISM ELEMENTS

Certain items of an ecotourism elements showed relationships with more than one factor (see chapter 5, table 5.7). For instance, 'undisturbed areas' with Factor 3 (0.36), 'tour guides' with Factor 4 (0.42), 'meeting new people' with Factor 2 (0.47), 'festivals and events' with Factor 5 (0.43), 'explore the area and be educated' with Factor 1 (0.34) and Factor 3 (0.42), 'intent to study and admire and undisturbed area' with Factor 1 (0.37), 'develop skills and abilities' with Factor 5 (0.40), 'shop in local stores' with Factor 2 (0.40), 'cheap fees in national parks' with Factor 5, all an indication that to an extent these elements were considered at more than one component of the ecotourism product.

ONE-WAY ANOVA

A one-way Anova aims to reveal the systematic differences between the sample means or by testing the null hypothesis if the group difference occurred by chance. Here, the dependent variables were the clusters, and the independent variables were all the elements of ecotourism (see chapter 5, section 5.10). In this instance, the F-ratio was considered and values larger than 1.00 are of significance, pinpointed also by F-probability. In cases of the F-ratio containing values around 1.00, the null hypothesis was true and the differences between the means were random variations.

In order to reveal certain differences among the variables within the clusters, the use of Duncan's Multiple Range test within the one-way Anova procedure was performed in order to identify pairs of clusters with significantly different (at .05) mean importance ratings for each element of ecotourism elements. It is worth noting that all the F-ratio have values of more than one, pointing the significance of the difference.

All four clusters had significant ratings for the variable 'meeting new and different people' with Cluster 4 having the highest and Cluster 1 the lowest (F-ratio=23,2139; F-Probability= 0.0000) [see table 5.11]. Clusters 1, 2, and 4 rated the agreement of 'intend to study and admire an undisturbed area' higher than cluster 3, highlighting that more than one segment was considered in this element (F-ratio=27,3035; F-Probability= 0.0000).

Clusters 4, 1 and 2 rated the 'interest in rural countryside' significantly higher than cluster 3 (F-ratio=41,0101; F-Probability= 0.0000). Similarly, clusters 4, 1, and 2 rated the 'experience of tranquillity' significantly higher than cluster 3 (F-ratio=30,4137; F-Probability= 0.0000). Clusters 4 and 2 rated the agreement to 'visit cultural attractions' higher than cluster 1 and 3 did (F-ratio=23,1468; F-Probability= 0.0000).

'Experiencing new and different lifestyles' was significantly more important to clusters 2, 3, and 4, than for cluster 1 (F-ratio=30,5526; F-Probability= 0.0000). The variable 'explore the area and be educated' was significantly more important to clusters 1, 2, and 4, than it was to cluster 3 (F-ratio=28,7967; F-Probability= 0.0000). Only clusters

3 and 4 highly rated the element 'to become more energetic' (F-ratio=31,1282; F-Probability= 0.0000).

Clusters 1,2 and 4 rated 'to enjoy the lakes and streams' higher than Cluster 3 (F-ratio=3,9403; F-Probability= 0.0000). Only Cluster 4 highly rated the importance 'to be with others who enjoy the same' (F-ratio=23,4267; F-Probability= 0.0000). Clusters 2 and 3 rated the importance to 'go to festivals and events' higher than all the remaining clusters did (F-ratio=54,8491; F-Probability= 0.0000). 'Enjoy the weather' was more important to clusters 4 and 2, than the other two clusters (F-ratio=11,8129; F-Probability= 0.0000).

Only clusters 2, 3, and 4 rated the importance of 'outdoor recreational activities' with cluster 4 having the highest score and cluster 3 the lowest (F-ratio=8,7096; F-Probability= 0.0000). Cluster 4 rated 'visits to national parks' higher than clusters 1 and 2, with cluster 3 significantly lower (F-ratio=27,0172; F-Probability= 0.0000). 'To rest and relax physically' was shared only with clusters 2 and 4 (F-ratio=15,3061; F-Probability= 0.0000). Cluster 4 highly rated 'to develop my skills and abilities' (F-ratio=17,2012; F-Probability= 0.0000) and 'inexpensive entrance fees to national parks' (F-ratio=34,4816; F-Probability= 0.0000) as opposed to the other clusters.

'Being in an undisturbed areas' scored higher in clusters 4, 1, and 2, than it did in cluster 3 (F-ratio=26,5081; F-Probability= 0.0000). Cluster 4 highly rated 'to shop in local stores' (F-ratio=37,5550; F-Probability= 0.0000) and 'to enjoy the tour guides in the natural area' (F-ratio=42,5320; F-Probability= 0.0000), than all the other clusters. Finally, clusters 4, 2, and 1 shared similar higher scores on the opportunities to increase one's knowledge' than did cluster 3 (F-ratio=28,9683; F-Probability= 0.0000). This suggested that the educational experience was shared amongst more than one segment, illustrating that occasional ecotourists treated these holidays, more as a learning process rather than something related to enjoyment.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VALUES AND SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between the list of values and the five selected sociodemographics, a number of null hypothesis were tested. Initially, both the dependent (values) and independent (levels of involvement, age, income, education, and gender) variables, were subject to a number of computations (see chapter 5 and section 5.4). Overall, the results illustrated that the levels of involvement, age and income had a major impact upon the values. Three values, excitement, warm relationships with others and self-respect, were common to the last mentioned socio-demographics variables (see table 1). This indicated that there was a clear influence from a combination of socio-demographic criteria on a number of values, observed in most of the examined independent variables except in the case of gender which only forms a relationship with a sense of belonging (see table 1).

Levels of involvement and values

Seven values showed a relationship with levels of involvement. These were (see table 1):

1. Excitement ($x^2 = 40.07$): From the 43.3% of the people who strongly agreed, 91.5% were in the high involvement category, and from the 40.4% who agreed, 79.8% were also in the high involvement category. Both neutral opinions and disagreement were selected by the medium-involvement group. This indicated that *it was the high-involved occasional ecotourists who are inspired by the value of excitement* ($p < 0.00001$);
2. Self-fulfillment ($x^2 = 36.29$): From the 44.1% who agreed, 79.6% were high-involved occasional ecotourists, whereas from 35.9% who strongly agreed, 93.2% were in the high involvement, *all in favor of the high involvement group* ($p < 0.00001$);
3. Fun and enjoyment in life ($x^2 = 33.29$): From the 44.1% who strongly agreed, 93.5% were in the high involvement and out of the total 39.6% who agreed,

73.2% were in the high involvement, *all in favor of the high involvement group* ($p < 0.00001$);

4. Sense of accomplishment ($\chi^2 = 30.68$): From the 43.7% who strongly agreed, 92.5% were high involved occasional ecotourists and from the 39.2% who agreed, 75% were also in the high involvement, *all in favor of the high involvement group* ($p < 0.00001$);

Table 1 The relationship between values and sociodemographics

Variables	Chi-square (χ^2)	Significance
<u>Level of involvement</u>		
Excitement	40.07	$p < 0.00001$
Self-fulfillment	36.29	$p < 0.00001$
Fun and enjoyment in life	33.29	$p < 0.00001$
Sense of accomplishment	30.68	$p < 0.00001$
Self-respect	11.06	$p < 0.05$
Warm relationship with others	8.66	$p < 0.05$
Being well respected	7.69	$p < 0.1$
<u>Age</u>		
Excitement	20.16	$p < 0.005$
Warm relationship with others	18.97	$p < 0.005$
Security	15.42	$p < 0.05$
Fun and enjoyment in life	13.75	$p < 0.05$
Self-respect	11.80	$p < 0.1$
<u>Income</u>		
Warm relationship with others	15.93	$p < 0.05$
Security	15.72	$p < 0.05$
Excitement	15.13	$p < 0.05$
Self-respect	14.50	$p < 0.05$
Being well respected	14.23	$p < 0.05$
<u>Education</u>		
Self-respect	15.29	$p < 0.1$
<u>Gender</u>		
Sense of belonging	6.51	$p < 0.1$

Next to these values were a three other relationships, but these were not resilient enough to favor the high-involved occasional ecotourists:

1. Self-respect ($x^2=11.06$): From the 35.1% of people who agreed, 88.4% were in the high involvement, whereas from the 40.8% with a neutral opinion, 70% were also high-involved occasional ecotourists;
2. Warm relationship with others ($x^2=8.66$): Here, from 38.4% of people who agreed, 81.9% were in high involvement, and from the 26.9% who strongly agreed, 87.9% were in high involvement, and from 20% with a neutral opinion, 71.4% were in high involvement; and
3. Levels of involvement and being well respected ($x^2=7.69$): From the 38.8% of occasional ecotourists with a neutral opinion, 72.6% were in high involvement, from the 27.8% of the sample who revealed a form of disagreement, 86.8% were also in the high involvement category.

These results prompt the conclusion that high-involved occasional ecotourists seemed to advocate warm relationships with others but their reference to the respect-driven values are not of particular importance ($p<0.05$). *This indicated that high-involved individuals were not lacking in self-esteem and were concerned about the opinion of others (i.e. being well respected), in turn they were expressive, unconventional and seek autonomy in many aspects of their holidays (i.e. fun and enjoyment, excitement). In all the cases, they participate in ecotourism holidays as a means to indicate their achievement and enjoyment values, suggesting that they were internally motivated ($p<0.00001$).*

Age and values

Five values showed a relationship with age (see table 1). These were:

- Excitement ($x^2=20.16$): From the 43.3% of people who strongly agreed, 69.2% were in the young age range, 26.2% were middle-aged, and 4.7% older-aged. Out of the 40.5% conceding an agreement, 50% were in the young age group, 33% middle-aged and 17% in the older category. This suggested that the *value of*

excitement was considered by all age groups, but was especially referenced by young occasional ecotourists ($p < 0.005$);

- Warm relationship with others ($\chi^2 = 18.97$): Here, from the 38.5% who agreed 58.9% were young-aged, 30.5% were middle-aged and 10.5% were older. From the 27.1% who strongly-agreed, 71.6% were young-aged and 16.4% were middle-aged and 11.9% were older. However, of the people who showed a form of disagreement and neutral opinion the majority of them were middle-aged, *indicating that warm relationships with others was a characteristic of the young and older-aged occasional ecotourists ($p < 0.005$);*
- Security ($\chi^2 = 15.42$): Here, from the 35.2% of people with a neutral opinion, 52.9% were in the young age group, 39.1% the middle age group, and 8% in the older age group. From 29.6% of the people who showed a form of disagreement, 60.3% were young, 31.5% were middle-aged, and 8.2% were older. This indicated that *people who had the security value were older, which emphasised the link from security aspects of the ecotourism experience process in forming emotions and memories such as safety from crime, and ability to walk and stroll safely ($p < 0.05$);*
- Fun and enjoyment in life ($\chi^2 = 13.75$): From the 44.1% of the people who strongly agreed, 61.5% were young, 32.1% were middle-aged and 6.4% were older. From the 39.7% of people who agreed, 58.2% were young, 28.6% were middle-aged and 13.3% were older. Consequently, *all age groups were interested in forming relationships, especially the young and middle-aged occasional ecotourists ($p < 0.05$); and*
- Self-respect ($\chi^2 = 11.80$): It is predominantly the young occasional ecotourists who prioritised the respect-driven value, and from the total 138 people in this category, 51.5% ($n = 71$) shared a form of agreement. Conversely, middle and older-aged respondents indicated mainly a neutral opinion and disagreement ($p < 0.1$). In all instances however, the value of *self-respect was not a primary value facilitated by occasional ecotourists ($p < 0.1$).*

Income and values

Five relationships showed a relationship with income (see table 1). These were:

- Warm relationships with others ($\chi^2 = 15.93$): From the 38.5% of the people who agreed, 38.9% were in the low-income range, 29.5% were in the mid-income range, and 31.6% in the high income range. From the 27.1% of the people who strongly agreed, 64.2% were low earners, 20.9% were mid-range income earners, and 14.9% in the high-range of incomes. In all the combinations, *warm relationships with others was considered by all income earners especially those in the low and high income categories* ($p < 0.05$);
- Security ($\chi^2 = 15.72$): Here, from the 35.2% with a neutral opinion, 36.8% were in the low income range, 28.7% in the mid-income range, and 34.5% had high incomes. Out of the total 29.6% who disagreed, 42.5% were in the low income category, 23.3% in the mid and 34.2% in the high-income range. It appeared then, *that the security value did not attract any particular income group* ($p < 0.05$); and
- Excitement produced a different relationship ($\chi^2 = 15.13$): From the 43.3% of people who strongly agreed, 57% were in the low-income range, 22.4% in the mid-range, and 20.6% in the high-range. Similarly, from the 40.5% of people who agreed, 36% were in low, 29% in mid and 35% in high-income ranges. Unlike other values *ecotourism holidays induced a type of excitement which was derived from its five components of: natural attractions; cultural/social with educational orientation; educational; relaxation and outdoors* ($p < 0.05$).

Finally the remaining two relationships with income illustrated that the *respect-driven values were not represented by any particular income group*, but in cases where it was considered it is mainly done so by low income earners ($p < 0.05$):

- a) Self-respect ($\chi^2 = 14.50$): From the 40.9% of the people with a neutral opinion, 37.6% were low-income earners, 25.7% were mid-income earners, and 36.6% were high-income earners. Out of the total 34.8% of the people who agreed, 48.8% were low-income earners, 32.6% were mid-income earners, and 18.6% were high-income earners; and

- b) Being well respected ($x^2=14.23$): From the 38.9% with a neutral opinion, 47.9% were in the low-range of incomes, 26% in the middle range and 26% in the high range. From 27.5% disagreement, 33.8% were in the low-income category, 27.9% in the middle-income range and 38.2% in the high-income range.

