THE SUFFICIENCY ECONOMY PHILOSOPHY APPLICATION AND THE BUSINESS SUCCESS FOR TOURISM INDUSTRY IN THE NORTH OF THAILAND

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Abstract
This paper has assessed the relationship between the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application and the business success in the Thai tourism businesses in the North of Thailand. The practitioner-oriented literature review indicates that the understanding about the application of the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy in the Thai tourism business sector has improved significantly over the years. However, a search of previous studies on Sufficiency Economy Philosophy in Thailand indicates that little empirical research has ever been conducted in assessing the relationship between the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application of Thai tourism businesses and their success: the profits/losses, the sales revenues and the number of the customers. This research, therefore, investigates 2,389 key tourism businesses in the North of Thailand in applying the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy relating to their business success. The T-test and the One-way Anova analysis have shown that the higher level the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy have been applied, the higher level the business success will be. The findings will be of value to the tourism industry in being guidelines for applying the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy for business success. Various recommendations are made to guide current and prospective tourism entrepreneurs, researchers, as well as tourism policymakers and education.

Keywords: Sufficiency Economy Philosophy Application, Tourism Business Success, Profits/Losses, Sales Revenues, Number of the Customers

Introduction
In the sustainability literature, there have been efforts around the world to find an approach to organizational sustainability (Avery, 2005). In Thailand, the philosophy of a 'Sufficiency Economy' was introduced by His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej as a means toward more sustainable development to cope with critical challenges arising from changes occurring as a result of globalization (Avery, 2005), which appears to have empirical support from the broader literature. Thailand's 'Sufficiency Economy' philosophy stems from remarks made by His Majesty King Bhumibol Adulyadej throughout his 58 years of the throne (NESDB, 2004a). It stresses the 'middle' path as the overriding principle for Thai people's conduct and way of life at the individual, family, business and community levels. Within the philosophical framework, choice of balanced development strategies for the nation in line with the forces of globalization is allowed, with the need for adequate protection from internal and external shocks. In particular, after the Asian economic crisis in 1997 in which numerous business organizations in Thailand went bankrupt, His Majesty reiterated the philosophy as the way to recovery that would lead to a more resilient and sustainable economy (NESDB, 2004b).
Later empirical evidence in Thai business organizations, in particular in the tourism industry (Kantabutra, 2005; Nuttavuthisit, 2005) also lends support to the anticipated result of applying the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy to sustain business performance. Moreover, an additional study by Santiprabhob (2005) revealed that these businesses operated under a long-term perspective and valued their human resources. They also genuinely focused on a wide range of stakeholders, and embraced ethical, social and environmentally friendly practices. In comparison with the broader sustainability literature, these commonalities are consistent with recent findings from a major corporate sustainability study in the Western world by Avery (2005), which examined twenty-eight sustainable enterprises in Europe. Therefore, the Sufficiency Economy philosophy appears to have gained empirical support from the Western study by Avery (2005). Also Calkins (2006) demonstrates that there is no inherent contradiction between modern economics and the Sufficiency Economy philosophy; the two are fundamentally complementary. As a result, it can be expected that tourism organizations in the corporate world that use the Sufficiency Economy philosophy to guide their business activities will be able sustain their business performance in the long run.

**Research Aims**

The purposes of this research are as follows:

1. To assess the agreement with and existence of the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application in the overall tourism industry of the North of Thailand
2. To measure tourism business success in the North of Thailand: the profits/losses, the sales revenues and the number of the customers
3. To test the proposition that the closer the adherence to the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application, the higher the level of the business success
4. To identify any factors, which influence the relationship between the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application and the business success

**Sufficiency Economy (SE) and Tourism Businesses in Thailand**

The Sufficiency Economy philosophy framework presented in Figure 1 in the next page comprises three components and two underlying conditions (Piboolsravut, 2004, p.129). First, **Sufficiency** entails three components: **moderation, reasonableness, and requirement for a self-immunity system**, i.e. the ability to cope with shocks from internal and external changes. Second, two underlying conditions necessary to achieve **Sufficiency** are **knowledge and morality**. Sufficiency Economy requires breadth and thoroughness in planning, carefellowness in applying knowledge, and the implementation of those plans. At the same time, it is essential to strengthen the moral fibre so that everyone, particularly public officials, theorists and businessmen, adheres first and foremost to the principles of honesty and integrity. In addition, a balanced approach combining patience, perseverance, diligence, wisdom and prudence is indispensable to cope appropriately with critical challenges arising from extensive and rapid socioeconomic, environmental, and cultural changes occurring as a result of globalization. The Sufficiency Economy philosophy serves as a guide for the way of living/behaving for people of all levels, and is scalable with universal domain applicability, including business organizations (Piboolsravut, 2004).

Among the first reported studies of the Sufficiency Economy in business organizations, Puntasen, Premchuen and Keitdejpunya’s study (2003) examined 296 Thai SMEs, from six groups of industries (food and beverage, clothing and leather products, wood, paper and
printing, rubber and plastic, metals and non-metals, and machinery and transport equipments), which successfully went through the 1997 economic crisis. They concluded that all SMEs which successfully went through the crisis conducted their businesses according to the seven Sufficiency Economy business practices. These Sufficiency Economy business practices are as follow: (1) appropriate use of technology (i.e. use of inexpensive, but technically sound technology); (2) appropriate manufacturing capacity consistent with business’ ability to manage; (3) no greed and focus on short term profits; (4) emphasis on honesty in entire business operation. (i.e. fair to consumers, workers, customers and suppliers); (5) emphasis on risk diversification (i.e. various products and/or ability to adjust products); (6) focus on “down side risk management” (i.e. do not create unmanageable debts); and (7) focus on responding to local, regional, domestic and international markets respectively.

![Fig. no. 1 Sufficiency Economy Framework](image)

Although Puntasen et al.’s (2003) study lends support for the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy that Sufficiency Economy SMEs had the ability to sustain their businesses during the economic crisis, it did not explore in great depth the process by which the SMEs applied the philosophy. Later research sponsored by the Sufficiency Economy Movement subcommittee at the National Economic and Social Development Board examined three sustainable businesses in Thailand. Unlike Puntasen et al. (2003), these studies adopted the three components and two underlying conditions of the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy as their research framework to explore the process. Since the studies needed to understand the process, the case study approach to research was adopted. The two of the three business case studies are tourism businesses: Sa (the fibre of mulberry trees) product business (Kantabutra, 2005) and a jewelry business (Nuttavuthisit, 2005). All were chosen because they (a) have reasonably strong financial performance, (b) export their products overseas, thus being challenged by the force of globalization, (c) have successfully gone through the 1997 economic crisis, demonstrating their ability to deal with difficult economic and social
difficulties, and (d) can maintain a leadership position in their relevant market. Consistent with Puntasen et al. (2003), the Sa paper products business adopted and/or invented its own technologies (e.g. color formula, water treatment system, recycle system), using local wisdoms (Kantabutra, 2005). It also managed its manufacturing capacity to ensure that the capacity was not beyond its ability to manage (i.e. no more purchase orders taken if the manufacturing capacity was limited), not aiming for short term gains. The business was also honest to a wide range of stakeholders and diversified its market and products. It did not loan at all, and emphasized a low risk management. Initially, it sold its products within the local communities and domestic market first. Then, it started to export its products internationally.

Nuttavuthisit (2005) highlighted that the jewelry business went through the 1997 economic crisis primarily because of its long-term relationship with trade partners and highly diversified products and market. The jewelry business also heavily emphasized social contribution and was accountable for a wide range of stakeholders. It did not aim at maximizing profits, but normalizing profits. This demonstrates its long-term perspective. Given its emphasis on skills development, the jewelry business also significantly invested on developing its own human resources. Skilled workers were key factors to its highly innovative products. These findings endorse the Puntasen et al.’s (2003) and Kantabutra’s (2005) studies.

Later on, Santiprabhob (2005) identified common business practices between the Sa paper product business and the jewelry business. He found that both sustainable enterprises were “moderate” in taking purchase orders, making profits, making loan and expanding the businesses. Moreover, both thoroughly understood their businesses and competitive environment, including key success factors, and efficiently utilized their resources. They diversified their markets and products to minimize risks, managed raw materials well, and promoted saving. Supporting staff learning, both worked with other businesses to advance industry knowledge and standard, eventually developing their relevant markets. In terms of ethics and virtues, they invested in waste management, competed fairly, developed alliance to form a cluster, promoted morality within their organizations, and contributed socially.

From all the literature review that can be found, Chartungruang (2009) explored 10 community-based tourism sites, 2 resorts and 5 souvenir businesses that have claimed applying the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy and have been around successfully for over years, weathering economic ups and downs. This study adopted the three components and two underlying conditions of the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy as the research framework to explore the common processes of these tourism businesses in the literature review. It reviewed the practitioner-oriented literature on the application of the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy in the Thai tourism business sector. Also Chartungruang (2010) proposed a new assessment tool in Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application for tourism industry sustainability. This tool was designed based upon all the related theoretical and practitioner-oriented literature review. It comprises 164 items in the questionnaire which was proved valid and reliable. These 164 items were reduced into 25-variable model with the high reliability coefficient value (0.98) by Chartungruang (2011). The five factors comprise the following items:

Factor 1 requirement for a self-immunity system reflects the ability to cope with shocks from internal and external changes. There are 4 variables: Value-added knowledge base revenue, Innovation in products, Plans for unexpected changes and Participation of shareholders. The factor loadings are fairly high (0.72-0.79).
Factor 2 *morality* has 5 variables: Perseverance in doing businesses, Sincerity with customers and investors, Honesty in doing businesses, Diligence in doing businesses successfully and Staff as family members. The factor loadings are fairly high (0.70-0.83).