Education, gender and values

There was one value which was related to education (see table 1):

- Self-respect ($x^2=15.29$): Of the total 40.9% of occasional ecotourists who shared a neutral opinion, 24.8% had a secondary education, 10.9% were HND/Diploma holders, 35.6% were degree graduates, and 28.9% were postgraduates. Next, of the 34.8% of people who agreed, 22.1% had a secondary education, 12.8% had an HND/Diploma, 50% held a degree, and 15.1% a postgraduate qualification. This suggested that *self-respect was not really influenced by any particular educational level, but in cases where it was considered it was done so mainly by HND/Diploma and degree holders* ($p<0.1$).

Finally, there was one value which was related with gender (see table 1):

- Sense of belonging ($x^2= 6.51$): Here, from the 107 male occasional ecotourists, 66.4% shared a form of agreement in getting such a value. Conversely, from 140 female occasional ecotourists, 51.5% indicated a form of agreement. These results suggested that it was the *male occasional ecotourists who considered the sense of belonging and dependency on others* ($p<0.1$).

ONE WAY ANOVA

A one-way Anova procedure revealed that the value of 'self-respect' had the highest rating in cluster 3 than in the other two clusters (F-ratio= 50,5176; F-probability=0.0000). Clusters 2, and 3 rated the value of 'self-fulfillment' higher than cluster 1, pointing out that this value is considered in more than one segment (F-ratio= 64,7688; F-probability=0.0000).

Similarly, clusters 2, and 3 rated the value of 'sense of accomplishment' significantly higher than cluster 1 (F-ratio= 72,2368; F-probability=0.0000). The value of 'being well respected' was important to cluster 3, than to clusters 1 and 2 (F-ratio= 98,8258; F-probability=0.0000). Clusters 2 and 3 rated the importance of 'fun and enjoyment in life' higher than in cluster 1 (F-ratio= 73,0992; F-probability=0.0000).

The value of 'excitement' appeared to be significant in all the clusters, with the highest score in cluster 2 and the lowest score in cluster 1 (F-ratio= 57,3300; F-probability=0.0000). Finally, the following values were only significantly higher in cluster 3, than they were in the other clusters.:

- 'sense of belonging' (F-ratio= 65,6492; F-probability=0.0000);
- 'warm relationships with others' (F-ratio=77,0267; F-probability=0.0000); and
- 'security' (F-ratio= 62,3808; F-probability=0.0000).

APPENDIX NINE

THE FREQUENT ECOTOURIST'S INVOLVEMENT PROFILE: A QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

AN ANALYSIS OF MALE AND FEMALE MEDIUM AND HIGH-INVOLVED FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS

The analysis of male and female medium and high-involved frequent ecotourists will present their HVM's in an attempt to pinpoint the structural linkages and subsequently capture all the differences between these groups. The medium-involvement cognitive maps of females (n=14) and males (n= 8) represented all possible connections (100%) with a cut-off value of two (see figures 1a, 1b). The high-involvement cognitive maps for females (n=14) and males (n=12) outlined a similar relationship with an identical cut-off value (see figures 2a, 2b). At this stage, it is worth also noting that some of the items appearing on the maps had a value of one. This means that only one respondent revealed that item. For the purpose of this part of the analysis, items mentioned more than once are going to be elaborated. Hence, the process of comparisons with the previous stages of the analysis can be equally featured.

In addition to the pursuit of comparisons of involvement profiles, this section aims to underline that when the involvement effects are taken into consideration, the gender profiles are not only presented in more depth but identify the levels (i.e. medium) that the different characteristics of frequent ecotourists outline.

In doing so the simultaneous analysis of the -2 Log Likelihood (content) and the structural linkages will occur. The other methods of the empirical qualitative analysis, notably the Scheffe test and the dimensionality, relatedness and centrality have been excluded in this part of the analysis due to the nominal nature of the variables (Scheffe test) or any analysis already illustrated in previous sections.

Medium involvement

The medium-involvement profile of frequent ecotourists revealed that visits to natural environments and protected areas [NA] was the primary attribute in their choice (see chapter 6, figure 6.2b). At this stage, this was equally true for *females but not for males* (see figure 1a, 1b) (52.1 % versus 10.0%; $p < 0.05$). This crucially underlined that it was the medium-involvement females who tended to visit natural areas, revealing the greatest difference between the two groups.

Looking at the other attributes, the profile of females was much wealthier in connections revealing nine attributes ($a=9$) in comparison to seven ($a=7$) mentioned by males. Further females uniquely emphasized two attributes, that of 'experience with the local culture' [LC] and 'attractions' [ATTR] (17.2%; $p<0.05$ in both cases). The males on the other hand, exclusively preferred the 'surveys and/or studies to natural areas' [SNH] (17.2%; $p<0.05$). Most of the attributes were more or less comparable except in the case of 'visits to wild places or unprotected areas' [WP] where the likelihood of appearance was in favor to females (37.9% versus 23.3%; $p<0.05$).

At the consequences level females demonstrated a more knowledgeable profile ($c=11$) as opposed to their counterparts ($c=7$). This was evident from four unique consequences. Two of them were related to educational aspects both from the holiday and the local population (17.2%; $p<0.05$ in both cases], and another two in relation to 'the recommendation by friends' [RECFR] and to the negative marketing practices of ecoholidays used by companies [TCWA] (23.3%; $p<0.05$ in both cases). The males gave little support to any unique consequences except for the higher likelihood of appearance in the case of 'relax and calm' [RC] (23.3%; $p<0.05$).

At the values level, females demonstrated eight ($v=8$) and males seven ($v=7$) total values revealing the importance of these items during decision-making practices. In contrast to the results of the general involvement profile (see chapter 6 and figure 6.1a, 6.1b), females equally favored two leading values that of [AWOB] and [ENJOY] (41.9 %; $p<0.05$ in both cases). Perhaps in the medium-involvement category females would like to experience enjoyment as well as to appreciate the natural world. In the case however of the males the value of AWOB remained their first choice.

In addition females expressed one unique element at the abstract level, that of 'excitement' [EXC] (37.9%, $p<0.05$) and another two values with a higher likelihood of appearance 'get value for money' [GVFM] and 'get warm relationships with others' [GWRO] (23.3% versus 10.0%; $p<0.05$ in both cases).

Figure 1a *The hierarchical value map of female medium-involvement frequent ecotourists*

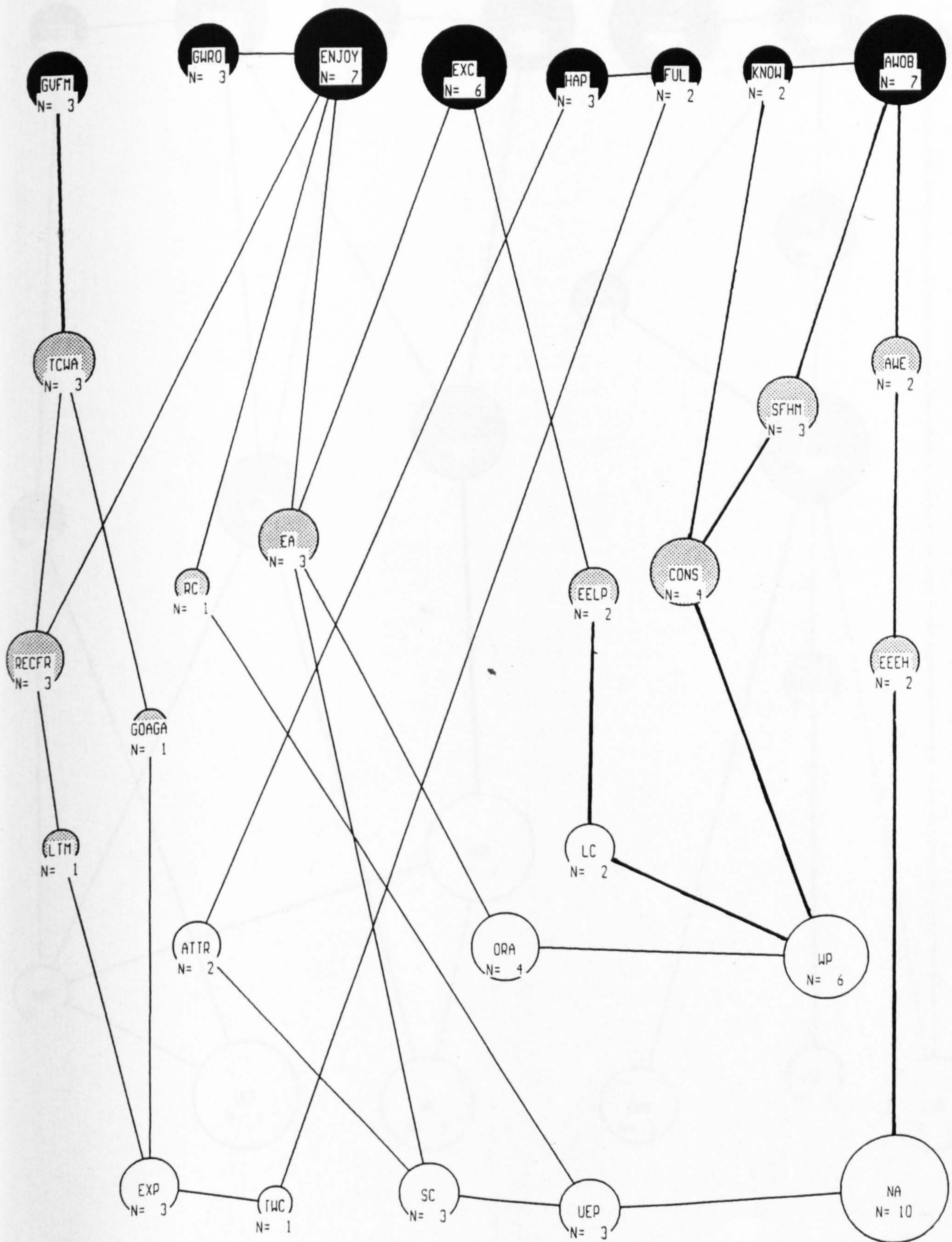


Figure 1b The hierarchical value map of male medium-involvement frequent ecotourists

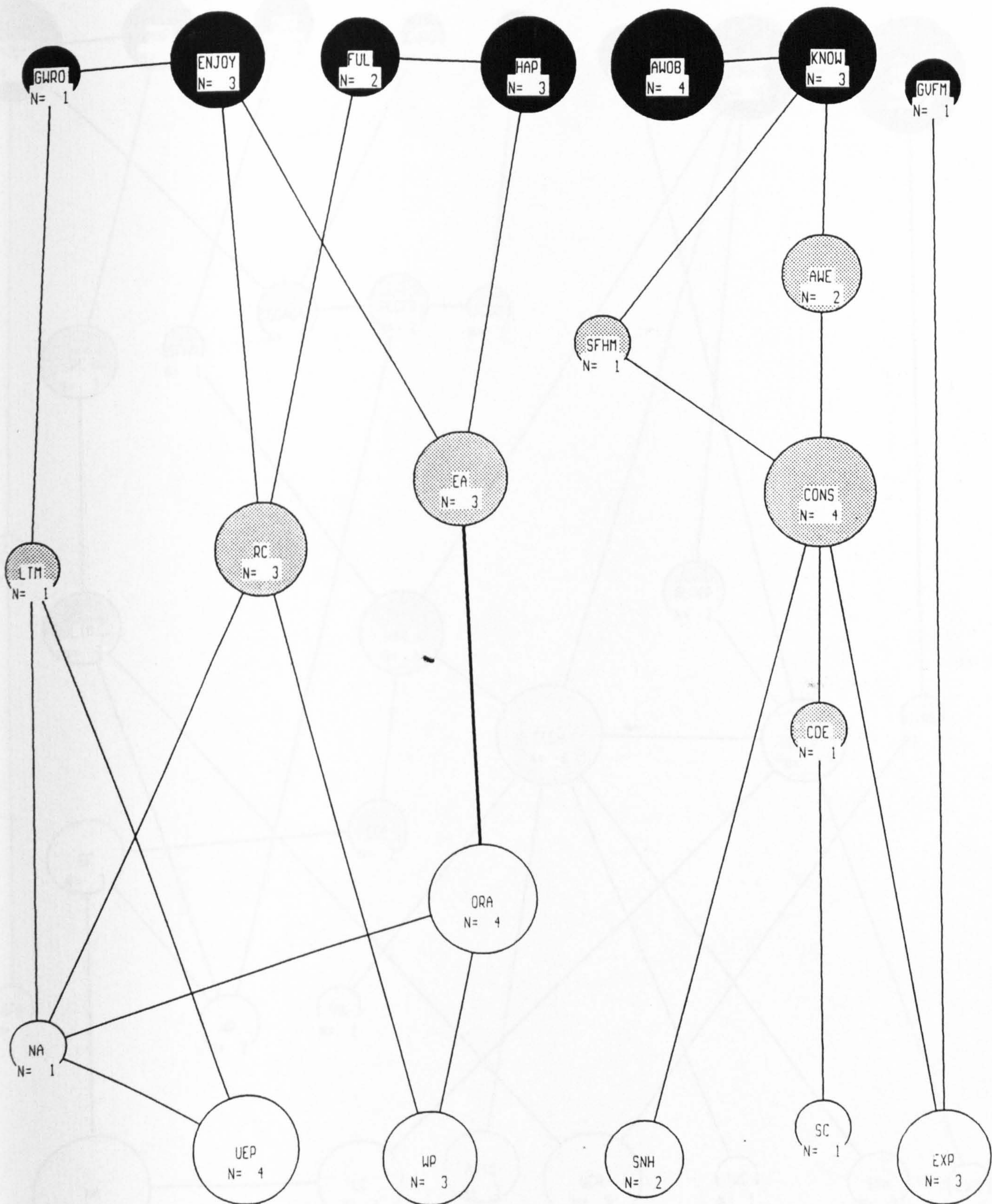


Figure 2b The hierarchical value map of male high-involvement frequent ecotourists