Factor 3 *reasonableness* consists of 5 variables: Balance in business benefit sharing, Focus on both self and social interests, Know customers, markets, competitors and themselves, Short-term, medium-term and long-term benefits and Strategies in consistent with the environment. The factor loadings are fairly high (0.61-0.71).

Factor 4 *knowledge* has 4 variables: Create staff quality-consciousness, Use knowledge for right consideration, Knowledgeable in their core businesses and Conservation and promotion of the local culture. The factor loadings are fairly high (0.55-0.75).

Factor 5 *moderation* consists of 7 variables: Hire only necessary staff, Not over the production capacity, Expand as self capacity and environment, Fair pricing, Fair profit sharing, Have business action steps and Moderate risk taking. The factor loadings are in the medium till fairly high (0.47-0.75).

However, a search of previous studies on Sufficiency Economy Philosophy in Thailand indicates that little empirical research has ever been conducted in assessing the relationship between the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application of Thai tourism businesses and their success: the profits/losses, the sales revenues and the number of the customers. The present study will use the findings of Chartrungruang (2009), Chartrungruang’s (2010) assessment tool and Chartrungruang’s (2011) model as the base to assess the relationship between the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application and the business success in the Thai tourism businesses in the North of Thailand.

**METHODOLOGY**

The data was gathered from 2,389 key tourism businesses in Chiang Mai, Chiang Rai and Mae Hong Son which have more than 80% of the total tourism businesses in the North of Thailand (Tourism Authority of Thailand, 2012, Online). The sample group included 478 car rent entrepreneurs (total population = 762), 484 guesthouse entrepreneurs (total population = 780), 537 restaurant entrepreneurs (total population = 667), 360 souvenir business entrepreneurs (total population = 467) and 530 tour business entrepreneurs (total population = 1,049) by the use of Chartrungruang’s (2010) assessment tool and Chartrungruang’s (2011) model. The Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application assessment was made through a Likert-style five point scale (1 = never to 5 = all the times) with 7 items of *moderation*, 5 items of *reasonableness*, 4 items of *requirement for a self-immunity system*, 4 items of *knowledge* and 5 items of *morality*. While the business success assessment was made through profits/losses (have profits and no profits), sales volumes (higher sales volumes than last year, sales revenues = last year and lower sales revenues than last year) and numbers of customers (higher numbers than last year, numbers = last year and lower numbers than last year). An accidental sampling method was used when collecting data. The validity analysis of the instrument was through the expert group of professional members of the Northern Tourism Business Association with 89.7% content validity index (CVI). The pilot test was implemented through the members of the association which are business entrepreneurs in the tourism industry in the North of Thailand. The overall and the individual factor reliability coefficient value were medium high (overall = 0.83, *moderation* = 0.65, *reasonableness* = 0.71, *requirement for a self-immunity system* = 0.72, *knowledge* = 0.57 and *morality* = 0.84).
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Demographical Data

For the overall sample as shown in details in Table 1 (p.5), most of the business owners are female (60.3%), married (52.3%) in the age of 31-40 (38%) with Bachelor Degree (50.4%). Their positions in the businesses are owners and executives (58.9%). This means they manage their businesses by themselves. The length of their businesses is 1-5 years (40.8%) and the business type is one-owner (67.9%) with 1-50 employees (81.4%). They have earned profits in the present (57.7%); however their sales revenues and the number of customers are less than last year (47.8% and 55.3%).

Table no. 1 Demographic Data of the Overall Sample Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Data</th>
<th>Overall (N = 2,389)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>948 Males (39.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,441 Females (60.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage Status</td>
<td>1,249 Married (52.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>746 Single (31.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>907 samples with 31-40 (38%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>641 samples with 41-50 (26.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>495 samples with 21-30 (20.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>318 samples with 51-60 (13.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
<td>1,204 samples with Bachelor Degree (50.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>363 samples with Higher Diploma (15.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>288 samples with High School (12.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>1,406 Owners and Executives (58.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>452 Executives (18.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>242 Owners, not Executives (10.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Business</td>
<td>975 samples with 1-5 years (40.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>868 samples with 6-10 years (36.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Type</td>
<td>1,621 samples with One-Owner Style (67.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>402 samples with Company Style (16.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>366 samples with Partnership Style (15.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Employees</td>
<td>1,944 samples with 1-50 (81.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>282 samples with no employees (11.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profits</td>
<td>1,379 samples with Profits (57.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,010 samples with No Profits (42.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales Revenues</td>
<td>516 samples with sales revenues &gt; last year (21.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>731 samples with sales revenues = last year (30.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,142 samples with sales revenues &lt; last year (47.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Customers</td>
<td>507 samples with no. of customers &gt; last year (21.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>561 samples with no. of customers = last year (23.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,321 samples with no. of customers &lt; last year (55.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remarks: This Table includes only the items that are higher than 10%.
Data Analysis of the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy Application Assessment

Since there are 25 items in the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application assessment, the means and the modes of the 5 factors (three components and two underlying conditions) were used for the data analysis as in Table 2.

From Table 2 in the next page, the overall sample groups have applied the reasonableness, requirement for a self-immunity system and knowledge most of the times while they all the times have applied moderation and morality.

Table no. 2 The Sufficiency Economy Philosophy Application Assessment Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTOR</th>
<th>MODE</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moderation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reasonableness</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>requirement for a self-immunity system</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>morality</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Analysis of the relationship Assessment between the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application and the business success

For the relationship between the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application of Thai tourism businesses and their success: the profits/losses, the sales revenues and the number of the customers, the mean value analysis was used to compare the samples with Have Profits and the samples with No Profits, the samples with sales revenues > last year, the samples with sales revenues = last year and the samples with sales revenues < last year, as well as the samples with the number of customers > last year, samples with the number of customers = last year and the samples with the number of customers < last year. The results are as the following tables:

Table no. 3 The Mean Value Results of Sufficiency Economy Philosophy Application Assessment and the business profits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTOR</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>SIG.(2-TAILED)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moderation (7 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- With Profits</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.031*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- No Profits</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasonableness (4 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- With Profits</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- No Profits</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>requirement for a self-immunity system (3 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- With Profits</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- No Profits</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 3 above, the samples with profits have higher mean values than the samples with no profits except Morality. This can be interpreted that the samples with profits are more likely to apply the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy than the samples with no profits except Morality. Also it can be concluded that the more the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy, in particular Moderation, Reasonableness and requirement for a self-immunity system has been applied, the more statistically significant the business profits will be.

For the sales revenues, the below Table 4 identifies that the samples with higher sales revenues are inclined to apply all the factors of the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy, except Morality. This means the more Sufficiency Economy Philosophy, in particular Moderation, requirement for a self-immunity system and Knowledge have been applied, the statistically significant higher the sales revenues will be.

Table no. 4 The Mean Value Results of Sufficiency Economy Philosophy Application Assessment and the sales revenues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTOR</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>SIG. (2-TAILED)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge (3 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Profits</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Profits</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morality (5 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Profits</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Profits</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTOR</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>SIG. (2-TAILED)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moderation (7 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues &gt; last year</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues = last year</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues &lt; last year</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasonableness (4 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues &gt; last year</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues = last year</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues &lt; last year</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>requirement for a self-immunity system (3 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues &gt; last year</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues = last year</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues &lt; last year</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge (3 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues &gt; last year</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues = last year</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues &lt; last year</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morality (5 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues &gt; last year</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues = last year</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with sales revenues &lt; last year</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table no. 5 The Mean Value Results of Sufficiency Economy Philosophy Application Assessment and the number of customers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTOR</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>SIG. (2-TAILED)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Moderation (7 items)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers &gt; last year</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers = last year</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers &lt; last year</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reasonableness (4 items)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers &gt; last year</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers = last year</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers &lt; last year</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Requirement for a self-immunity system (3 items)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers &gt; last year</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers = last year</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers &lt; last year</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Knowledge (3 items)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers &gt; last year</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers = last year</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers &lt; last year</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Morality (5 items)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers &gt; last year</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers = last year</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- with the number of customers &lt; last year</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above Table 5 presents clearly that the samples with more number of customers than last year have higher mean values than the samples with fewer number of customers than last year, except Morality. It maybe because the samples with fewer number of customers than last year would like to produce high quality of products and services which are expectable expensive and fewer number of customers can pay for them. It can be assumed that the more the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy, except Morality has been applied, the statistically significant higher the number of the customers will be.
In conclusion, the above findings have revealed that the closer the adherence to the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application, the higher the level of the business success.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

From the above findings and discussions, there are some implications worthwhile to mention for the following stakeholders:

Implications for Chiang Mai business owners in the tourism industry

- As the T-test results, the tourism businesses in the North of Thailand should put the emphasis on Moderation, Reasonableness and requirement for a self-immunity system since these factors can increase more profits significantly.
- The tourism businesses should apply more Moderation, requirement for a self-immunity system and Knowledge. This is because more Moderation, more requirement for a self-immunity system and more Knowledge brings more sales revenues significantly.
- As the Oneway Anova analysis results, the tourism businesses in the North of Thailand should apply Moderation, Reasonableness, requirement for a self-immunity system and Knowledge in order to increase the number of the customers significantly.

Implications for the Concerned Government Agencies

The concerned government agencies, such as Tourism Authority of Thailand and Ministry of Tourism and Sports can support the application of Sufficiency Economy in tourism businesses according to the study results by the following:
- The concerned government agencies should encourage firms to apply more the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy by informing them the better results in profits, sales revenues and customers.
- More training courses in applying Sufficiency Economy for tourism business entrepreneurs and managers should be conducted continuously, in particular about the significant factors from the research.
- Some campaigns to promote the application of Sufficiency Economy in tourism businesses should be conducted, such as business tax reduction, the Award giving for the application of Sufficiency Economy in tourism businesses, government and local fee reduction in operating businesses or giving some privileges.
- Some more research in the application of Sufficiency Economy in tourism businesses should be sponsored and supported in order to enlighten tourism businesses in applying Sufficiency Economy in their businesses successfully.

Implications for Further Research

- More research in the application of the philosophy is encouraged to further enhance the understanding of Sufficiency Economy in tourism businesses, in particular exploring in the individual key business in the tourism industry.
- To date most of case-study communities and firms where the Sufficiency Economy theory has been applied are descriptive in nature. While this is an essential first step, the statistical, econometric and optimization tools of standard Western economics should also be applied and quantitative studies in this field are in need, such as
measuring the customer satisfaction levels and the number of repeated customers before and after applying Sufficiency Economy.

This study was conducted only in the North of Thailand, so it can not be generalized. Further research can study in the other regions of Thailand or in other countries in the ASEAN Community which have the similar settings in order to be able to compare the relationship between the Sufficiency Economy Philosophy application and the business success from different regions or countries for the sake of Thai and ASEAN tourism.

Hence, applying Sufficiency Economy in tourism businesses will lead to the business success and finally to the national and ASEAN tourism success.

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The Contribution of Airlines in Consolidating the
Sustainability of Tourism

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Abstract

Discussion in the literature of the risks associated with climate changes is not new, but
the impending challenges are only now beginning to be comprehended by the global
tourism industry and individual operators.

It’s imperative not only to understand the risks but to recognize the growing and urgent
need to address the adverse effects of the climate change.

In the context of the climate change risks, every sector contributes –to some extent- to the
problem. This means that shifts in practices should be implemented to reduce the carbon
emissions. Regarding the negative environmental impacts of the tourism sector, the
airlines seem to be one of the main felons and even the first one. Accordingly, the
strategies of the airlines must be part of the solution for air pollution caused by the
aircrafts.

The aim of this working paper is to highlight the frame work of the airlines operating
from the Egyptian cities. The exploratory study refers to what steps are being taken and
encompassed as an environmental performance for some airlines. The study ends with
discussion and concluding comments regarding the measures and strategies of some
airlines and suggestions for improvement.

Key words: Climate changes, environmental performance of airlines, carbon emissions
and aircrafts.

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1.0 Introduction

According to many sources, climate changes are expected to have a significant impact on tourism (Gossling 2011, Rosenthal 2009, Strasdas 2010).

In a world increasingly aware of climate change issues, the attitudes of the community and potential customers will become more important for business relevance. The growth of clean technology, green industries and investment protocols are evidence of this (Robyn 2013).

In many destinations worldwide, tourism was found to be in conflict with the environment, along with detrimental social impacts. The concepts of ecological limits, resource management and carrying capacities have been found to be appropriate to apply in tourism before tourism’s inclination towards sustainability (Maharj 2013).

The number of international tourist arrivals worldwide is expected to increase by 3.3% a year on average from 2010 to 2030. This represents some 43 million more international tourist arrivals every year, reaching a total of 1.8 billion arrivals by 2030. Over half of all international tourists currently arrive by air and UNWTO expects 23 million more tourists to take to the skies each year between now and 2035 (UNWTO, 2012).

Against this background, there are some challenges facing the aviation industry from legislation to taxation and climate change.

World Economic Forum (2009) reported that discussion on sustainable tourism development in the context of climate changes often tend to get trapped in the need for minimizing the carbon footprint of travel and transport dimensions of the sector. The airline industry’s commitment to improve the energy efficiency of aircraft fuel consumption would also contribute in this matter.

Since tourism depends to a large extent on air transport, mitigation of the aviation CO₂ emissions might become the most important challenge for the sector.

Concerns about sustainability and risk assessment of climate change indicate a need to effectively communicate with all stakeholders to change behaviors.

Interrelated issues are presented in support of this connection which sequentially considers the role aviation industry towards the climate changes and tourism sustainability.

In order to identify how the existing policies of the airlines contribute to or hinder the climate change mitigation four questions are developed to guide this exploratory study.

Firstly, how airlines deal with the issues related to climate change presently or into the future?
Secondly, are there influences or barriers affecting measures taken towards the climate changes mitigation?

Thirdly, is there a great variability in the establishments regarding their approach to sustainability and alleviation of the climate changes?

Fourthly, what are the key drivers towards achieving actual emissions reductions?

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 The aviation industry as a challenge to tourism sustainability

It is not possible to consider the existence of the sustainable future if the risks and impacts associated with the tremendous changes in the climate worldwide are ignored (Gilson et. al, 2013).

Transport and in particular air transport, have the largest share in the emissions, with respectively 40 percent of tourism sector and 5 percent share of global carbon dioxide (CO2) emissions estimated. It becomes clear that emissions from origin/ destination transport from the major part of emissions, with 75 percent globally, and more for remote destinations (UN WTO et al. 2008).

Hence global greenhouse gas emission produced by air is the most obvious contribution to climate change from tourism.

Filzamoser (2014) emphasized that aviation is the most carbon intensive mode of transport. If aviation emissions would represent a country it would be the 7th most polluting one in the world.

In terms of the actual contribution to climate changes, measured in radiative forcing, the share of air transport is between 54 and 83 percent of tourism depending on non CO2 effects of aviation (Scott et al. 2010).

The impact of aviation towards climate changes is significantly worse than that of its carbon dioxide emissions alone. Further reference to aviation being responsible for 2% of global carbon dioxide emissions is misleading as it does not take into account aviation’s non CO2 green house gas emissions which significantly contribute to the climate changes and ignores growth in air travel. In the past 40 years the volume of air travel has expanded tenfold and air freight has grown by a factor of fourteen. Air transport has been one of the world’s fastest growing economic sectors. The airline industry has progressed from carrying 2.4 billion passengers in 2010 to 16 billion passengers in 2050 (IATA vision 2050 report, 2013).

Moreover, jet engines also pump out nitrogen oxides; other GHGs that form ozone, at high altitudes these emissions cause more damage than other modes of transport, with 6-8
annual growth, the impact of aviation industry’s GHG emission on global warming could be more severe unless it takes significant measures to reduce it (Pankaj, 2012).

Before the climate change debate began, the airline industry successfully reduced its noise pollution level. Airports levied higher land charges on noisy aircrafts, thus forcing airlines to modernize their aircrafts with new and quite engines that also have higher fuel efficiency. Now the focus has shifted from noise pollution to air pollution carbon emissions from aircrafts, especially after the failure of the Copenhagen summit held in 2009.

2.2 The different perspectives of aviation industry

From the climate changes’ perspective, aviation can be considered completely different than other tourism sectors because of its unique combination of barriers to mitigation. Air travel is seen as a geographical system that includes not only destination but also the tourist- sending areas, the routes and the transit areas. Thus the whole system should be the focus when its sustainability puts into consideration.

From the regulatory perspective, aviation is different as other sectors are regulated at national level whereas aviation is regulated as a sector by the International Aviation Organization. The regulation may be hinder comparing with other tourism sectors. According to the Chicago convention, there is an exemption for international flights from fuel tax. Thus due to the international nature of aviation, measures to regulate or levy a fee on CO2 even at the national level are illegal.

From the economic perspective, the implementation of sustainability principles as well as maintaining the economic development may be consider as one of the key challenge. Whereas there is a strong potential for the aviation growth worldwide the considerable economic benefits of this industry may place it in a strong position in the hierarchy of pressure to reduce emissions.

2.3 The international initiatives towards aviation emissions and sustainability

The first international conference on climate changes and tourism held in Djerba (2003) and the second conference organized in Davos (2007). Some of the UNWTO reports on this topic (e.g. UNWTO 2008, 2012) reveal the carbon contribution from tourism including accommodation, air transport and other activities.

Maharaja et al. (2013) stated that the recent climate conferences increasingly comment that both climate changes and sustainability must be approached as a common challenge since both have several commonalities.
Filzmoser (2014) added that according to the outcomes of the 38th ICAO assembly held in September 2013, there should be a single global market-based measure applying to international aviation emissions from 2020.

However, although the aviation industry was not covered under the Kyoto protocol, airlines have been forced to embark on climate changes initiatives. The European Union Parliament has voted to bring the industry under the purview of the EU Emission Trading Scheme with effect from 2011. After the 15th session of the parties’ conference, the airlines industry got a reprieve with no new taxes, levies or emission imposed.

As a part of the effort to reduce emissions, the aviation sector has been included in the EU Emissions Trading Scheme (EU ETS) since 1 January 2012. The scheme applies to all airlines that fly in and out of the EU. However outside the EU the view is different, a meeting of the International Civil Aviation Organization and representatives of twenty six non EU countries in September 2011 opposed the scheme to take place (Ares, 2012).

The European Union has set a more ambitious target of 10% reduction in aviation CO₂ emissions by 2020 compared to 2005 levels. Further challenging European targets -have been set by high level group of aviation research- to deliver 75% reduction in CO₂ per passenger Km, 90% reduction in NOx emissions and 65% reduction in perceived noise of aircraft by 2050 (European air traffic, 2013).

On April 2014, the European Parliament’s plenary extended the exclusion of international flights from paying for carbon emissions as part of the EU Emissions Trading Scheme until 2016. The members of the European Parliament voted 458 to 120 with 24 abstentions to delay essential emission reductions in the aviation sector in exchange for a promise that an international agreement will take effect as of 2020 (Filzmoser, 2014).

However, the International Civil Aviation Organization ICAO failed to fulfill its obligations under Kyoto protocol as well as its responsibilities for the time being.