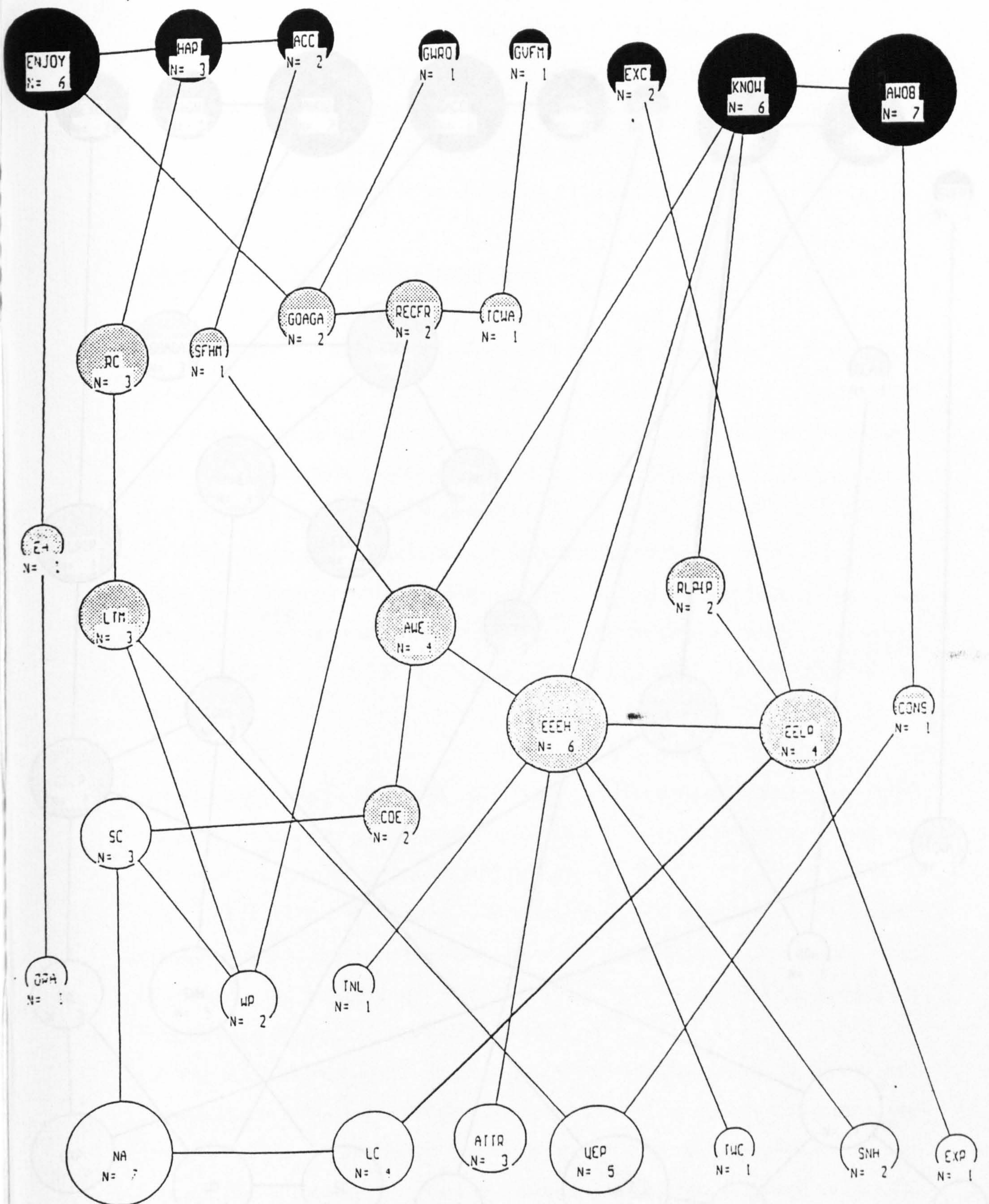
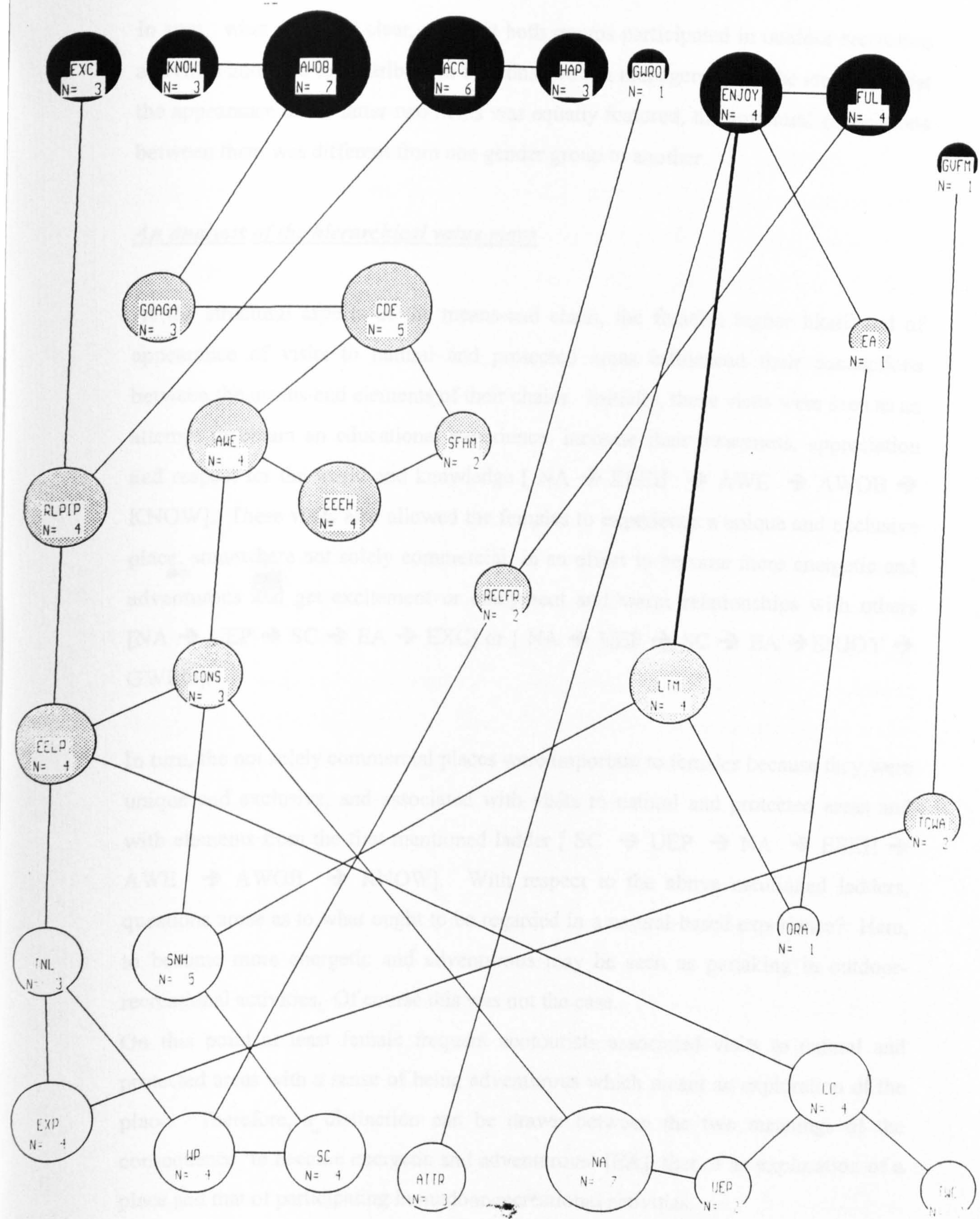


Figure 2a The hierarchical value map of female high-involvement frequent ecotourists



Finally the remaining three values shared an equal likelihood of appearance by both groups: [KNOW] and [FUL]: 17.2%; $p < 0.05$ in both cases, [HAP]: 23.3%; $p < 0.05$ in both cases.

In sum, what remained clear, was that both groups participated in outdoor recreation activities and tried to contribute to the conservation management of the areas. Whilst the appearance of the latter two items was equally featured, the structural connections between them was different from one gender group to another.

An analysis of the hierarchical value maps

At the structural aspects of the means-end chain, the females higher likelihood of appearance of visits to natural and protected areas influenced their connections between the means-end elements of their chains. Initially, these visits were seen as an attempt to obtain an educational experience, increase their awareness, appreciation and respect for the world and knowledge [NA → EEEH → AWE → AWOB → KNOW]. These visits also allowed the females to experience a unique and exclusive place, somewhere not solely commercial, in an effort to become more energetic and adventurous and get excitement or enjoyment and warm relationships with others [NA → UEP → SC → EA → EXC] or [NA → UEP → SC → EA → ENJOY → GWRO].

In turn, the not solely commercial places were important to females because they were unique and exclusive, and associated with visits to natural and protected areas and with elements from the first mentioned ladder [SC → UEP → NA → EEEH → AWE → AWOB → KNOW]. With respect to the above mentioned ladders, questions arose as to what ought to be regarded in a natural-based experience? Here, to become more energetic and adventurous may be seen as partaking in outdoor-recreational activities. Of course this was not the case.

On this point at least female frequent ecotourists associated visits to natural and protected areas with a sense of being adventurous which meant an exploration of the place. Therefore, a distinction can be drawn between the two meanings of the consequence 'to become energetic and adventurous' [EA], that of an exploration of a place and that of participating in outdoor-recreational activities.

So far, the female medium-involvement frequent ecotourists expressed their educational as well as their adventure/exploration motives. However, ecotourism claims to promote 'conservation of non-protected areas' (Bottrill and Pearce, 1995; Blamey, 1995a, b). The non-protected areas in this case had been termed by the two gender groups in the laddering interviews as 'visits to wild places or unprotected areas' [WP]. The activities surrounding the visits to wild places or unprotected areas not only had a conservation component but also an outdoor recreational one. In particular females associated these visits to wild or unprotected areas in relation to

- The local culture in an attempt to get excitement [WP → LC → EELP → EXC];
- Conservation and setting standards for future holiday makers [WP → CONS → SFHM → AWOB → KNOW]; and
- Participation in outdoor-recreational activities [WP → ORA → EA → ENJOY → GWRO] or [WP → ORA → EA → EXC].

The males on the other hand, emphasized that visits to wild places or unprotected areas could make them relaxed [WP → RC → ENJOY → GWRO] [WP → RC → FUL → HAP] or led to their participation in outdoor-recreational activities components [WP → ORA → EA → ENJOY → GWRO] or [WP → ORA → EA → HAP → FUL]. However, there was a view among some researchers that ecotourism should take place in protected areas (see chapter two, section 2.4). It is these kinds of opinions that created the confusion over the concept of ecotourism. At least, with respect to the current results ecotourism should take place in both protected and unprotected environments. In both cases attention has to be given to the application of education and/or conservation elements.

The results of the medium-involvement frequent ecotourists supported this emphasis. However, females were slightly more aware than males and make an additional effort to minimize their environmental impacts. This was evident from the amount of unique consequences mentioned through their ladders such as SFHM, EEEH. On the other hand, males will do a survey and/or studies of natural habitats in an attempt to contribute to conservation of the areas [SNH → CONS → AWE → KNOW → AWOB]. Hence, both groups contributed to conservation of the areas even though they belonged in the medium-involvement group. At least, the interview results suggested

that there were few differences in terms of the appearance of the core principles of ecotourism. Moving on to the last element, that of the 'expensiveness of the ecotourism holiday' females with lower incomes were more concerned over the price element. In the medium-involvement category participation in 'an expensive eco-holiday' had been made through recommendations by friends and relatives, and this was important because they discovered the negative practices of tour operators as they sought to attain value for money [EXP→RECFR→TCWA→GVFM]. For the males on the other hand, the expensive price was part of their core ecotourism holiday experience process which includes in this case the conservation elements [EXP→CONS→AWE→KNOW→AWOB].

Comparison of male and female medium-involved frequent ecotourists

The core elements of the holiday experience process both for males and females in this category were entailed in an interconnected cluster basis of values. Quite similar with the findings of the results of the general medium involvement there are three cluster value bases (see figures 1a, 1b):

1. *Appreciate the world of beauty and Knowledge (AWOB, KNOW), was associated with the so-called 'core elements of ecotourism product experience process'. For the females these were SFHM, CONS, AWE, EEEH during their visit to natural and protected areas and for males these were the AWE, CONS components;*
2. *Enjoyment and Get Warm Relationships with others (ENJOY, GWRO) related with the so-called 'enhanced and augmented experience process elements of the ecotourism product'. For females these were mainly with EA consequences and for males these were EA RC consequences; and*
3. *Fulfillment and Happiness (FUL, HAP) related with the so-called 'enhanced and augmented experience process elements of the ecotourism product'. For males RC, and EA were the consequences, and females did not have any strong association with this cluster.*

In comparing the value cluster basis and taking into account the results from the medium-involvement profile, it can be seen that both groups revealed quite similar

profiles. The profile of the general medium-involvement frequent ecotourists (see chapter 6, figure 6.2b) illustrated that conservation, outdoor-recreational activities, social interaction and relaxation components were its core elements. At this stage, the distribution of these elements revealed that females focused more on the visits to natural areas and exploration of the place, with an attempt to obtain an educational experience from the holiday as well as from the local population. Further, medium-involvement females participated in outdoor activities and conservation of these areas. A similar observation was also revealed for the males. However, it was the male medium-involvement frequent ecotourists who liked to be relaxed and calm during their holidays, not the female group. At the values level, males mentioned all the three cluster bases with strong connections with the other items of the means-end chain. The females revealed strong connections with the first two value clusters. Hence, in the medium-involvement category it was the males who considered the role of values during their selected items for decision-making of the ecotourism holidays. Finally, it is worth considering that the females in the medium-involvement category were very concerned over the price of the holiday and not the males. This was evident not only from the content analysis [GVFM: 23.3% versus 10.0%; $p < 0.05$] but also from the results in the general profile of frequent ecotourists (see chapter 6). Finally in the medium-involvement category females were a slightly more knowledgeable group of frequent ecotourists. This trend was also evident in the high-involvement category in which this gender group revealed a wealthy number of consequences.