2.4 The environmental performance of some airlines in Egypt

To highlight the role of these airlines, the first task was to identify the number of airlines in Egypt. Generally, there are 75 airlines, and about 54% have international flights from/to Egyptian airports either in solely or through partnership with other airlines. The following table shows these airlines and the traffic committee to which their countries are belonging. The airlines are arranged in alphabet according to their codes.
Table (1)

List of the Airlines in Egypt

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Airline</th>
<th>Traffic Committee</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AA American airlines, AC Air Canada (<em>), DL Delta Airlines (</em>), JJ Tam Airlines, and UA United Airlines.</td>
<td>TC1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB Air Berlin, AF Air France (<em>), AH Air Algerie (</em>), AT Royal Air Maroc (<em>), AZ Alitalia (</em>), A3 Aegean Airlines (<em>), BA British Airways (</em>), B8 Eritrean Airlines, CY Cyprus Airways, DT Taag Airlines, EK Emirates Airlines (<em>), ET Ethiopian Airlines (</em>), EY Ethad Airways (<em>), GF Gulf Air (</em>), HR Hahn Airlines, HU Hungarian Airlines, HY Uzbekistan Airways, IB Iberia (<em>), IG Meridiana Fly, IY Yemenia Airways (</em>), JU Air Serbia, KL Royal Dutch Airlines (<em>), KM Air Malta, KQ Kenya Airways, KU Kuwait Airways (</em>), LH Lufthansa (<em>), LN Libyan Airlines (</em>), LO Polish Airlines, LX Swiss International Airlines (<em>), ME Middle East Airlines (</em>), MS Egypt Air (<em>), NP Nile Air (</em>), OA Olympic Air (<em>), OK Czech Airlines, OS Austrian Airlines (</em>), QR Qatar Airways (<em>), RB Syrian Air (</em>), RJ Royal Jordanian Airlines (<em>), RL Royal Falcon Airlines, RO Tarom Airlines, SA South African Airways, SD Sudan Airways (</em>), SK Scandinavian Airlines (<em>), SU Aeroflot (</em>), SV Saudi Arabian Airlines (<em>), SW Air Namibia, TK Turkish Airlines (</em>), TP Air Portugal (<em>), TU Tunis Air (</em>), UJ AlMasria Universal Airlines (<em>), UN Transaero Airlines, VS Virgin Atlantic (51% owns of a British air and DL Delta Air owns the remaining), WY Oman Airlines (</em>), XY Nas Air (<em>), YO Air Monaco, ZI Aigle Azur Airline, and 8U Afriqiyah Airlines (</em>).</td>
<td>TC2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BI Royal Brunei Airlines, CA Air China (<em>), CX Cathy Pacific, CZ China Southern Airlines, GA Garuda Indonesia, JL Japan Airlines, KE Korean Air, MH Malaysia Airlines(</em>), PK Pakistan International Airlines, PR Philippine Airlines, SQ Singapore Airlines (*), ZH Shenzhen Airlines and 9W Jet Airways.</td>
<td>TC3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data is collected by the authors.

(*) The airlines operating from the Egyptian airports.
3.0 The Research Methodology

After determining the airlines operating from the Egyptian airports till now, the second task was to carry out a questionnaire for them. The purpose of this scoping questionnaire was threefold:

1- Explore the aviation system towards the climate changes from the policy maker’s perspective.

2- Build an understanding for the airlines’ motivation to address the risks of climate changes.

3- Know the new generated ideas of the airlines and how they tackle the issue of growing the aviation emissions.

3.1 Sample profile and data collection

A qualitative sample of the airlines was complemented. 40 questionnaires were carried out to be distributed by e-mail to all airlines operating from the Egyptian airports. The Countries of these airlines are belonging to different geographical areas. At the same time they represent some sub areas of the main traffic committees. The majority of airlines (87.5%) are located in TC2 (Europe, Africa and Middle East). Generally, about 13% of the sample has sharing flights with Egypt Air.

The survey was conducted between March and May 2014. The questionnaires were answered and return back from responsible of 27 airlines with response rate of 67.5%.

4.0 Discussion

The results discussed below are represented in terms of some themes. These themes are knowledge, constraints, responsibility, the key drivers for emission reduction and environmental initiatives.

All respondent claimed to be aware that aviation industry contributes to climate changes. This contribution limits – to a large extent- in CO2 emissions, and accordingly threat the future of the tourism; their sources of knowledge regarding the risks were: 9% for government information source, 11% for science information source, about half of the mentioned the media information source while information from the industry associations was an important source for 87% of the participants.
Regarding the constraints, influences and incentive system, the cost and competition were
the first constraint with 69%, 52% stressed that government policy and bureaucracy as
strong constraints against the positive action from the industry, 41% explained that the
lack of shareholder and accordingly many programs do not get funded while the lack of
leadership was perceived with 32%.

About the systematic incentive to reduce the international aviations emissions and who
conduct it, responses indicating that only 12% have compulsory incentive through their
governments.

The respondents determined the level of responsibility towards climate changes mitigation, the results were as follows: 44% governmental level, 19% as solely of the airlines responsibility, as airlines and finally all aviation industry with 37%.

The respondents demonstrated the key drivers according to their importance for
achieving reduction in CO₂ (more than one answer is valid) as follows:

74% for the development of sustainable bio fuels, 63% for the offset programs, while
53% argued full implementation of more efficient air traffic operation & management,
49% stated the government actions and airport infrastructure, 20% stated the fleet renewal, whereas 12% mentioned the reduced auxiliary power unit usage.

About the program for the climate changes mitigation, its objectives and measures, 33%
already started their own program and 6% will be in the near future.

The main objectives of this program were as follows: 78% to increase market share, 64%
to generate significant positive publicity, and 60% to become a market leader in the
environmental sustainability, 41% to reduce the ecological footprint of their passengers,
to encourage socially responsible business management, and 19% to promote green
industry to the public.

The essential taken measures were 52% raise awareness of air transport users, 39% are
within EU ETS, 29% using bio fuels, 12% develop more efficient management &operational practices and 9% support mandatory emission offsets.

The themes that emerged from the data of this sample highlighted the importance of
industry associations as a guide on sustainability issues. A common response to the
responsibility is the expectations and perceptions for the government together with all
industry to drive the change process and come up with real solutions.

The study reveals that development of sustainable bio fuels is one of the most effective
methods for emissions reduction.
Most of European airlines in addition to air Canada and Delta have their voluntary mitigation program and adopt green ideology either within or without EU ETS. Whereas other airlines showed that integration in the ETS will not change the aviation emissions and the main reason was the high price of CO2 in the system comparing with the kerosene (the fuel used in aircraft). The initiatives of airline industry for addressing emissions -till now- are voluntary guided by pressure of public opinion and not legally binding.

There is a consensus among airlines for the sustainable bio fuels as a key component for emissions reduction. Dings (2014) emphasized that recent science shows that most bio fuels are more likely to increase rather than reduce emissions primarily due to the impact of land use change. However the so-called “second and third generation” bio fuels supposedly don’t compete with food production. Second generation bio fuels are using feed stock grown on existing agricultural land. Whereas the first bio fuels and synthetic fuels produce co-products that avoid land use also have similar tail pipe emissions as fossils fuels.

Although the calculation of the emissions and pay for it through the offsetting programs is recognized as an important process from a reasonable percent of the sample, only few airlines like KLM, Air France and Delta Airlines have voluntary emission control program in place. These airlines offset carbon emissions per individual travelers by charging extra taxes from them. This extra charge goes towards the approved environmental projects.

More than half of the sample stated full implementation of more efficient air traffic operation & management as a considerable step for emissions reduction, while few airlines (Air Canada, Aegean Airlines, Air China, Portugal Air and Scandinavian Airlines) minimize the number of flights with low factors through sharing other airlines.

For those who didn’t apply program for addressing climate changes the capital expenditures and competition was the first point and also the lack of encouragement or incentives from their governments for technological and operational development aligned with the objectives of climate.

4.0 Recommendations and Conclusion

After evaluating the actual situation for some airlines we conclude that airlines need to adopt a green culture and use an ecology economy matrix. The environmental and economic benefits are the simple philosophy behind this matrix.

The airlines have to calculate the amount of emissions scientifically and reduce it via the implementation of technological and operational measures as follows:
• Minimize the number of flights with low factors through collaborative partnership with the airlines flying on the same routes at same time.

• Offer carbon offset program to travelers either international or domestic and allowing them to choose from the environmental projects. Offsetting should be as an air line default.

Sustainability and climate changes have to be tackled by all actors of the aviation industry as a common challenge. Since the aviation sector has a strong international character, there is a need for a global plan that peaks temperature rise as soon as humanly possible and enables us to return to well below current levels. Although opinions vary but sustainability should not be left to industry self regulation or rely solely on the government intervention, it must be a joint effort.

Key improvements need to be made as follows:

• The non CO\textsubscript{2} effects of aviation – estimated to be 2 and 4 times of CO\textsubscript{2} emissions- should be dealt with either within or without ETS.

• The manufacture and service providers have to produce and/ or provide economic measures with effective cost to address GHG emissions as long as they are implemented globally.

• Aviation bio fuels need to satisfy sustainability criteria before they can be deployed.

• International organizations and governments should accelerate research on non CO\textsubscript{2} effects of aviation –i.e. NO\textsubscript{x}, contrails and circus cloud formation- and develop a market base instrument to address these effects.

• A multi faceted approach is required with strong commitment from all aviation stakeholders as well as governments to reduce emissions in a timely and effective manner.

• Governments must improve airport infrastructure and establish the right legal & fiscal frameworks to facilitate, regulate and increase investment in new aircraft fleets.

Despite the commonalities between sustainability and climate changes, some airlines seem to be grappling with this challenge. The study demonstrated that airlines have to shift practices to achieve essential reductions in green house gas outputs. The participation of airlines may encourage investment in new technology and solutions as one part of a comprehensive climate strategy. Proper and balanced solutions can be found
if all parties of the aviation and governments take the responsibility and cooperate together.

Although major measures were taken by many European airlines but it doesn’t matter where CO\textsubscript{2} is emitted as its impact is a result of overall atmospheric accumulation.

The focus of airlines’ contribution in the sustainability of tourism should be rescaled to cover not only the airlines but also the wider scales of the aviation system and related motilities.

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FACTORS INFLUENCING THE SUCCESS OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN LOCAL COMMUNITIES: A STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this article is to examine the factors influencing the success of tourism development in local communities in Thailand. The study uses the Structure-Conduct-Performance (S-C-P) framework to investigate how tourism success (Performance) at a local government level could be explained by Structure and Conduct. The study adapts the concept of the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) created by the World Economic Forum (WEF) to generate indicators for the three variables (Structure-Conduct-Performance) at a local government level. A structural equation model is used to analyze 256 primary data observations on 13 observed variables. The proposed model has one exogenous latent variable (Structure), two endogenous latent variables (Private investment and Conduct of local government) and two endogenous variables, which were the number and trend of visitors and the number of received awards.

The results indicate that local tourism attractions are the most important component of the Structure. For the Private investment, accommodations are the leading component. Organized tourism activities such as walking streets and festivals are important components of the Conduct of local governments, as well as a channel for tourism income generation. The results also indicate that attractions are the most important component influencing Private investment, especially, investment in accommodations, and local administrative organization (LAOs) efforts to promote tourism development. The study confirms that local governments in Thailand still play a relatively minor role in promoting tourism activities. Although they are primarily responsible for local tourism management, their performances are affected by underfunding and lack of well-trained tourism staff. Thus, the central government needs to provide more financial and technical supports so that local tourism resources can be sustainably utilized at the destination level.

Keywords: success of tourism development, sustainable, local communities, structural equation model.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism management in Thailand, including both supply and demand management, was traditionally more or less centralized by central government agencies such as the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), the Ministry of Tourism and Sports, the Department of National Parks, Wildlife and Plant Conservation, the Fine Arts Department, etc. Decentralization to local governments begun in 1997 by transferring the responsibility for tourism management to those local administrative
organizations (LAOs) which have tourism attractions in their locality. Moreover, the national decentralization plan mandates TAT to delegate three areas of tourism activities to local governments, i.e. tourism planning, maintaining sustainable tourism, and public relations. According to decentralization and local government laws, the responsibility of natural resource tourism promotion is also given to the local governments. Therefore, in the future Local Administrative Organizations (LAOs) will have an important role to play in promoting tourism, especially in local areas where tourism attractions and their related activities exist.

Local tourism promotion not only brings financial benefits to the local communities concerned but also to the overall development of the country. Currently, LAOs tourism promotion is concerned with three major activities, i.e. maintenance and care of tourism attractions, provision of tourism infrastructure services, and marketing. Local tourism is expected to generate higher income and higher employment opportunities for the local communities. However, tourism development in a small community must be carried out carefully with consideration of its negative impact that might occur in the future, such as the impact on local environment as well as the local way of life and traditions.

The success of local tourism development and promotion requires cooperation from all the parties concerned. LAOs must recognize the importance of tourism promotion as well as guarantee a good management of their tourism resources. Cooperation and investment are also needed from the private sector in the development of related facilities such as accommodations and restaurants. Cooperation from the communities themselves in maintaining the attractiveness of their tourism attractions, whether they are natural resources or cultural, is also important. The sustainability of tourism development in any local community would therefore depend on the aesthetic potential of the resource base, the availability of local facilities, the strength of private sector in tourism industry, as well as the skill, knowledge, and the cooperation of its local administrative organization and its community as a whole. Indicators of success include the increasing numbers of tourists, social acceptability in various forms such as awards received, and becoming a learning center for other local communities.

Hence, this paper analyzes the roles and relationships of the different actors involved in tourism resource management. This study applied the concept of Structure-Conduct-Performance (S-C-P) paradigm (Mason, 1973) from industrial organization theory to evaluate the causal relationship of Structure, Conduct and Performance of local governments.

The results of the study indicated the size of the influence of the Conduct and Structure variables on the success of tourism development in a local community and could be used to identify weaknesses and strengths of a destination at a local level. It is also useful as a guideline to strengthen local tourism policy, planning of other public organizations, private sector investment and community participation for sustainable tourism development.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section presents a literature review of two major issues, i.e. the role of LAOs in tourism development, and the assessments of tourism potential at the local level.

The Role of Local Administrative Organizations and Tourism Development in Thailand

The survey on dilapidated and degraded tourism attractions for the whole country during 1997-1999 conducted by the TAT found that 49 of a total of 179 sites were seriously dilapidated, and most of them were under the jurisdiction of local administrative organizations. This led to higher interests in studying the potential, role, problems and obstacles of the LAOs in tourism management in order to arrive at appropriate approaches to make local tourism development sustainable (Malila, 2003; Churugsa, 2005; Phanwilai, 2005).
Studies conducted in the past showed that some areas under the jurisdiction of LAOs did have potential to develop into attractive tourism destinations, but the tourism management potential of these LAOs was found to be only mediocre despite the expectation of their increased role (Phanwilai, 2005; Boonyarasai, 2005). The results of these studies were in accordance with the results of the study conducted on 144 LAOs in Chiang Rai by Unuvijit (2006) which showed that these LAOs had low potential for tourism management. Their potential was found to be only average in four dimensions: policy and strategy; vision of leaders; readiness of personnel to work for their community; and local people participation.

The factor which was identified as the critical obstacle to the success in tourism management was that the LAOs were assigned a vast number of responsibilities, but their power was limited. The Constitutional power given to the LAOs is broad and vague and is not yet supported by subordinate laws. The results of the study by Kaosa-ard et al. (2012) revealed that the laws on natural resources had been in use long before the birth of local administrative organizations and have not been revised. Therefore according to these laws, local governments hardly had any legal power to manage natural resources especially in national parks. Moreover, LAOs are given responsibility to protect natural resources and environment only on land, while the responsibility to protect marine resources was under the Department of Fisheries. Saowakoon et al. (2007) found that LAOs had been active in various development aspects, but the participation in tourism management was scarce due to the overlapping of legal jurisdictions between LAOs and central government agencies. Churugsa (2005) provided a case study in the Island of Tao. The Treasury Department was the owner of the land, while any construction on this island was controlled by the LAO. Investors need to seek permission from both agencies for a construction plan before it can be carried out. The study by Malila (2003) in Lobburi municipality also raise similar issues, as despite the fact that there were a number of tourist attractions which are national heritage in this municipality, the LAOs did not have any role in the management of them. Thus integration and coordination between related government agencies and LAOs in the management of tourism resources and local tourism development is a real challenge.

Although integration and coordination are expected to reduce the management problems in the long run, it is also likely that it would take some time as LAOs are relatively new entities for Thailand and therefore they are not widely accepted and recognized by other government agencies. Moreover, lack of proper understanding regarding the role of these organizations can still be found among their own leaders and staff members (Kaosa-ard et al, 2012). This may be attributable to the level of their education and work experiences relating to local administration. Some may not be even locals from the communities (Churugsa, 2005). Moreover, special trainings for local governments had been insufficient and sporadic.

The issues of problems discussed above may be regarded as less important than the insufficient budget (Churugsa, 2005; Adirekchotikul, 2007; Saowakoon et al., 2007). The revenue of LAOs is from subsidies and tax collection, but subsidies vary according to economic situation. The study by Patmasiriwat (2004) found that the budget allocation system used by the Budget Bureau was biased against particular regions and tend to support urban communities more than rural communities. Moreover, there was also a problem of unequal tax capacities and effort among local organizations at provincial, municipality, and sub-district levels (Patmasiriwat, 2012; Buddhawongsa, 2013). The budget of local governments is often small and has to be allocated among various economic, social and political purposes. In addition corruption was another issue that could not be overlooked and this could lead to incentives in investment in unworthy development projects rather than in conservation projects.

Participation of the community is no less important than other factors. Many studies suggested that people in the community wanted to be involved more in tourism operation planning (Khittasangka, 2005; Adirekchotikul, 2007). Nevertheless, several cases (Khittasangka, 2005) indicate that the LAOs and local people had no real knowledge about tourism development planning process and the plan was perceived to be theoretical rather than practical.
Community’s participation is one of the key factors that affect the success of local tourism development. According to the work of Adirekchotikul (2007), tourism public relations of LAOs in the North Eastern region seemed to be relatively effective in drawing more tourists but generally LAO did not have a good and clear plan for public relations. Their personnel also lack the ability of media communication and media production. Although the LAO internet project encouraged each Lao to have its own public relation website, many of them were not actually operational and updated.

It can be concluded that most studies in Thailand were related to the role and ability of LAO to manage tourism as a component of local tourism potential. However, there has been no research investigating the relationship of other components and/or factors that enhance local potential for sustainable tourism development.

Assessment of Tourism Potential at the Local Level in Thailand

There are several ways to assess tourism potential in a local community such as the potential assessment of ecotourism destinations or tourism activities. Several methods have been used in Thailand for such purpose: analysis of interviews or tourists surveys, participant observation, SWOT analysis, etc. Some examples are the assessment of sports tourism potentiality in Chiang Mai (Kanchanakitti, 2002) and the assessment of the potential for agro-tourism development in the village around Huai Hong Khrai Royal Development Study Center (Homnan, 2004).

Successful communities tended to have high potential in physical structures especially tourism attractions both natural resources and local culture and the availability of basic infrastructure to accommodate tourists. Besides those factors, participation of local people in the community and whether or not tourism is the occupation of the majority of the people in the community were the other two factors influencing the successful management of tourism (Prapprirree, 2005; Boonnetr, 2004). Interestingly, good environmental conservation and active local participation in tourism management did not guarantee that the community would be successful if it still had low potential for offering appropriate services to tourists which was regarded as a key to the management success (Waritt, 2002).

Successful communities tended to be villages with a common culture where the management was not mainly run by LAOs. On the other hand, most of communities which were hardly successful faced similar problems in terms of top-down management by the central government, government agencies and leader groups. Such communities managed tourism resources by focusing too much on the demand of tourists. In addition, unequal tourism benefit distribution within the community was also a critical obstacle to successful local tourism development (Kaosa-ard et al., 2005, Untong et al., 2006).