High involvement

In the general high-involvement profile of frequent ecotourists a wealthy number of connections at the consequences level ($F=8.79$, $p < 0.001$) were revealed. Their understanding of ecotourism holidays was also determined by a number of relationships between attributes, consequences and values. Indeed there was further

evidence that female high-involvement frequent ecotourists exhibited a more consistent and knowledgeable profile. Specifically at the attributes level, although males and females had an equal number of total attributes ($a=11$), in most of these items the likelihood of appearance favored the females. The most significant differences between females and males concerned:

- Surveys and/or studies of natural habitats [SNH] (33.5% versus 17.2%; $p<0.05$);
- The expensiveness of the ecotourism holiday [EXP] (28.6% versus 10.0%; $p<0.05$);
- Experience traditional and natural lifestyles [TNL] (28.6% versus 17.2%; $p<0.05$);
- To go to wild places or unprotected areas [WP] (28.6% versus 17.2%, $p<0.05$); and
- To go somewhere not solely commercial [SC] (28.6% versus 23.3%, $p<0.05$).

In terms of other visitation patterns both groups equally highlighted that the visits to natural and protected areas [NA] was their first choice (41.9%; $p<0.05$). On the other hand males preferred to experience a unique exclusive place (33.5% versus 17.2%; $p<0.05$).

The results at the consequences level indicated that males emphasized more items ($c=13$) than females ($c=12$). This claim, however, should take into account that four of males' consequences mentioned were by only one respondent. Implicit in the results was the finding that females had a higher likelihood of appearance in most of these consequences. In particular significant differences were found with:

- Concern that your presence there may damage the environment [CDE] (33.5% versus 17.2%; $p<0.05$);
- Respect of the local population and indigenous people [RLPIP] (28.6% versus 17.2%; $p<0.05$); and
- Contribute to conservation [CONS] (23.3% versus 10.0%; $p<0.05$).

On the other hand, with the education component as a major feature in the high-involvement category, the results indicated that this was more likely to appear in males choices [EEEH] (37.9% versus 28.6%; $p < 0.05$). Finally, the males also featured a unique consequence, that of to be relaxed and calm [RC] (23.3%; $p < 0.05$).

Within the values results, the total number of females ($v=9$) slightly outnumbered those of males by one ($v=8$). This highlighted not only the difference between the two gender groups but that the role of values was considered in the decision-making process. On a similar vein with all the previous results, [AWOB] was the leading value for both genders (41.9%; $p < 0.05$ in both cases). Next, females more often mentioned their attempts to get a 'sense of accomplishment' [ACC] (37.9% versus 17.2%; $p < 0.05$) and uniquely highlighted the need to 'get fulfillment' [FUL] (28.6%; $p < 0.05$). The overall value structure of the males exhibited that the following values were more likely to appear in their choice:

1. Become more knowledgeable' [KNOW] (37.9% versus 23.3%; $p < 0.05$); and
2. Get enjoyment' [ENJOY] (37.9% versus 28.6%; $p < 0.05$).

Finally, it is worth noting that to 'get value for money' [GVFM] received only a 10.0% ($p < 0.05$) probability of appearance in both groups, highlighting that this value was not that important for males and females in the high involvement category.

An analysis of the hierarchical value maps

The structural linkages between the means-end chain concepts in the cognitive maps between males and females were similar in many respects as there were few differences at this level of involvement. For instance, there were certain elements of the means-end chains consequences which appeared in most of the ladders (see figures 2a, 2b):

- For the females: conservation, educate and be educated by local people, awareness, educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday, set the standards for future holiday makers, concern that your presence there may damage the environment, and wish to visit the areas in the future [CONS → AWE → EEEH → SFHM → CDE → GOAGA]; and
- For the males : concern that your presence there may damage the environment, awareness, educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday, educate and be educated by local people, and respect the local population and indigenous people [CDE → AWE → EEEH → EELP → RLPIP].

Looking at some of the ladders mentioned by both groups, females viewed *visits to natural and protected areas* [NA] in a more detailed fashion, expressing a more knowledgeable profile. In particular, these visits were directly linked with all their preferred consequences and values of increasing their knowledge and appreciation and respect for the world [NA → CONS → AWE → EEEH → SFHM → CDE → GOAGA → AWOB → KNOW].

Further, the NA included an experience of a unique exclusive place and local culture, the mutual education experience with local people accompanied by all their favorite consequences and KNOW and AWOB [NA → UEP → LC → EELP → CONS → AWE → EEEH → SFHM → CDE → GOAGA → AWOB → KNOW].

Alternatively the first three items in the latter ladder were linked with an additional emphasis to the social interaction component in meeting the values of ACC and HAP [NA → UEP → LC → EELP → RLPIP → ACC → HAP]. On the other hand, males determined their visits in relation to local culture and with their favorite consequences, except the CDE, all in an attempt to increase KNOW and AWOB [NA → LC → EELP → (RLPIP → KNOW → AWOB) or (EEEH → AWE → KNOW → AWOB)].

Further, males also determined their visits in relation to go somewhere not solely commercial and with all their preferred consequences [NA → SC → CDE → AWE → EEEH → EELP → RLPIP → KNOW → AWOB]. Thereafter, there were three other differences between these gender groups, that of the surveys and/or studies, lifetime memory and the price interpretation:

- First the surveys and/or studies of natural habitats [SNH] expressed by females in a more detailed fashion which included all their preferred consequences and values [SNH→CONS→AWE→EEEH→SFHM→CDE→GOAGA→AWOB→KNOW].
In contrast, the males revealed only a certain combination of their preferred consequences in relation to SNH and the values of AWOB and KNOW [SNH → EEEH → (AWE → KNOW → AWOB) or (EELP → RLPIP → KNOW → AWOB)];
- Second, males saw their visits to wild places or unprotected areas in relation to lifetime memory, in order to be relaxed and calm, in an effort to achieve happiness, enjoyment, and accomplishment [WP → LTM → RC→HAP→ENJOY→ACC]. On the other hand, females mentioned surveys and/or studies of natural areas in relation to a lifetime memory, enjoyment and fulfillment [SNH → LTM → ENJOY → FUL]; and
- Third, the expensiveness of the ecotourism holiday has been selected by males, in relation to the experience of traditional and natural lifestyles and with all their favorite consequences starting from the EELP and with their values of AWOB and KNOW [EXP → TNL → EELP → CONS → AWE → EEEH → SFHM → CDE → GOAGA → AWOB → KNOW]. An alternative route was that of experiencing traditional and natural lifestyles, educating and being educated by local people, respecting the local population and indigenous people, and getting accomplishment and happiness [EXP → TNL →EELP →RLPIP → ACC →HAP)]. In both these cases, the price of the holiday was related with the social educational interaction component, revealing that in this case the females were not so concerned about the price element, as they did not reveal any strong association with the value GVFM .

Comparison of male and female high-involved frequent ecotourists

Males revealed two major interconnected cluster bases (see figure 2a, 2b):

1. *Appreciate the world of beauty and Knowledge (AWOB, KNOW), was associated with the so-called 'core elements of ecotourism product experience process' with CDE, AWE, EEEH, EELP, RLPIP consequences; and*

2. *Enjoyment and Happiness and Accomplishment (ENJOY, HAP, ACC) related to the so-called 'enhanced and augmented experience process elements of the ecotourism product' mainly with the LTM, RC consequences.*

In contrast, the females have three interconnected cluster bases of values (see figure 2a, 2b):

1. *Appreciate the world of beauty and Knowledge(AWOB , KNOW), was associated with the so-called 'core elements of ecotourism product experience process' mainly with EELP, CONS, AWE, EEEH, SFHM, CDE, GOAGA consequences;*
2. *Accomplishment and Happiness (ACC, HAP) related with the so-called 'enhanced and augmented experience process elements of the ecotourism product' primarily with CONS, EELP, RLPIP consequences; and*
3. *Enjoyment and Fulfillment (ENJOY and FUL) related with the so-called 'enhanced and augmented experience process elements of the ecotourism product' mainly with LTM consequences.*

The comparison of the value cluster revealed a wealth of knowledge at the concrete and abstract levels of the means-end chain. Females were not a prosaic group of frequent ecotourists, but they were an inspired and knowledgeable group revealing more 'value clusters' as opposed to the males. In particular, both groups determined their core elements of the ecotourism product experience process in relation to awareness, concern that their presence in the destination may damage the environment, and educational components [AWE, CDE, EEEH, EELP]. In addition, the females acknowledged more consequences, that of conservation, set the standards for future holiday makers and visiting the destinations in the future [CONS, SFHM, GOAGA], revealing the importance attached by this group to the 'core' elements.

The males, on the other hand included the RLPIP consequence in their core category revealing that the social interaction component was part of their main component of ecotourism product-experience process. In contrast, females revealed the RLPIP in relation to 'enhanced and augmented experience elements' which was subject to the values of accomplishment and happiness.

However, two of the consequences in the females core category (CONS, EELP) were also subject to the 'enhanced and augmented' (ACC, HAP) group. This suggests not only the inevitable complexity of their product-knowledge structure but the flexibility of these two consequences. In particular some female frequent ecotourists had emphasized both the 'core' and 'enhanced and augmented' categories simultaneously or just one category. In both cases, these two consequences were addressed revealing that they are situated at the center of females ecotourism knowledge structure, which allowed them to reveal either an emphasis on 'environmental/educational' or 'social' orientated actions during their visits. Hence, these two consequences affected the females ecotourism penetration choice process to the 'core' or 'enhanced and augmented' profiles (ACC, HAP). Significant difference for both groups was over the relaxation component [RC]:

- **For males:** it followed that this elements was subject not only to unique emphasis at the content levels but also the importance attached during decision-making procedures (the satisfaction of three values: ENJOY, HAP, ACC);
- **For the males:** the RC consequence arose from the lifetime memory obtained primarily from visits to wild places or unprotected areas and a unique exclusive place; and
- **For the females:** the RC component did not exist. Instead, there was only the LTM related to the values of ENJOY and FUL. Hence, this particular consequence came as a second priority to the females.

Further, it is worth noting some observations in terms of the attributes distribution. As noted in the attributes section, the males had fewer attributes with a higher likelihood of appearance. However, from their total attributes generated the NA, LC, ATT, SC and WP were formed as a group in meeting the values in the core category (AWOB & KNOW). The other attributes, notably WP and UEP were subject to their enhanced and augmented category (ENJOY, HAP, and ACC).

Here the visits to wild places or unprotected areas [WP] were very flexible in the males means-end chain which allowed them to express their core and/or enhanced and augmented category.

For the females, there were two groups of attributes at the concrete level:

- The NA, UEP, LC, TWC were subject to either the 'core' or 'enhanced and augmented category' (ACC and HAP); and
- The attributes EXP, TNL, WP, SC, SNH, had distinguished the female high-involvement frequent ecotourists from the males.

Not only did these attributes contained a higher likelihood of appearance but they were subject to either 'core' or all the 'enhanced and augmented' clusters of values categories. This suggested that in the high-involvement category of females there was great flexibility at the concrete level in which a certain combination of items may reveal all the examined interconnected value clusters. Finally, it *reinforced the view that at this level of involvement the females were extremely knowledgeable individuals whose entire attributes and consequences structure was more or less connected in order to meet a specific or all the elements of their value clusters bases. This was quite different from the results of their general profile suggesting that the effects of involvement influence the profiles of frequent ecotourists (see chapter 6).*

APPENDIX TEN

FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS: STATISTICAL TESTS

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTRIBUTES AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between the attributes and socio-demographic variables, a set of null hypothesis were tested. Selecting age, education, income, gender and level of involvement and marital status as independent variables, the aim at this stage was to manifest the differences based on these variables (see chapter 7, section 7.4). In order to meet the conditions of the chi-square analysis both the attribute statements and the socio-demographics were subject to a number of computations. For the attributes, the disagreement answers were recorded as (1): neutral (2): agree (3): and 4: strongly agree. The age, income, and level of involvement have been computed as previously (see chapter 7, section 7.1). Overall the results illustrated that the most influential variable on the attributes was that of the level of involvement, followed by gender (see table 1).