It can be concluded from the previous studies that problems of tourism destination varied with the location. Major problems include insufficient infrastructure and difficult access to attractions. Moreover LAOs were not authorized to allocate the use natural resources. Unequally distributed benefits had often broken unity within the community. In addition, some local people may want to be involved only in certain steps of local community tourism such as a step of tourism operation (Limrattannapan, 2004). However, in order to develop community tourism successfully, local communities should carry out some preparations such as management planning, tourism program setting, advertising planning, preparing for service availability and setting up a committee for community tourism development (Santasombat, 2001). Most of the potential evaluations at a local community level that have been conducted focused at destination or community level not at a local government level. Assessment at the local government is important because local governments have budgets and can carry out public policies that could influence tourism sustainability.
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Conceptual Framework and Model

The main objective of this is to examine the factors influencing the success of tourism development in local communities in Thailand. The study employs the Structure- Conduct- Performance (S-C-P) framework originally proposed by Mason (1939). The research question is how tourism success (Performance) at a local government level could be explained by the Structure and Conduct of the destination. The study adapted the concept of the Travel and Tourism Competiveness Index (TTCI) created by the World Economic Forum (WEF) to generate indicators for the three variables (Structure- Conduct- Performance) at a local government level.

The Structure variable reflects tourism potential which includes 1) attractions, 2) physical environment, 3) policy and legal infrastructure, and 4) amenities. The Conduct variable comprises two groups, first the local governments and community efforts and second private investment in accommodations, restaurants and night entertainments. The first is represented by four indicators which are: 1) the availability of a tourism plan, 2) budget allocation for tourism development, 3) activities, and 4) community participation. The Performance variable was measured by the tourism outcome, including the number of visitors, recent trend of arrivals and tourism related awards.

The success of local sustainable tourism development may be a result of a strong structure or the conduct of private sector and operation of LAOs that supported and promoted local tourism development. The success is reflected through tourism performance in different ways, such as an increase in the number and / or trends of visitors or tourists, the tourism related award, and so on. It is assumed that tourism success is related with local communities, private sector or local government ability or expertise in promoting or supporting local tourism depending on their vision, experience and knowledge.

Therefore, the conceptual framework used in the study was that the tourism destination structure (Structure) was an important factor that had a direct influence on the investment of the private sector (Private investment) and the operations of LAOs (Conduct) to promote and support sustainable tourism. The outcome or success of private investment efforts is measured by the number of tourist arrivals and trend whereas the outcome of local government effort is reflected by tourism awards or related awards such as awards on natural resources and environmental protection. The Structure also had an indirect influence on the Performance through the private investment and the operations of LAOs as shown in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. The conceptual model of factors influencing the success of sustainable tourism development in local communities](image-url)
From above model, six hypotheses can be derived:

Hypothesis 1: Structure has a direct effect on private investment.
Hypothesis 2: Structure has a direct effect on conduct of local governments.
Hypothesis 3: Structure has a direct effect on number and trend of visitors.
Hypothesis 4: Structure has a direct effect on awards received.
Hypothesis 5: Private investment has a direct effect on number and trend of visitors.
Hypothesis 6: Conduct of local governments has a direct effect on awards received.

Data Used in the Study

The data were collected in 2011 from a large-scale questionnaire mailed to 1,889 local governments in Thailand which are responsible for managing tourist attractions. Two hundred and fifty-six questionnaires (13.5%) were returned.

The questionnaire was composed of 4 sections which include (1) general information of LAOs, (2) tourism-related physical structure (attraction diversification, industry capability, infrastructure, security and accessibility to main destinations), (3) tourism operation and (4) operation performance.

The indicators determining the success of tourism sustainable development can be grouped into 4 factors which were: Structure (4 indicators), Private investment (3 indicators), Conduct of local governments (4 indicators) and Performance (2 indicators). Since the indicators were evaluated in different units of measurement, the data were converted into scales normalized to be between 1 to 7, with the following formula: normalized scale = \[6\times(\text{non-normalized scale} - \text{minimum})/(\text{maximum} - \text{minimum})+1\].

Variables of the Model

Based on Figure 1, the model comprises 13 observable variables, with 3 latent variables, of which Structure was exogenous and Private investment, Conduct of local governments were endogenous latent variables; the number and trend of visitors and awards received were endogenous observable variables (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Variables and sources of variables under study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Latent variables</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Exogenous variables</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Structure</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Structure</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Structure</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Endogenous variables</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private investment</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Private investment</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conduct of local governments</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Conduct of local governments</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Conduct of local governments</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conduct of local governments</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number and trend of visitors</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Awards received</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RESULTS OF THE STUDY

A structural equation model (SEM) is used to deal with the model of factors influencing the success of sustainable tourism development in local communities. This method needs a check of the assumptions of sufficiency of sample size, construct validity, construct reliability, and multivariate normality of the data and internal consistency, with Cronbach's Alpha value greater than 0.70 so that the set of observed variables used for factor extraction is appropriate for specifying latent variables with acceptable confidence level.

The results showed that the number of observable samples was slightly less than the minimum number of samples (With 13 observed variables and 3 latent variables the minimum sample size should be 263 samples). The test results of construct validity and construct reliability including Cronbach's alpha suggested that only the structure variable did not satisfy the conditions. This implied that in the future, the variables set measuring structure has to be improved in order to increase the level of confidence.

The multivariate normality test (the last row of Table 2) revealed that the data did not meet the condition of multivariate normality. This implied that the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) cannot be used to estimate the coefficients in our model. Therefore, to obtain reliable coefficients, this study had to apply the maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR) to estimate the coefficients. This study assumed that the structural equation model had linear form and did not violate any assumption of regression analysis.

Table 2. The results of construct validity and construct reliability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latent variables</th>
<th>Number of observable variables</th>
<th>Cronbach's alpha</th>
<th>Construct validity</th>
<th>Construct reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>$\chi^2 = 10.953$</td>
<td>0.521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private investment</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.637</td>
<td>$\chi^2 = 0.000$</td>
<td>0.653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct of local governments</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.708</td>
<td>$\chi^2 = 0.938$</td>
<td>0.765</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multivariate normality test

Mardia Skewness = 25.840 [P-value = 0.000]
Mardia Kurtosis = 215.860 [P-value = 0.000]
Henze-zirkler = 1.090 [P-value = 0.626]
Doornik-Hansen $\chi^2$ = 609.334 [P-value = 0.000]

Source: Author’s calculation.

The model was adjusted by adding the correlation between the measurement errors of each component construction. This had been done to ensure that the represented model derived the data from LAOs survey. Table 3 presented the most commonly used goodness of fit statistics. Chen and Chen (2010) provided a good description of these statistics. The main statistics was the Chi-square test which measures the distance between the sample covariance matrix and the fitted covariance matrix. It should be noted that a small Chi-square corresponds to a good fit (not significant) and a large Chi-square to a bad fit of the estimation (significant) (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1996).

Table 3. Goodness of fit statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness of fit statistics</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Acceptable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. $\chi^2$</td>
<td>Low $\chi^2$ and not Sig.</td>
<td>0.66294 [P-value = 0.126]</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. RMSEA</td>
<td>$\leq 0.05$</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. SRMR</td>
<td>$\leq 0.05$</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Comparative Fit Index (CFI)</td>
<td>$\geq 0.95$</td>
<td>0.983</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)</td>
<td>$\geq 0.95$</td>
<td>0.976</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $\chi^2$ = Chi-square, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation, SRMR = standardized root mean square residual and scaling correction factor = 1.013.
Source: Author’s calculation.
Figure 2 presented the standardized coefficients of the final model. The value between observable variables (rectangle) and latent variables (circle) is the standardized factor loading scores. The higher factor loading score implies that this variable is more important. The value between latent variables was a standardized coefficient of the structural equation model that represents the direct effect.

The results of hypothesis testing at the confidence level of 95% revealed that Structure directly affected Private investment, Conduct of local government and the Number and trend of visitors. Structure also had an indirect positive effect on the Number and trend of visitors via Private investment and had an indirect positive effect on the Received awards via Conduct of local governments.

The results of this study suggested that the operation of LAOs had little influence on the number and trend of visitors. They also failed to attract a private sector to invest in tourism development in the local communities. This result was consistent with the perspective of local people that LAOs had a minor role in supporting local tourism development when compared to private investments or cooperation of the private sector which were the main factor influencing local tourism development (Untong et al., 2010; Untong and Kaosa-ard, 2012).

The result of estimated factors loading scores with MLR showed that attractions and facilities were the main components of Structure (0.558), accommodation and nightlife were the two important components of Private investment (0.983 and 0.949 respectively), and event activities were the key component of Conduct of local government (0.845). This implied that attractions and facilities were the basic infrastructure for tourism. Accommodation and nightlife represented a private investment in tourism while tourism event activities represented the operations of local governments to support or promote local tourism.
The estimated standardized coefficients with MLR showed that Structure had a highest total effect on Conduct of local government (0.872), followed by the Awards received (0.478) and Private investment was the least influenced by Structure (0.331). The effect of Structure on the Number of visitors was only 0.375 which was smaller than the total effect of Structure on the operations of local governments 2.3 times. Interestingly, the direct effect of Structure on Conduct of local governments was 2.6 times of that on Private investment.

Table 4. The effect and squared multiple correlations ($R^2$) of the Structure variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Endogenous variables</th>
<th>The effect of the Structure variable</th>
<th>Squared multiple correlation ($R^2$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Direct effect</td>
<td>Indirect effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private investment</td>
<td>0.331*</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct of local government</td>
<td>0.872*</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number and trend of visitors</td>
<td>0.295*</td>
<td>0.080*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awards received</td>
<td>-0.113</td>
<td>0.591*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * = statistically significant at 95% level of confidence. Source: Author’s calculation.