Level of involvement and attributes

The levels of involvement were associated with eight attributes (see table 1):

- Travel to wild places on earth ($x^2 = 33.99$): Although both high and medium-involved frequent ecotourists shared a form of agreement (high: 50.3%; medium: 49.7%), of the people who strongly agreed, 75.8% were in the high involvement category. In contrast, medium-involved frequent ecotourists expressed more neutral opinions (64.4%) as well as a disagreement (52.6%). Hence, *the attribute travel to wild places on earth mainly inspired the high-involved frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.00001$);
- Visits to natural and protected areas ($x^2 = 21.79$): Here 67.9% of the high-involved frequent ecotourists strongly agreed as opposed to 32.1% of their medium-involvement counterparts. Although medium-involved frequent ecotourists underlined a 52% agreement, they generated 68.2% of the neutral opinions as well as 80% of the total disagreement. In sum, *although both medium and high-involved frequent ecotourists agreed to visiting natural environments and*

protected areas, the high group generated more support for this attribute ($p < 0.0001$);

Table 1 The relationship between attributes and socio-demographics

Variables	Chi-square (χ^2)	Significance
<u>Level of involvement</u>		
To travel to wild places on earth	33.99	$p < 0.00001$
To see the natural environment and protected areas	21.79	$p < 0.0001$
To go somewhere that is not solely commercial	18.95	$p < 0.0005$
To do a survey and/or study of natural habitats	16.93	$p < 0.001$
To experience a unique exclusive place	11.96	$p < 0.01$
Experience local culture	9.50	$p < 0.05$
To travel to third world countries	8.24	$p < 0.05$
To experience traditional and natural lifestyles	8.03	$p < 0.05$
<u>Gender</u>		
To experience traditional and natural lifestyles	16.26	$p < 0.001$
Experience local culture	11.17	$p < 0.01$
To visit the historical attractions	6.96	$p < 0.1$
To go somewhere that is not solely commercial	6.87	$p < 0.1$
<u>Marital status</u>		
To participate in outdoor/recreational activities	16.45	$p < 0.05$
To experience a unique exclusive place	16.14	$p < 0.05$
To travel to wild places on earth	14.56	$p < 0.05$
<u>Income</u>		
To do a survey and/or study of natural habitats	14.15	$p < 0.05$
To visit the historical attractions	12.46	$p < 0.05$
To travel to wild places on earth	11.77	$p < 0.1$
<u>Education</u>		
An expensive holiday	16.74	$p < 0.05$
To travel to third world countries	15.31	$p < 0.1$
<u>Age</u>		
To visit the historical attractions	16.24	$p < 0.01$

- Go somewhere that is not solely commercial ($\chi^2 = 18.95$): Here, 66% of the high-involvement group strongly agreed and a further 41.7% registered an agreement. Of the medium-involvement subjects, 34% of them strongly agreed and 58.3% of them agreed. With both neutral and disagreement answers shared more or less equally, *both medium and high-involvement groups illustrated that ecotourism was related to non-commercialized destinations* ($p < 0.0005$);
- To do a survey and/or study of natural habitats, it can be rejected ($\chi^2 = 16.93$): High -involved frequent ecotourists accounted for most of the strongly agree opinions (69%), 53.3% of the agreement opinions, and 43% of the neutral opinions. In contrast, medium-involvement frequent ecotourists generated more neutral opinions (57.0%) and less agree (46.7%) and strongly agree opinions (31%), *allowing this attribute to be mainly undertaken by high-involvement frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.001$);
- Experience a unique exclusive place was rejected ($\chi^2 = 11.96$): Here the high-involvement group revealed a strong agreement of 65.7%, as well as an agreement of 60.2%, while the medium-involvement subjects revealed more neutral opinions (56.4%). For the disagreement, both medium and high-involved frequent ecotourists acknowledged an equal amount of responses (50%), suggesting that *to experience a unique exclusive place was mainly a characteristic of the high-involved frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.01$);
- Experience the local culture ($\chi^2 = 9.50$): was a characteristic of both groups. In particular the high-involvement group revealed 64.7% of the strongly agree opinions, 47.5% agreement and 53.3% of the neutral opinions. The medium-involvement group revealed 35.3% of the strongly agree opinions, 52.5% agreement, and 46.7% of the neutral opinions, suggesting *experience of the local culture was more or less equally shared between the two involvement groups* ($p < 0.05$);
- Travel to third world countries ($\chi^2 = 8.24$): From the 34.1% who showed a neutral opinion, 52.4% were in the medium and the remaining 47.6% in the high-involvement categories. From the 31.7% who disagreed, 53.8% were in the high-involvement category and 46.2% in medium-involvement group. This suggests that

although both groups neglected this attribute, in cases where it was considered was more likely to be by high-involvement subjects (Agree: 63.4%; S.Agree: 68.2%);

- Experience traditional and natural lifestyles ($\chi^2 = 8.03$): From the 44.2% of the sample who agreed, 52.1% were in the high-involvement category and from the 35% of those who strongly agreed, 65.1% were also in the high-involvement group. Medium- involvement subjects revealed the remaining agreeable opinions, as well as the majority of both neutral (52.5%) and disagreement opinions (56.3%).

There was a very fine balance between the attributes mentioned by medium and high-involved frequent ecotourists, suggesting that both groups share a wealth of knowledge at the concrete level of the abstraction concept. However, three attributes participation in outdoor/recreational activities, historical attractions and expensive holidays failed to appear in the chi-square suggesting that they were not resilient enough to illustrate any relationship with either involvement groups. Nevertheless, *high-involvement frequent ecotourists tended to select most of the attributes revealing that they are the dominant group in terms of concrete knowledge.*

Gender and attributes

Four attributes showed a relationship with gender (see table 1). These were:

- Experience traditional and natural lifestyles ($\chi^2 = 16.26$): From the 43.8% who agreed, 57.8% were females and the remaining 42.2% were males, and from the 34.6% who strongly agreed, 61.1% were females and 38.9% were males. Of the 17.2% with neutral opinions 67.7% were males, *pinpointing that experience of traditional and natural lifestyles was a characteristic of female frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.001$);
- Experience of local culture ($\chi^2 = 6.87$): Here, the majority of both strongly agree and agree were selected by females (59.6% and 55.8% respectively), and both the neutral opinion and disagreement were selected by males (64.6% and 70%). This suggested that *experiencing the local culture tended to be selected by females as opposed to males* ($p < 0.01$);

- Visits to historical attractions ($x^2 = 6.96$): Strongly agree and agree were selected by females (59.9% and 57%) while disagreement was selected by males (60%). It follows that from the 25.9% of people who selected the neutral opinion, there was an equal split of 50% between the two groups. *The majority of frequent ecotourists who associated with visits to historical attractions tended to be females ($p < 0.1$);*
- Going somewhere that is not solely commercial ($x^2 = 6.87$): Females generated most of the strongly agree opinions (59.7%), an agreement of 54.8%, while males illustrated most of the neutral opinions (58.9%) and disagreement (56.5%). Overall, *visits to destinations that were not solely commercial were more prominent amongst females ($p < 0.1$), allowing this gender group to be associated with most of the social and cultural orientated attributes.*

Marital status and attributes

Three attributes showed a relationships with marital status. These were (see table 1):

1. Participation in outdoor/ recreational activities ($x^2 = 16.45$): From the 31.9% of people who expressed a neutral opinion, 31.4% were single, 62% were married, and 6.6% were divorced or separated. From the 28.8% of people who agreed, 44% were single, 48.6% were married and 7.3% were divorced. *All suggesting that it was mainly the single frequent ecotourists who participated in outdoor/recreational activities ($p < 0.05$);*
2. Experiencing a unique exclusive place ($x^2 = 16.14$): From the 32.7% of people who agreed, 58.1% were married followed by 35.5% who were single, and 6.5% were divorced or separated. Out of the 26.6% who strongly agreed, 50.5% were married, 35.6% were single and 13.9% were divorced. From, the 29% with neutral opinions, 38.2% were single, 56.4% were married, and 5.5% were divorced. Overall, *although all frequent ecotourists in all marital categories contemplated experiencing a unique exclusive place, the pioneering group was the single category ($p < 0.05$); and*
3. Travel to wild placed on earth ($x^2 = 14.56$): Here from the 42.5% who agreed, 60.2% were in the married category, 32.9% in the single and 6.8% in divorced on separated category. From 31.9% who strongly agreed, 46.3% were married,

41.3% single and 12.4% were divorced. Overall, *travel to wild places was selected by all marital status categories, with married couples as the leading group ($p < 0.05$).*

Income and attributes

Three attributes showed a relationship with income. These were:

- To do a survey and/or study of natural habitats ($x^2 = 16.93$): From the 21.6% with neutral opinions, 41.5% were in the mid-range, 31.7% in the high-range, and 26.8% in the low-range of incomes. From the total agreement, 76.19% were in the low-range, 69.79% in the high-range and 66.20% in the mid-range of incomes. *Revealing that if this attribute was considered it was done so mainly by frequent ecotourists with low range incomes followed by those in the high-range income bracket ($p < 0.05$);*
- Income and visits to historical attractions ($x^2 = 12.46$): From the 40.1% of people who agreed, 41.4% were in the high-range, 32.9% in the mid-range and 25.7% in the low-range of incomes. From the 25.9% of people with neutral opinions, 38.8% were in the mid-range, followed by an equal proportion of 30.6% in both the low and high ranges of income. In sum, *the majority of frequent ecotourists tended to visit historical attractions, and the majority of these tended to be in the high and medium -income bracket ($p < 0.05$); and*
- Travel to wild places on earth is also related to income ($x^2 = 11.77$): Here, from the 74.4% of frequent ecotourists with a total agreement, 79 % were in the low-range, 78.6% in the mid-range and 65.89% in the high-range income bracket. From, the 20.6% with neutral opinions, 42.3% were in the high-range followed by 30.8% in the mid-range and 26.9% in the low-range of incomes. Overall, *frequent ecotourists with both low and mid-range incomes tended to associate ecotourism with travel to wild places on earth ($p < 0.1$).*

Education, age and attributes

Two attributes showed a relationship with education. These were (see table 1):

- Expensive holidays ($x^2 = 16.74$): From the 59.9% of people who disagreed, 33.9% were degree holders, 26.4% had postgraduate qualifications, 22.5% were educated to secondary levels, and 17.2% were HND/Diploma holders. From the 26.1% of people with neutral opinions, 43.4% were degree holders, 21.2% were educated to secondary levels, 20.2% were postgraduates and the remaining 15.2% were HND/Diploma holders. In overall terms, *the majority of frequent ecotourists suggested that this type of holiday was not expensive ($p < 0.05$), in particular this was mentioned by those with a better educational background (i.e. degree, postgraduate qualification); and*
- Educational background and travel to third world countries ($x^2 = 15.31$). From the 31.9% of the people who disagreed, 38% were degree holders, 24.8% were postgraduates, 20.7% were educated to secondary levels, and 16.5% were HND/Diploma graduates. Out of the 34% who totally agreed, 45.6% were HND/Diploma holders, 33.3% were secondary level educated, 32.4% were degree holders and 29.8% had a postgraduate qualification. In sum, *the people with a lower educational background related ecotourism holidays more with travel to third world countries ($p < 0.1$).*

Finally the only relationship found between age and attributes is related to:

- Visits to historical attractions ($x^2 = 16.24$). From the 40.1% who selected a type of agreement, 52.8% were middle-aged, followed by 31.6% who were young aged, and 15.8% were in the older-aged categories. From the 25.9% with neutral opinions, 43.9% were middle-aged, 33.7% were young and 22.4% were older-aged. Of the 20.8% of the total who strongly agreed, 55.7% were middle aged, 24.1% were older aged, and 20.3% were in the young aged group. *Visits to historical attractions were undertaken by all the age groups but especially by those in the middle-aged category ($p < 0.01$).*

FACTOR ANALYSIS: ATTRIBUTES

These are, 'experiencing a unique exclusive place' which is related to Factor 3 (0.36), 'go somewhere that is not solely commercial' with Factor 1 (0.35), 'to participate in outdoor/recreational activities' with Factor 2 (0.46), 'historical attractions' with Factor 3 (0.43), and 'travel to third world countries' with Factor 3 (0.36) and Factor 1 (0.33).

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSEQUENCES AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

A number of null hypothesis were measured at this stage between the socio-demographics and the consequences. All the computations of both dependent (consequences) and independent (sociodemographics) variables were based on the same procedures as recorded previously (see chapter 7, section 7.1 and 7.4). With reference to all the chi-square analysis so far, consequences tend to *reveal most of the relationships, suggesting the importance of their role to consumers, especially from the decision-making perspective*. More specifically, it appeared, that the most influential independent variables were related to the levels of involvement and income of frequent ecotourists (see table 1).