Considering the performance of local tourism promotion in the past from the Number and trend of visitors and the Received award, it was found that an increase in the number and trend of visitors had been influenced by the components of Structure (0.375) which was 1.5 times of the investment of the private sector (0.242). The number of awards received was influenced by the operations of LAOs (0.678) which was higher than by Structure (0.478). This result reflected that infrastructure related to tourism such as environment, attractions, facilities, etc., was the main factor influencing the number and trend of visitors directly and indirectly through Private investment. Moreover, Conduct of local Governments related to tourism such as local tourism development plans, budget allocation for tourism promotion, event supporting local tourism was the major factor increasing the chance of award winning.

The squared multiple correlations ($R^2$) are shown in the last column of Table 4, Structure had the highest prediction performance of governments’ conduct which was accounted for 76 percent of the total variation. This number was twice of the second highest prediction performance, the received award (about 34 percent). However, Structure and Private investment can predict only 19 percent and 11 percent of the variation in the number and trend of visitors, respectively.

CONCLUSION

The main objective of this article is to study the influence of the conduct and structure on the success of tourism development in a local community. The study integrates the concepts of the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) created by the World Economic Forum (WEF) and adapted them to local government level to apply the Structure-Conduct-Performance (S-C-P) framework. A structural equation model (SEM) is estimated on the proposed conceptual model of the factors influencing the success of sustainable tourism development in local communities. The results of the study can be used as the information for policy makers to increase the support of local government in tourism resources conservation and to promote sustainable local tourism development in the future.

The study confirmed that local tourism attractions were the most important component of Structure. For Private investment, accommodation was the leading component. Activities such as walking streets and festivals were also important components of Conduct of local governments, as well as a channel for tourism income generation.

Structure was a fundamentally significant factor for tourism development, having both a direct impact on visitor numbers and an indirect impact on performance through Private investment. Good Structure provides direct incentives for both Private investment and Conduct of local government. Private investment had a direct positive effect on an increase in the number of tourists. Conduct local government on the other hand affected awards received but does not affect the number of visitors. Thus, local governments had a relatively small role in attracting visitors and increasing trend.
The results suggest that local governments in Thailand currently have a minor role in tourism development, insufficient for promoting sustainable development. Nor is it sufficient to increase visitor numbers or private investment. However, local governments are primarily responsible for local tourism management, which suffer from underfunding and lack of well-trained staff. Thus, the central government in Thailand needs to provide more financial and technical support so that local tourism resources can be sustainably utilized.

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Role of Governmental Agencies in Alleviating Poverty through Sustainable Tourism in Nigeria

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Abstract

Over the past decade, many developing countries have turned to tourism for sustainable development. In recent years, tourism’s economic contribution in developing countries has exceeded that of traditional economic activities like agriculture and mineral extraction. The development of tourism as a critical sector of the economy has gradually assumed a centre stage in the economic agenda of most nations in the world. This paper examines the role of Oyo States governmental agencies in alleviating poverty among residents. Basically the study aims at exploring the role of these governmental agencies in building linkages between tourism industry and the local economy. The research is designed using both primary and secondary sources of information. The primary sources of information were from interviews, observations and questionnaire administration to key informants from Oyo State tourism outlets, while the secondary sources of information were through desk and web research types. The results were analysed through descriptive discussions. The results revealed that 8.6 percent of key informants believe that residents are not involved in decision making, and 20 percent were of the opinion that viable partnership are not existing between the governmental agencies and the tourism outlets. The Nigerian tourism industry is yet to fully integrate the local residents into its various activities. Also the capability of tourism as an industry in creating multi-layered opportunities for poverty alleviation is yet to be fully realised. An overhaul of the Nigerian industry is essential for a bottom-up administrative style to directly meet the need of the people.

Key Words: Sustainable Tourism, Governmental Agencies, Poverty Alleviation, Nigeria, Oyo State
Introduction

Tourism is said to be one of the fastest growing industries globally, an effective way to revitalise the economy of a nation (Long 2012); and a major source of foreign exchange (Chockalingam and Ganesh, 2010). Tourism is said to be the fourth largest industry in the world, encouraging investments for infrastructure, entrepreneurship and human resource resulting as major source of foreign exchange (Kafle, 2011). Tourism provides plates for formulation and implementation of national plan, policy and strategies for development. The continuous growth of tourism has facilitated increased disposable income, demand for leisure and global economic restructures (Ayeni and Ebohoh, 2014). According to Haller (2012), tourism in African continent is capable of enhancing economic growth and development; and also could launch the image of the continent to the global world. Tourism industry is said to have a major contribution on international and domestic tourism in the developing countries and also playing a big role in the world economy as major factor for globalisation, socio-economic development and balancing social and environmental well-being (Honey and Gilpin, 2009). Although tourism is needed for economic development of developing countries, sustainability is imperative to minimise the negative foot print. Sustainability of tourism is hinged on the community benefiting from all the enterprises (Manwa, 2012). Tourism needs to prove its link with poverty reduction rather than relying on the concept of trickledown. Government and development agencies need to address the challenge of spreading the benefits of tourism geographically and to the poor (Kerala Tourism, 2008).

Nigeria, a beautiful mosaic with a national identity and with a population of over 150 million people is defined by its history and contemporary culture (Anyim, 2008). In Nigeria, the vast tourism potentials such as Table Mountains, beautiful landscapes, colourful folks, and overwhelming serenity of wildlife, waterfalls, rich festivals, architecture and craft have necessitated the existing tourism drive in the country (Kolawole and Olaodunni, 2014). Despite these potentials, about 70 percent of Nigerian population lives below income levels sufficient their basic needs (Okonja-iweala, Soludo and Mahtar, 2003). Tourism is capable of creating business opportunity, employment opportunity, increased income and improvement the livelihood option in the Nigerian tourism destinations.

Economic Impact of Tourism in Nigeria

The impact of tourism has been measured traditionally in terms of its contribution to Gross National Product and employment created. Tourism comprises a significant part of the world’s growing service sector especially in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNWTO, 2004). Many times tourism’s overall impact on the economy is estimated by looking at the effect of tourism expenditures through direct, indirect and induced spending using a multiplier effect approach (Jamieson, et al., 2004). According to Honey and Gilpin (2009), communities that are poor in material wealth but rich in history and cultural heritage are enabled by tourism to leverage their unique assets for economic development. Richardson (2010) explained that economic benefits of tourism include the expansion of employment and wages ensuring commitments to local jobs and training of local residents, and the development of collective community income. He further stressed that the overall economic impact of tourism is maximised through enhancing linkages with other local economic sectors. Akama and Kieti (2007) stated those strong economic linkages with tourism and other sectors such as agriculture and small enterprises will enhance the multiplier effect, thus contributing to increased revenue retention and creation of employment opportunities for local people.
A framework of a Tourism Satellite Account was used by World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2013) to quantify the economic impact of Travel and Tourism (T&T) in Nigeria. The estimates based on ‘demand-side’ analysis of Travel and Tourism’s impact on economic activity, since the sector does not produce or supply a homogenous product or service like traditional industries (agriculture, electronics, steel, etc.).

The direct contribution of T&T to GDP in 2013 was NGN 757.3 billion (1.6% of GDP). This forecast is to rise by 2.5% to NGN 776.5 billion in 2014. This primarily reflects the economic activity generated by industries such as hotels, travel agents, airlines and other passenger transportation services (excluding commuter services), which includes the activities of the restaurants and leisure industries directly supported by tourists. T&T generated 866,000 jobs directly in 2013 (1.3% of total employment), while also in 2013, Nigeria generated NGN 107.1 billion in visitor exports. In 2014, this is expected to fall by 0.9%, and the country is expected to attract 900,000 international tourist arrivals.

### Table 1: Economic Contribution of Travel and Tourism in Nigeria: Real 2013 Prices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nigeria (NGN Billion)</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Visitor exports</td>
<td>159.0</td>
<td>172.2</td>
<td>149.8</td>
<td>129.8</td>
<td>109.0</td>
<td>107.1</td>
<td>106.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Domestic expenditure</td>
<td>1237.1</td>
<td>1055.3</td>
<td>947.3</td>
<td>975.9</td>
<td>1112.2</td>
<td>1,174.5</td>
<td>1,209.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Internal tourism consumption</td>
<td>1,396.1</td>
<td>1,227.4</td>
<td>1,097.1</td>
<td>1,105.7</td>
<td>1,221.2</td>
<td>1,281.6</td>
<td>1,315.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Purchases by tourism providers</td>
<td>-544.5</td>
<td>-482.9</td>
<td>-446.6</td>
<td>-454.1</td>
<td>-499.8</td>
<td>-524.3</td>
<td>-539.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Direct contribution of T&amp;T to GDP</td>
<td>851.7</td>
<td>744.6</td>
<td>650.5</td>
<td>651.6</td>
<td>721.4</td>
<td>757.3</td>
<td>776.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Domestic supply chain</td>
<td>508.9</td>
<td>444.9</td>
<td>388.7</td>
<td>389.4</td>
<td>431.1</td>
<td>452.5</td>
<td>464.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Capital investment</td>
<td>323.5</td>
<td>320.2</td>
<td>296.9</td>
<td>285.1</td>
<td>252.6</td>
<td>264.2</td>
<td>266.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Government collective spending</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Imported goods from indirect spending</td>
<td>-200.3</td>
<td>-177.8</td>
<td>-301.4</td>
<td>-302.7</td>
<td>-258.0</td>
<td>-253.4</td>
<td>-265.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Induced</td>
<td>376.7</td>
<td>343.2</td>
<td>267.1</td>
<td>253.4</td>
<td>297.8</td>
<td>322.3</td>
<td>329.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Total contribution of T&amp;T to GDP</td>
<td>1,870.4</td>
<td>1,686.9</td>
<td>1,315.8</td>
<td>1,291.2</td>
<td>1,460.0</td>
<td>1,559.5</td>
<td>1,589.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Direct contribution of T&amp;T to employment</td>
<td>1,147.8</td>
<td>969.0</td>
<td>776.8</td>
<td>796.0</td>
<td>854.0</td>
<td>866.2</td>
<td>859.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Total contribution of T&amp;T to employment</td>
<td>2,616.4</td>
<td>2,266.6</td>
<td>1,583.2</td>
<td>1,595.1</td>
<td>1,779.5</td>
<td>1,836.8</td>
<td>1,811.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Expenditure on outbound travel</td>
<td>1,041.8</td>
<td>885.9</td>
<td>1213.7</td>
<td>1,292.9</td>
<td>1,143.9</td>
<td>1,168.0</td>
<td>1,203.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WTTC Travel and Tourism Economic Impact (2014)
Sustainable Tourism in Nigeria