Level of involvement and consequences

There were thirteen consequences in relation to involvement:

- That your presence there may damage the natural environment ($\chi^2 = 43.01$): From the 46.3% of the people who strongly agreed, 73.1% were in the high-involvement category and 26.9% were in the medium category. From the 39.3% of the people who agreed, 55.9% were in medium category and the remaining 44.1% was assigned to the high group. *This indicated that it was the high-involvement frequent ecotourists who were more likely to be concerned about their presence in natural settings* ($p < 0.00001$);
- Awareness of the world's natural environment ($\chi^2 = 35.07$): From the 46.3% of the people who strongly agreed, 71.9% were in the high involvement category, and the remaining 28.1% were in the medium category. The reverse was seen with the 47.4% who agreed, whereby 57.7% were in the medium category and 42.3% were in the high category, *all in favor of the high involvement group* ($p < 0.00001$);

Table 1 The relationship between consequences and sociodemographics

Variables	Chi-square (χ^2)	Significance
<u>Level of involvement</u>		
To be concerned that your presence there may damage the natural environment	43.01	p<0.00001
Have an awareness of the world's natural environment	35.07	p<0.00001
To maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers	34.24	p<0.00001
To respect the local population and indigenous people	32.58	p<0.00001
To create a memory that normal holidays could not give me	25.39	p<0.00005
To contribute actively in conservation of these areas	21.44	p<0.0001
To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday	21.23	p<0.0001
To go again when possible	13.32	p<0.005
To educate and be educated by local people	13.22	p<0.005
To be more energetic and adventurous	12.31	p<0.01
To feel relaxed and calmed	8.05	p<0.05
<u>Income</u>		
To contribute actively in conservation of these areas	19.05	p<0.005
To go again when possible	16.60	p<0.01
To educate and be educated by local people	15.84	p<0.01
To maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers	14.87	p<0.05
To create a memory that normal holidays could not give me	13.23	p<0.05
To feel relaxed and calmed	12.95	p<0.05
To be concerned that your presence there may damage the natural environment	10.82	p<0.1
<u>Gender</u>		
To respect the local population and indigenous people	14.07	p<0.005
To be more energetic and adventurous	12.10	p<0.01
To contribute actively in conservation of these areas	11.24	p<0.01
To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday	8.66	p<0.05
To educate and be educated by local people	8.09	p<0.05
To be concerned that your presence there may damage the natural environment	7.78	p<0.05
To go again when possible	7.34	p<0.1

<u>Education</u>		
To educate and be educated by local people	16.86	p<0.01
I felt that travel companies just use the word 'eco-holidays' to attract more people	15.38	p<0.1
To contribute actively in conservation of these areas	14.21	p<0.1
To go again when possible	11.70	p<0.1
<u>Age</u>		
I felt that travel companies just use the word 'eco-holidays' to attract more people	19.08	p<0.005
To educate and be educated by local people	17.92	p<0.01
Have an awareness of the world's natural environment	16.07	p<0.01
To be more energetic and adventurous	10.94	p<0.1
<u>Marital status</u>		
To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday	19.34	p<0.005
To educate and be educated by local people	11.87	p<0.1
To be more energetic and adventurous	11.65	p<0.1
It was recommended by friends	11.72	p<0.1

- Maintain environmental standards for future holiday makers ($x^2 = 34.24$): Both strongly agree (36.3%) and agree (39.8%) opinions were dominated by the high involvement group (73.9%; 51%; respectively);
- Respect the local population and indigenous people ($x^2 = 32.58$): From the 66.9% of those who strongly agreed, 65.9% were in the high-involvement group and the remaining 34.4% were in the medium-involvement category. From the 29.3% who agreed, 63.9% were in the medium involvement group and 36.1% were in the high category, *all in favor of the high involvement group* ($p<0.00001$);
- Create a memory that normal holidays could not give me ($x^2 = 25.39$). From the 42% who strongly agreed, 70.3% were in the high-involvement group and the remaining 29.7% were in the medium group. On the other hand, from the 40.4% who agreed, 53.7% were in the high-involvement group and 46.3% were in the medium group. This suggested that *although medium-involved frequent ecotourists were in favor of creating a memory from their ecotourism holidays, the high involvement group were more keen to create such an experience* ($p<0.00005$);

- To contribute actively in conservation of these areas ($\chi^2 = 21.44$): From the 38.8% who agreed, 56.6% were in high-involvement category, and from the 22.2% who strongly agreed, 74.4% were also in high-involvement category. In addition, out of the 30.4% with neutral opinions, 46.4% were in the high-involvement category and the remaining 53.6% were in the medium group. This suggests, *that high-involved frequent ecotourists appeared to have a major interest in conservation during their holiday experience* ($p < 0.0001$);
- To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday ($\chi^2 = 21.23$): From the 48% who agreed, 56.5% were in the high-involvement group and 43.5% were in the medium-group. From the 16.3% who strongly agreed, 78.3% were in the high-involvement group, and 21.7% were in the medium-involvement category. In addition, from the 27.9% with a neutral opinion, 53.4% were in the medium group and 46.6% were in the high group. Overall, *high-involved frequent ecotourists were more likely to educate and be educated from the ecotourism holiday, as opposed to their medium involvement counterparts* ($p < 0.0001$);
- To go again when possible ($\chi^2 = 13.32$): From the 32.8% of the people who agreed, 58.7% were in the high-involvement group, and from the 18.7% who strongly agreed, 71% were also in the high-involvement group. Both neutral opinions and disagreement answers were in favor of the medium-involvement group ($p < 0.005$);
- To educate and be educated by local people ($\chi^2 = 13.22$): Of the 34.7% who agreed, 57% were in the high-involvement group and from the 15.4% who strongly agreed, 75.4% were also in the high-involvement group. Both neutral opinions and disagreement answers were in favor of the medium-involvement group ($p < 0.005$), *all suggesting the dominance of high-involved frequent* ($p < 0.005$);
- In becoming more energetic and adventurous ($\chi^2 = 12.31$): From the 16.5% who strongly agreed, 72.1% were in the high-involvement group, and the remaining 27.9% were in the medium group. From the 40.1% who agreed, 56.1% were in the high group, and the remaining 43.9% were in the medium-involvement group. Hence, *the consequence to become more energetic and adventurous was more likely to be related to high-involved frequent ecotourists as opposed to the medium-involvement group* ($p < 0.01$); and

- To feel relaxed and calm ($\chi^2 = 8.05$): From the 37.1% who agreed, 55.5% were in the high-involvement group and from the 17.6% who totally agreed, 69.2% were also in the high group. On the other hand, neutral answers were also mentioned more by the high involvement group (52.8%), whereas disagreement opinions were dominated by the medium group (57.1%), *all indicating that to feel relaxed and calm was mainly sought after by high-involved frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.05$).

In sum, most of the consequences examined in this analysis were related to high levels of involvement. Two consequences, travel companies just use the word 'eco-holiday' to attract more people, and it was recommended by friends, failed to provide any relationship suggesting that were not related to any kind of product involvement.

Income and consequences

Seven consequences showed a relationship with income. These were (table 1):

- To contribute actively in conservation of these areas ($\chi^2 = 19.05$): From the 60.7% of total agreement, 73.3% were in the low-range, 62.06% were in the mid-range and 48.83% were in the high-range of incomes. It appeared then, *that the conservation efforts were more likely to appear from low and mid-range income earners rather than those frequent ecotourists in the high category* ($p < 0.005$);
- To go again, when possible ($\chi^2 = 16.60$): Out of the 51.2% who totally agreed, 62.8% were in the low-range, 47.5% were in the mid-range, and 45.7% were in the high-range of incomes. This suggested *that people with lower incomes illustrated an interest to revisit the destination* ($p < 0.01$);
- To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday ($\chi^2 = 15.84$): In particular, 59.04% of the low income earners shared a form of agreement, followed by 54.48% of the mid-range earners, then 36% of high-income earners. For both neutral opinions and disagreement answers, the domineering group was the high-income earners, followed by mid-range earners, *all indicating that the educational experience from ecological holidays as a whole was pioneered by low and mid-range income frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.01$);

- Maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers ($x^2 = 14.87$): Here, 80% of the low-income earners, followed by 73.8% of the mid-range earners, and 73.6% with high-incomes, shared 75.4% of the total agreement, all suggesting *that regardless of their income all frequent ecotourists tried to maintain the environmental standards* ($p < 0.05$);
- To create a memory that normal holidays could not give me ($x^2 = 13.23$): From the 81.8% of all the agreement answers, 84.76% were in the low-range, 78.62% in the mid-range, and 82.94% in the high-range of incomes, *revealing that this consequence captured the attention of all the income earners* ($p < 0.05$);
- To feel relaxed and calm ($x^2 = 12.95$): Here, from the 54.1% who totally agreed, 60.68% were in the mid-range, 59.04% were in the low-range, and 42.63% were in the high-range of incomes. These results suggested that *mid and low-income earners were more likely to address the consequence of relaxation than high-income earners* ($p < 0.05$); and
- To be concerned that your presence there may damage the natural environment ($x^2 = 10.82$): From the 85% of total agreement, 88.9% were in the mid-range, 84.7% were in the low-range, and 80.6% were in the high-range of incomes, *recommending that among all income earners there was a concern for the sensitivity of ecotourism visits to natural landscapes, although frequent ecotourists with lower incomes had a slightly higher propensity to do so* ($p < 0.1$).

Gender and consequences

Seven consequences revealed a relationship with gender. These were (see table 1):

- Respect the local population and indigenous people ($x^2 = 14.07$): Out of the 67% who strongly agreed, 59.4% were females and 40.6% were males, and from the 28.8% who agreed, 53.2% were males and 46.8% were females. These results expressed *that although females tend to have slightly more responses, both gender groups intended to respect the local population during their time in the destination* ($p < 0.005$);
- To be more energetic and adventurous ($x^2 = 12.10$): From the 39.6% who agreed, 60% were females and from the 16.4% who strongly agreed, 64.5% were females,

all suggesting that to become more energetic and adventurous was illustrated mainly by females ($p < 0.01$);

- To contribute actively in conservation of these areas ($\chi^2 = 11.24$): From the 38.5% of agreement, 55.5% were females and from 22.2% who strongly agreed 63.1% were females, *all revealing that it was mainly the females who were interested in contributing to the conservation of the areas they visit during their holidays ($p < 0.01$);*
- To educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday ($\chi^2 = 8.66$): From the 47.2% who agreed, 58.1% were females and from the 16.1% who strongly agreed 63.9% were females, *all illustrating that females were more likely to seek educational experiences from their ecoholidays ($p < 0.05$);*
- To educate and be educated by local people ($\chi^2 = 8.09$): From the 34.3% who agreed, 59.2% were females and from the 15.3% who strongly agreed 63.8% were females, *all expressing the dominant role of female frequent ecotourists in educational experiences with the local population ($p < 0.05$).*
- To be concerned that your presence there may damage the natural environment ($\chi^2 = 7.78$): From the 38.8% who agreed, 53.1% were females and from the 46.2% who strongly agreed 59.4% were females, *all outlining that although there was a more or less equal concern by both gender groups that they may damage the environment during their visits, the more dominant group was females ($p < 0.05$);*
- To go again, when possible ($\chi^2 = 7.34$): From the 32.7% who agreed, 58.1% were females and from the 18.5% who strongly agreed 61.4% were females, *distinguishing females as the primary group in terms of re-visiting the destination ($p < 0.1$).*

Education and consequences

Four consequences revealed a relationship with education. These were (see table 1):

- To educate and be educated by local people ($x^2 = 21.95$): From the total sample, 34.6% with a degree, 23.9% with a secondary education, 23.4% with a postgraduate qualification and 18.1% with an HND/Diploma all shared a form of agreement. This illustrated *that frequent ecotourists with a degree qualification were more tempted to educate and be educated by local people* ($p < 0.01$);
- Travel companies usage of the word 'eco-holidays' to attract more people ($x^2 = 15.38$): From the total sample, 40.2% with a degree, 23.2% with a secondary qualification, 20.6% with a postgraduate qualification and 16% with an HND/Diploma shared a form of agreement, *all indicating that degree holders had a better understanding of the promotional efforts of travel companies* ($p < 0.1$);
- To contribute actively in conservation of these area ($x^2 = 14.21$): From the total sample, 37% with a degree, 24.3% with a secondary qualification, 20% with a postgraduate qualification and 18.7% with an HND/Diploma shared a form of agreement. This indicated *that frequent ecotourists with a degree were more likely to assist with the conservation efforts of the destination* ($p < 0.1$); and
- To go again when possible ($x^2 = 11.70$): From the total sample, 37.1% with a degree, 26.3% with a secondary education, 18.6% with an HND/Diploma, and 18% with a postgraduate qualification shared a form of agreement. Similarly, *with all the latter relationships, it was the degree holders who tended to re-visit the destinations* ($p < 0.1$).

Age and consequences

Four consequences revealed a relationship with age. These were (see table 1):

- Travel companies usage of the word 'eco-holidays' to attract more people ($x^2 = 19.08$): From the 35.4% who agreed, 50% were middle-aged [35-54], 33.6% were younger [17-34] and 16.4% were older-aged [55+] ecotourists. From the 15.8% who strongly agreed, 51.7% were middle-aged, 30% were older and 18.3%

were younger frequent ecotourists, *indicating that the negative practices of travel companies was acknowledged mainly by the middle aged group*($p < 0.005$);

- To educate and be educated by local people ($x^2 = 17.92$): From the 34.3% who agreed, 46.2% were middle-aged, 27.7% were younger and 26.2% were older-aged frequent ecotourists. From the 15.3% who strongly agreed, 51.7% were middle-aged, 43.1% were younger and 5.2% were older frequent ecotourists, *indicating that the mutual educational experience with local's had been practiced mainly by the middle aged group* ($p < 0.01$);
- An awareness of the world's natural environment ($x^2 = 16.07$): From the 47% who agreed, 44.9% were middle-aged, 39.9% were younger and 15.2% were older-aged frequent ecotourists. From the 46.2% who strongly agreed, 54.9% were middle-aged, 25.7% were younger and 19.4% were older frequent ecotourists, *indicating that middle-aged frequent ecotourists were more aware of the world's natural environment* ($p < 0.01$); and
- To be more energetic and adventurous ($x^2 = 10.94$): From the 39.6% who agreed, 47.3% were middle-aged, 36.7% were younger and 16% were older-aged frequent ecotourists. From the 16.4% who strongly agreed, 58.1% were middle-aged, 32.3% were younger and 9.7% were older frequent ecotourists, *indicating that it was the middle as well as young-aged frequent ecotourists who wanted to become more energetic and adventurous* ($p < 0.01$).

Marital status and consequences

Four consequences revealed a relationship with marital status. These were (see table 1):

- Educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday ($x^2 = 19.34$): From the 47.2% of people who agreed, 57% were married, 34.1% were single, and 8.9% were divorced. The strongly agree answers (16.1%) were shared by 52.5% of married, 45.9% of single, and 1.6% of the divorced categories. Hence, *the educational experience of the holiday as a whole, was pioneered by married frequent ecotourists followed by those who are single* ($p < 0.005$);

- Educate and be educated by local people ($\chi^2 = 11.87$): From the 34.3% of people who agreed, 58.5% were married, 29.2% were single and 12.3% were divorced. Similarly out of the 15.3% of people who strongly agreed, 53.4% were married, 44.8% were single and 1.7% were divorced. *This indicated that it was the married frequent ecotourists who were likely to exchange a mutual educational experience with the local population ($p < 0.1$);*
- Becoming more energetic and adventurous ($\chi^2 = 11.65$): Here, out of the 39.6% who agreed, 56% were married, 35.3% were single and 8.7% were divorced. Out of 16.4% who strongly agreed, 46.8% were single, 41.9% were married and 11.3% were divorced. On other hand, both neutral and disagreement opinions were dominated by the married group, *all indicating that it was mainly single frequent ecotourists who expressed an interest in becoming more adventurous during their holidays ($p < 0.1$);*
- To recommendation by friends ($\chi^2 = 11.72$): From the 42.7% of frequent ecotourists with a neutral opinion, 54.3% were married, 37.7% were single and 8% were divorced. From the 41.2% of frequent ecotourists who showed a form of disagreement, 64.7% were married, 27.6% were single and 7.7% were divorced. These results led to the conclusion *that regardless of their marital status frequent ecotourists did not really take into account recommendations made by friends, although married and divorced frequent ecotourists were more likely to do so ($p < 0.1$).*

FACTOR CONSEQUENCES

For instance, 'to contribute actively in conservation of these areas' with Factor 1 (0.49), 'it was recommended to me by friends' with Factor 4 (0.39), 'to go again when possible' with Factor 2 (0.38) and 'to feel relaxed and calm' with Factor 3 (0.42).

ONE-WAY ANOVA

A one-way Anova procedure revealed that all four cluster's had significant ratings on 'awareness of the world's natural environment', with cluster 4 having the highest and cluster 1 the lowest (F-ratio= 30,7176; F-Probability=0.0000). On the other hand, only clusters 3, 2, 4, rated the consequence 'to be concerned that your presence there may damage the natural environment' (F-ratio= 32,2884; F-Probability= 0.0000). 'To respect the local population and indigenous people' was rated by all the clusters (F-ratio= 23,7138; F-Probability= 0.0000), with cluster 1 registering the lowest value and cluster 4 having the highest in all the cases. Furthermore, only cluster 4 highly rated the following consequences:

- 'contribute actively in conservation of these areas' (F-ratio= 75,9579; F-Probability= 0.0000); and
- 'educate and be educated by local people' (F-ratio=47,6066; F-Probability= 0.0000).

Moreover, 'to educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday' was also only rated by cluster 4 (F-ratio= 31,0349; F-Probability= 0.0000). 'Create a memory that normal holidays could not give me' was significantly more important to clusters 4, 3 and 2 than it was for cluster 1 (F-ratio= 83,3121; F-Probability= 0.0000). The consequence 'to go again, when possible' was significantly more important to clusters 3 and 4, than it was for clusters 1 and 2. *None of the clusters highly rated 'recommended by friends' outlining that this consequence was not included in any of the clusters* (F-ratio=18,1752; F-Probability= 0.0000).

Only cluster 4, highly rated the consequences:

- 'travel companies just use the word 'eco-holidays' to attract more people' (F-ratio= 33,4127; F-Probability= 0.0000);
- 'to feel relaxed and calm' (F-ratio= 27,7938; F-Probability= 0.0000); and
- 'to be more energetic and adventurous' (F-ratio= 35,4728; F-Probability= 0.0000).

Finally, the consequence ‘to maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers’ was illustrated in three different clusters (2, 3, and 4) suggesting that most of the frequent ecotourists partake in these holidays with an environmental consciousness.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VALUES AND SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS

In measuring the relationship between values and selected socio-demographics, a number of null hypothesis were tested. The results manifested that the major influence over the values arose from the levels of involvement, income and marital status. On the other hand, gender, age and education revealed only a few relationships indicating their lack of influence upon the values. Quite interestingly, the leading values of 'become more knowledgeable' and 'appreciate and respect the world we live in', were related to the levels of involvement, *an indication that only involvement influenced the leading values of frequent ecotourists*. Finally, six values were influenced by levels of involvement income and marital status, all indicating not only their complexity but their specialized nature (see table 1).

Levels of involvement and values

Eleven values showed a relationship with levels of involvement. These were (see table 1):

- Levels of involvement and become more knowledgeable ($x^2 = 39.74$): From the 57.5% who agreed, 46.7% were high-involved frequent ecotourists whereas from the 34.7% who strongly agreed, 76.6% were in the high-involvement category. This indicates, *that it was the high-involved frequent ecotourists who tended to become more knowledgeable from the ecotourism holiday* ($p < 0.00001$);
- Get excitement ($x^2 = 38.48$): From the 54.2% who agreed, 54% were high-involved frequent ecotourists and from the 20.9% who strongly agreed, 83.1% were in the high involvement group. In all the cases, *high-involved frequent ecotourists were mainly related with the value of excitement* ($p < 0.00001$);

Table 1 The relationship between values and socio-demographics

Variables	Chi-square (χ^2)	Significance
<u>Level of involvement</u>		
Become more knowledgeable	39.74	p<0.00001
Get excitement	38.48	p<0.00001
Have fun and enjoyment in life	26.19	p<0.00001
Achieve happiness	23.95	p<0.00005
Appreciate and respect the world we live in	22.54	p<0.00005
Get self-fulfillment	20.80	p<0.0001
Get sense of accomplishment	18.36	p<0.0005
Get sense of belonging	17.03	p<0.001
Experience warm relationships with others	10.30	p<0.01
Get value for money	10.27	p<0.01
Get self-respect	8.00	p<0.05
<u>Income</u>		
Experience warm relationships with others	22.80	p<0.001
Have fun and enjoyment in life	22.73	p<0.001
Get self-respect	21.07	p<0.001
Get security	20.52	p<0.005
Get value for money	18.16	p<0.005
Get excitement	17.44	p<0.01
Achieve happiness	16.31	p<0.01
Get self-fulfillment	13.72	p<0.01
<u>Marital status</u>		
Get excitement	23.56	p<0.001
Experience warm relationships with others	19.48	p<0.005
Achieve happiness	17.54	p<0.01
Get a sense of accomplishment	16.87	p<0.01
Have fun and enjoyment in life	15.17	p<0.01
Get self-fulfillment	11.44	p<0.1
Get self-respect	10.88	p<0.1
<u>Gender</u>		
Get value for money	8.50	p<0.05
Get self-respect	8.25	p<0.05
<u>Age</u>		
Get excitement	12.42	p<0.05

<u>Education</u>		
Achieve happiness	17.21	p<0.05

- Have fun and enjoyment in life ($x^2 = 26.19$): From the 56.9% who agreed, 54.8% were high-involved frequent ecotourists and from the 20.6% who strongly agreed, 77.6% were in the high-involvement group. In both cases, *high-involved frequent ecotourists were affiliated with fun and enjoyment in life* ($p<0.00001$);
- Achieve happiness ($x^2 = 23.95$): From the 50.9% who agreed, 59% were high -involved frequent ecotourists, whereas from the 14.9% who strongly agreed, 78.2% were in the high involvement group. Further, both neutral and disagreement opinions were pioneered by medium involved frequent ecotourism. In all the cases, *high-involved frequent ecotourists were the leading group to select this value* ($p<0.00005$);
- Appreciate and respect the world we live in ($x^2 = 22.54$): From the 46.1% who agreed, 44.1% were high involved frequent ecotourists, whereas from the 48.5% who strongly agreed, 68.2% were in the high involvement group. In all the cases, *high-involved frequent ecotourists were the leading group to select this value* ($p<0.00005$);
- Self-fulfillment ($x^2 = 20.80$): From the 54.7% who agreed, 56.9% were high -involved frequent ecotourists, whereas from the 15.7% who strongly agreed, 77.6% were in the high involvement group. Further, both neutral and disagreement opinions were pioneered by medium involved frequent ecotourists. This underlined, *that high -involved frequent ecotourists related more with the value of self-fulfillment than medium-involved frequent ecotourists* ($p<0.0001$);
- Get a sense of accomplishment ($x^2= 18.36$): Here, from the 57.5% of frequent ecotourists who agreed, 55.7% were in the high involvement category and the remaining 44.3% in the medium involvement group. A similar observation was noted amongst those who strongly agreed (18.2%), of which 74.6% were assigned to the high involvement group and 25.4% to the medium group. This highlights *that it was the high involvement frequent ecotourists who were likely to indicate the value of sense of accomplishment* ($p<0.0005$);

- Get a sense of belonging ($x^2 = 17.03$): From the 42.8% of frequent ecotourists who showed a neutral opinion, 46.8% were in the high-involvement category and the remaining 53.2% in the medium-involvement group, whereas from the 37.4% who agreed, 60.9% were in the high involvement group, *both in favor of high-involved frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.001$);
- Experience warm relationship with others ($x^2 = 10.30$): From the 40.1% who agreed, 60.1% were high-involved frequent ecotourists, whereas from the 38.5% who showed a neutral opinion, 49.3% were in the high involvement group, *all an indication of the dominance of high involved frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.01$);
- Get value for money ($x^2 = 10.27$): From the 52 % of frequent ecotourists who showed a neutral opinion, 49% were in the high involvement category and the remaining 51% in the medium involvement whereas from the 31.4% who agreed, 67.2% were in the high involvement group, *all in favor of high-involved frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.001$);
- Get self-respect ($x^2 = 8.00$): From the 49.9% of frequent ecotourists with a neutral opinion, 50.5% were in the high involvement group, from the 22% who disagreed, 53.1% were also in the high involvement group. Although, both agreement opinions were in favor of high involvement frequent ecotourists, they were not resilient enough to overshadow the fact that the high involvement group had more neutral and disagreement opinions, *making the medium involvement group slightly more dominant over this value* ($p < 0.05$).

Income and values

Eight values showed a relationship with income. These were (see table 1):

- Warm relationships with others ($x^2 = 22.80$): From the 39.6% of people who agreed, 30.7% were in the low-range, 39.3% were in the mid-range, and 30% were in the high-range. From the 38.3% of people with a neutral opinion, 20.7% were in the low -range, 36.6% were in the mid-range, and 42.8% were in the high-range. This illustrates, *that warm relationships with others was considered mainly by those in the low and mid-range income categories* ($p < 0.001$);

- Have fun and enjoyment in life ($\chi^2 = 22.73$): Out of the total 56.7% who agreed, 24.7% were in the low category, 36.7% in the mid and 38.6% in the high-range. Out of the 20.1% who strongly agreed, 44.7% were in low-range, 39.5% in the mid-range, and 15.8% in the high range. *It appears then, that fun and enjoyment in life was considered by all income earners* ($p < 0.001$);
- Get self-respect produced a different relationship ($\chi^2 = 21.07$): From the 49.6% of people with a neutral opinion, 27.1% were in the low-range, 39.4% were in the mid-range and 33.5% were in the high-range. From the 22.4% of people who disagreed, 21.2% were in the low-range, 34.1% were in the mid-range, and 44.7% were in the high-range. With both agreement opinions in favor of low income earners, *the results outlined that getting self-respect was primarily considered by low income frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.001$);
- Security highlighted a similar response ($\chi^2 = 20.52$): From the 46.4% with a neutral opinion, 30.1% were in the low range, 34.7% were in the mid-range, and 35.2% were in the high-range whereas from the 35.9% with a form of disagreement, 16.9% were in the low range, 44.9% were in the mid-range and 38.2% were in the high-range. With both agreement opinions in favor of low income earners, *the results pinpointed that if the value of security was considered it was mainly done so by low income earners* ($p < 0.005$);
- Get value for money was in favor of low income earners ($\chi^2 = 18.16$): From 51.2% of frequent ecotourists who showed a neutral opinion, 23.2% were in the low range, 38.1% in the mid-range, and 38.7% in the high-range, whereas from the 30.9% of people who agreed, 32.5% were in the low-range, 35% were in the mid-range and 32.5% were in the high range. This indicated *that get value for money was mainly considered by low income earners* ($p < 0.005$).

In contrast the remaining three relationships outline the values which were mainly considered by frequent ecotourists with mid-range incomes ($p < 0.001$):

- Get excitement ($x^2 = 17.44$): From the 53.8 % of frequent ecotourists who agreed, 25% were in the low-range, 38.2% were in the mid-range and 36.8% were in the high range. Out of the total 20.3% of the people who strongly agreed, 42.9% were in the low-range, 39% were in the mid-range, and 18.2% were in the high-range;
- Achieve happiness ($x^2 = 16.31$): From the 50.7 % of frequent ecotourists who agreed, 28.1% were in the low-range, 36.5% were in the mid-range and 35.4% were in the high-range. Out of the total 14.5% of the people who strongly agreed, 41.8% were in the low-range, 45.5% were in the mid-range, and 12.7% were in the high-range; and
- Get self-fulfillment ($x^2 = 13.72$): From the 54.4 % of frequent ecotourists who agreed, 26.7% were in the low-range, 38.3% were in the mid-range and 35% were in the high-range. Out of the total 15.3% of people who strongly agreed, 39.7% were in the low-range, 43.1% were in the mid-range, and 17.2% were in the high range.

Marital status and values

Seven values showed a relationship with marital status. These were (see table 1):

- Excitement ($x^2 = 23.56$): From the 53.8% of people who agreed, 63.7% were married, 29.4% were single, and 6.9% were divorced. Strongly agree answers (20.3%) were shared by 45.5% of married frequent ecotourists, 53.2% of single frequent ecotourists, and 1.3% of divorced frequent ecotourists. Hence, *the value of excitement, was selected mainly by married individuals, followed by single frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.001$);
- Warm relationships with others ($x^2 = 19.48$). From the 39.6% of people who agreed, 51.3% were married, 40.7% were single and 8.0% were divorced. From the 38.3% of the sample with a neutral opinion, 30.3% were married, 30.3% were single and 5.5% were divorced. *This indicated that it was married frequent ecotourists who were likely to exchange warm relationships with others* ($p < 0.005$);

- Achieve happiness ($\chi^2 = 17.54$): From 50.7% who agreed, 38.5% were single, 54.7% were married, and 6.8% were divorced. From the 29% of people with a neutral opinion, 20.9% were single, 68.2% were married, and 10.9% were divorced, *all revealing that it was mainly the married frequent ecotourists who indicated the value of achieving happiness* ($p < 0.01$);
- Sense of accomplishment ($\chi^2 = 16.87$): From 56.7% who agreed, 34.4% were single, 60% were married, and 5.6% were divorced. From the 19.3% of people with a neutral opinion, 21.9% were single, 68.5% were married, and 9.6% were divorced, *all suggesting that it was mainly the married frequent ecotourists who indicated the value of sense of accomplishment* ($p < 0.01$);
- Fun and enjoyment in life ($\chi^2 = 15.17$): From 56.7% who agreed, 33.5% were single, 59.1% were married, and 7.4% were divorced. From the 20.3% of people with a neutral opinion, 23.4% were single, 68.8% were married, and 7.8% were divorced, *all revealing that it was mainly the married frequent ecotourists who indicated the value of have fun and enjoyment in life* ($p < 0.01$);
- Self-fulfillment ($\chi^2 = 11.44$): From 54.4% who agreed, 35.9% were single, 57.8% were married, and 6.3% were divorced. From the 22.2% of people with a neutral opinion, 23.8% were single, 66.7% were married, and 9.5% were divorced, *all highlighting that it was mainly the married frequent ecotourists who selected the value of self-fulfillment* ($p < 0.1$); and
- Marital status and get self-respect ($\chi^2 = 17.54$): From 23.2% who agreed, 42% were single, 51.1% were married, and 6.8% were divorced. From the 49.6% of people with a neutral opinion, 33% were single, 59% were married, and 8.0% were divorced, *all outlining that in cases where this value was considered it was mainly done so by married frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.1$).

Gender, age, education and values

Two values showed a relationship with gender. These were (see table 1):

- Get value for money ($\chi^2 = 8.50$): Here, from the 51.2% who showed a neutral opinion, 53.6% were females and from the 30.9% who agreed, 55.6% were also females, *allowing females to be more likely to search for value for money* ($p < 0.05$);

Get self-respect ($\chi^2 = 8.25$): Here, from the 49.6% who showed a neutral opinion, 58% were females and from the 23.2% who agreed, 53.4% were also females *expressing that in circumstances where this value was considered it was mainly done so by female frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.05$).

One value showed a relationship with age. This was (see table 1):

- Excitement ($\chi^2 = 12.42$): From the 53.8% of people who agreed, 29.9% were in the young-age range, 52% were middle-aged, and 18.1% older aged. Out of 20.3% conceding a strong agreement, 46.8% were in the young-aged group, 42.9% were middle-aged, and 10.4% in the older category. This suggested that *the value of excitement was mainly considered by young and middle-aged frequent ecotourists* ($p < 0.05$).

One value showed a relationship with education. This was (see table 1):

- Happiness ($\chi^2 = 17.21$): Of the total 50.7% of frequent ecotourists who shared an agreement, 24.5% had a secondary education, 16.1% were HND/Diploma holders, 31.3% were degree holders, and 28.1% were postgraduates. Next, of the total 14.5% who strongly agreed, 25.5% had a secondary education, 9.1% were HND/Diploma holders, 54.5% were degree holders, and 10.9% were postgraduates. This suggested that *the value of happiness was mainly considered by degree holders* ($p < 0.05$).

FACTOR VALUES AND OVER SAMPLES

Initially, the distinction which came to light was that two internal values (self respect and warm relationships with others) have diversified to the external domain, suggesting that frequent ecotourists were interested in forming personal relationships, as a result of externally motivated values. This was similar to previous quantitative analysis (I) where *the external/personal factor 1 of this sample was identical to factor 2 of the previous analysis, an indication of the similarities between these two samples*. One distinct difference however, was that the values of both 'become well respected' and 'security' have not been very popular among frequent ecotourists in this sample. This suggests that due to lack of 'security' and 'become well respected', the value of 'self-respect' was noted which in turn led to the enhancement of personal relationships. The extent to which frequent ecotourists illustrated the external/personal domains as the first factor, illustrated that this type of holiday primarily aroused the external interests of its consumers.

Further, *the pleasure/achievement and price domain (Factor 2) of this sample was more or less similar to Factor 1 of the previous quantitative analysis (I)*. Quite interestingly the two additional values found in the laddering, that of 'get value for money' and 'achieve happiness' were related to pleasure and achievement orientated values. The inclusion of price in this factor distribution outlined that the search of value for money from the ecotourism holiday was related only with the pleasurable and achievable orientated aspects rather than external/personal aspects.

With regards to factor 3, the interconnected basis of these two values found in the laddering interviews has been confirmed in this sample, allowing a conclusion to be drawn that these two values were related. In all the cases, the maturity/knowledgeable domain has been tested only in this sample as a result of the laddering interviews, therefore no conclusion can be derived as to how the sample in the quantitative analysis (I) would have responded.

REGRESSION AND OTHER SAMPLES

In the previous quantitative analysed sample (I) high-involved occasional ecotourists were influenced only by the personal/achievement internal domains, allowing the generalisation *that high-involved ecotourists (occasional and frequent) are were motivated by any group of external/personal orientated values. However, the maturity/knowledgeable domains were only quantitatively tested in this sample, allowing the comparison to be drawn with the laddering interviews. Here, similarities existed between these two samples, all confirming the higher likelihood of high-involved frequent ecotourists to be concerned with the maturity/knowledgeable domain.*

ONE WAY ANOVA

A one-way Anova procedure revealed that the value of 'self-respect' had the highest ratings in cluster 1 than in the other three clusters (F-ratio= 81,0091; F-probability=0.0000). Clusters 1, 3 and 4 rated the value of 'self-fulfillment' higher than cluster 2, pointing out that this value is considered in more than one segment (F-ratio= 102,7139; F-probability=0.0000). Similarly, clusters 1, 3, and 4 rated the value of 'sense of accomplishment' significantly higher than in cluster 2 (F-ratio= 82,1555; F-probability=0.0000). The value of *'being well respected'* was not important to the clusters, although it was more likely to appear in cluster 1 rather than in any other segment (F-ratio= 84,4111; F-probability=0.0000). Clusters 1, 3, and 4 had the most significant values rating of 'fun and enjoyment in life' (F-ratio= 76.7674; F-probability=0.0000) and of 'excitement' (F-ratio= 70.6177; F-probability=0.0000). The value of 'sense of belonging' was included only in cluster 1 (F-ratio= 92.8004; F-probability=0.0000), and the value of 'warm relationships with others' had the most significant ratings in clusters 1 and 4 (F-ratio= 81,3551; F-probability=0.0000). *None of the clusters rated the value of 'security' highly, although it was more likely to appear in cluster 1 rather than in any other group* (F-ratio= 70,1308; F-probability=0.0000). Cluster 1 rated the value of 'get value for money' higher than clusters 2, 3, and 4, pointing out that this value is only considered by one segment (F-ratio= 39,8237; F-probability=0.0000). Clusters 1, 3, and 4 had the most significant ratings for the values of 'achieve happiness' (F-ratio= 88,7724; F-probability=0.0000) and of 'become more knowledgeable' (F-ratio= 60,4229; F-probability=0.0000). Finally the value of *'appreciate and respect the world we live in'* had high scores in all the clusters, but was higher in cluster 1 than it was in cluster 2 (F-ratio= 39,3760; F-probability=0.0000).

APPENDIX ELEVEN

RESULTS OF THE COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF OCCASIONAL AND FREQUENT ECOTOURISTS

The value and involvement profile of the occasional ecotourists

<i>Clusters</i>	<i>Values*</i>	<i>Involvement</i>
1.Natural based seekers	<u>Internal pleasure and achievement:</u> Excitement Fun and enjoyment in life Sense of accomplishment Self-fulfillment	HIGH
2.Social/natural/ educational seekers	<u>External/personal domains:</u> Being well respected Security Sense of belonging Self-respect <u>Internal pleasure and achievement:</u> Excitement Fun and enjoyment in life Sense of accomplishment Self-fulfillment	HIGH
3. Social/outdoor seekers	---	MEDIUM
4.Imaginative seekers	<u>External/personal domains:</u> Being well respected Security Sense of belonging Self-respect <u>Internal pleasure and achievement:</u> Excitement Fun and enjoyment in life Sense of accomplishment Self-fulfillment	HIGH

*: appear in order of importance

The meaning of ecotourism by male and female frequent ecotourists

Attributes	Overall appearance	Likelihood of gender appearance
To see the natural environment and protected areas	28 times	Females > Males
Travel to wild places on earth	16 times	Females > Males
Experience unique exclusive place	14 times	Males > Females
Expensive holiday	14 times	Females > Males
To do a survey and/or study of natural habitants	12 times	Males > Females
Experience of local culture	12 times	Males = Females
To go somewhere that is not solely commercial	11 times	Females > Males
To participate in outdoor activities	11 times	Females > Males
To visit historical attractions	8 times	Females > Males
To experience traditional and natural lifestyles	6 times	Males = Females
To travel to third world countries	5 times	Females > Males

The meaning of ecotourism by male and female frequent ecotourists

Consequences	Overall appearance	Likelihood of gender appearance
Educate and be educated by the ecotourism holiday	14 times	Males = Females
Have an awareness of the worlds natural environment	13 times	Males > Females
To educate and be educated by local people	12 times	Males = Females
To contribute actively in conservation of these areas	12 times	Females > Males
To create a memory that normal holidays could not give me	11 times	Females > Males
To be concerned that your presence there may damage the environment	8 times	Females > Males
To be more energetic and adventurous	8 times	Females = Males
To maintain the environmental standards for future holiday makers	8 times	Females > Males
To feel relaxed and calm	6 times	Males
To respect the local population and indigenous people	6 times	Females > Males
It was recommended by friends	5 times	Females
To go again, when possible	5 times	Females
I felt that travel companies just use the word ecoholidays to attract more people	5 times	Females

The consequences, value, and involvement profiles of the frequent ecotourists during the interviews

<i>Consequences</i>	<i>Values*</i>	<i>Involvement</i>
<u>Core:</u> Conservation Awareness of the environment Education from the holiday Set standards for future holiday makers	<u>Maturity/knowledgeable:</u> Appreciate and respect the world we live in Become more knowledgeable	MEDIUM
<u>Enhanced and augmented:</u> Relaxation Energetic and adventurous	<u>Internal domain:</u> Fun and enjoyment Get warm relationship with other Sense of fulfillment Achieve happiness	MEDIUM
<u>Core:</u> Conservation Concern that your presence may damage the environment Awareness of the environment Education from the holiday Set standards for future holiday makers Education from the local population Respect the local population	<u>Maturity/knowledgeable:</u> Appreciate and respect the world we live in Become more knowledgeable	HIGH
<u>Enhanced and augmented:</u> Lifetime memory Relax and calm Energetic and adventurous	<u>Internal domain:</u> Sense of accomplishment Fun and enjoyment Sense of fulfillment Achieve happiness	HIGH

The attributes, value and involvement profile of the frequent ecotourists

<i>Clusters</i>	<i>Attributes*</i> <i>ecotourism components</i>	<i>Values*</i>	<i>Involvement</i>
1.Social/ environmentally awareness seekers	---	<u>External/personal domains:</u> Being well respected Security Self-respect Warm relationship with others Sense of belonging	MEDIUM
2.Social/ environmentally conscious seekers	---	<u>Internal pleasure /achievement and price:</u> Excitement Fun and enjoyment in life Self-fulfillment Sense of accomplishment Get value for money Happiness	HIGH AND MEDIUM
3.Social/ environmentally and educational re-experience seekers	<u>Social/cultural:</u> Traditional and natural lifestyles Local culture <u>Price/outdoor:</u> Expensive holiday Somewhere that is not solely commercial Outdoor/recreational	<u>Internal pleasure /achievement and price:</u> Excitement Fun and enjoyment in life Self-fulfillment Sense of accomplishment Get value for money Happiness <u>External/personal domains:</u> Being well respected Security Self-respect Warm relationship with others Sense of belonging	HIGH AND MEDIUM

*: appear in order of importance

<i>Clusters</i>	<i>Attributes*</i> <i>ecotourism components</i>	<i>Values*</i>	<i>Involvement</i>
4.Re-experience social/ environmentally/ educational/ conservational seekers	<u>Educational:</u> Do a survey and/or study of natural habitants Visit historic attractions Third world countries <u>Natural attractions:</u> Travel to wild places on earth Natural environment and protected areas Experience a unique exclusive place <u>Social/cultural:</u> Traditional and natural lifestyles Local culture <u>Price/outdoor:</u> Expensive holiday Somewhere that is not solely commercial Outdoor/recreational	<u>Maturity/knowledgeable domain:</u> Appreciate and respect the world we live in Become more knowledgeable <u>External/personal domains:</u> Being well respected Security Self-respect Warm relationship with others Sense of belonging <u>Internal pleasure /achievement and price:</u> Excitement Fun and enjoyment in life Self-fulfillment Sense of accomplishment Get value for money Happiness	HIGH

*: appear in order of importance