Responsible and sustainable tourism allow destinations and companies to minimise the negative effect of tourism on the environment and on cultural heritage while maximising the economic and social benefits (UNWTO, 2010). Tourism development in Nigeria started since 1960, the year of independence. Precisely the Nigerian government under the regime of General Obasanjo in 1976 established the Nigerian Tourism Board now named the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation through the Decree 54, 1976 (Ojo, 2014). This was reviewed to Decree 86, 1991 which made the tourism sector a preferred sector. The Master Plan for Nigerian Tourism Development was inaugurated in 1982 backed up with a development policy in 1990. To improve the quest for quality service delivery in the tourism industry, the Nigerian government established the Federal Ministry of Tourism and Culture to achieve the dream of meeting up with the global trend in tourism development (Munzali, 2011).

The Nigerian government is now recognising the need to develop the tourism industry in order to be able to diversify the economy. Tourism has been identified as another sector capable of turning the Nigerian economy around apart from petroleum and Agriculture (Dalat, 2010). Nigeria is a country richly endowed with vast tourism potentials such as mountains, beautiful landscapes, wildlife, waterfalls, architecture, crafts, arts, and overwhelming rich festivals, music and films and culture. However most of these resources are yet to be tapped (Ojo, 2014). The tourism industry in Nigeria can be said not to be in its developing stage due to neglect by various governments since independence.

According to Ekanagake and Long (2012), tourism will not be a potential source of economic growth to promote tourism become a focus in the developing countries. Ayeni and Ebohoh(2014) remarked that there is nowhere the problem of inadequate infrastructure is most pronounced than in Nigeria where the dearth of infrastructure is compounded by the inability to maintain the few existing ones. They further stated that lack of infrastructure is most pronounced in the rural areas where incidentally most tourist sites are located.

Although Nigeria being an upcoming country in tourism development, the sector need be developed sustainably in order to enhance the environmental, economic and socio-cultural sustainability of the tourist areas (Choi and Sikaraya, 2006). Sustainability is not only about being sensitive to local community needs and concerns, recognising the importance of all the people in the decision making process (Ozgen, 2003).

Theoretical Framework

Sustainable tourism aims at meeting today's needs without compromising the need of future generation (Kafle, 2011). The researcher explained the role of stakeholders for sustainable tourism in alleviating poverty as the poor, the government, the private sector, the tourist, the non-governmental organisations and other development organisations. Kuster (2011) stated that people may not be familiar with sustainable tourism or responsible tourism terminology but they prefer natural heritage, socio-cultural heritage, historical heritage, and environmental interaction with local culture. He further that explained that sustainable tourism is affected by a number of socio-economic variables and these are business cycle in the global economy, development of science and technologies, culture and lifestyle of the changing generation and trends in tourism industry itself. Sustainable tourism provides employment opportunities by diversifying and increasing income which reduces the vulnerability of the poor (UNESCAP, 2003). Sustainable is very important in generating
solutions for local problem regarding women, marginalised group, natural resources, environment and critical issues (Kafle, 2011). He further stated that increased local social welfare, greater and more equitably distributed local economic wealth and enhanced integrity of local ecosystems are the objectives for steering sustainable local development. Sustainable tourism was suggested to be capable of providing jobs, generating income, diversifying the economy, protecting the environment and promoting cross-cultural awareness.

A model of barriers to tourism related poverty reduction is stated by Jameison et al., (2004) as follows:

- Lack of government programme targeted to the tourism informal sector which plays an essential role in providing tourism services and has the significant potential of helping to reduce poverty especially in urban areas.
- Lack of education/training of tourism and poverty officials in using tourism as a poverty reduction tool.
- Poor lacking access to credit which is essential in helping them to participate in the tourism economy.
- Government as well as non-governmental agencies lacking the organisational capacity to respond to the opportunities provided by tourism development.
- Poor having limited access to tourism infrastructure and assets.
- Governments and in particular regions and communities lack essential market knowledge to allow them develop pro-tourism strategies and products based on sound market information.
- Outdated regulations and red tape make it impossible at times to develop innovative products and services.
- Often the areas with the highest levels of poverty lack the necessary transportation and communication infrastructure essential to meeting needs of the tourism industry.

According to Wolfgang and Lucie (2011), building leakages among the poor and government agencies require:

- Effective national policy strategies and a regulatory framework that builds on local development
- Public private partnership collaboration between tourism enterprises and local enterprises and local governments to set regulations and policies on local supply chains, as well as the establishment of sustainable market opportunities for local suppliers that help to sustain local environment while ensuring quality, quantity and a unique experience for tourists to get in contact with local enterprises.

A seven step model of sustainable tourism for alleviating poverty is recommended by World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and Netherlands Development Organisation (SNV) in the year 2010 as follows:

- Employment of poor in tourism enterprise
- Supply of goods and services to tourism enterprise by the poor or by enterprises employing the poor
- Direct sales to the visitors by the poor (informal economy)
- Establishment and running tourism enterprises by the poor, that is, Micro Small and Medium Size Enterprises, community based enterprises (formal economy)
- Tax or levy on tourism income or profits with proceeds benefiting the poor
- Voluntary giving/support by tourism enterprises and tourists
- Investment in infrastructure stimulated by tourism development benefiting the poor directly or through support to other sectors.

Methodology

Nigeria consists of 36 states in the Federation. Oyo state is one of the states located in the southwestern zone of the country. The state exhibits a typical tropical climate of averagely high temperature, high relative humidity and generally two rainfall maxima regimes during March to October.

Fig 1: Map showing 36 states of Nigeria

The study was conducted in the Oyo State Tourism Board and Oyo Council for Art and Culture. The governmental agencies which are directly under the Ministry of Tourism and Culture coordinate the activities of travel agencies, hotels, restaurants, event centres, night clubs, car hire services, souvenir outlets, arts and crafts shops among others.
Oyo State is homogenous with a population of about 6.5 million people (Oyo State Tourist Guide, 2008). The state which consists of Yoruba speaking nationals is blessed with many tourist attraction centres ranging from historical and archaeological sites, battle grounds, old settlements, cultural attractions to recreational spots. The Oyo State houses one of the eight National Parks in Nigeria. The state covers a total of 27,249 square kilometres of land mass and consists of 33 Local governments with each having unique culture, festivals, arts, crafts and traditional cuisine (Oyo State Tourist Guide, 2008). Oyo state is one of the most urbanised in the Federation. The topography of the state is one of gentle rolling lowland in the south, rising to a plateau of 40 metres in the north. The state is well drained with rivers flowing from upland in the north-south direction.

The study was conducted by employing both primary and secondary data. The primary data employed in this study were taken from quantitative and qualitative data. The qualitative data were employed through interview and observation of staffs of Oyo State Tourism Board and Oyo Council for Art and Culture. The qualitative were used to determine programmes targeted towards reduction of poverty among residents of Oyo State; and to review whether opportunities provided by immense tourism potentials in the State are harnessed and utilised to empower the poor. The quantitative data were gotten through administration of questionnaires to key informants in tourism businesses in Oyo State. Secondary data was collected through a comprehensive review of literature using publication from academic articles, books, reports, relevant papers and web analysis. The review of literature was done in accordance to the objectives of the paper. Some information received from the Oyo State Ministry of Tourism and Culture were very useful to the study.

A purposive sampling technique was employed to interview 10 key officers out of the 28 staff of the two government agencies. The selection was done through position held, expertise and length of service in the government agencies. Also a purposive sampling technique was used to select the key informants from the seven major tourism outlets (hotels, travel agencies, restaurants, event centres, car hire services, souvenir shops, arts and craft shops) served by the two government agents. Five key informants of each of the seven tourism outlets were selected. The key informants from each tourism outlet selected include the Manager or Chief Executive or Director. A total of were 35 key informants were used. Both the model of barriers to tourism related poverty reduction by Jameison et al (2004) and seven step model of sustainable tourism for poverty reduction by UNWTO and SNV (2010) were used as guidelines for the interview and questionnaires of this research. Descriptive analysis which consists of table and simple percentages was employed in discussion of the result.

The major objectives of the study were to determine the

- role of governmental agencies in building linkages between tourism industry and local economy
- perception of the major key informants of tourism outlets in governmental agencies alleviating problem
- relevant recommendations and suggestions for further study

**Results and Discussion**

**Staff Perception of Government Alleviating Poverty**

In this section, the findings from the interaction with the staff of the two governmental agencies are discussed. During the interaction it was found out that although the state government fly some programmes, there is lack of programmes targeted on tourism development to alleviate poverty among the poor. This has made the poor to have limited access to tourism assets. It was also observed that the state government has not utilised essential tourism market knowledge. The main concept of
tourism serving as a tool to alleviate poverty is not properly understood and taken among administrators as conflict of interest is paramount among administrators. Although the State policy on tourism encourages creation of direct employment for masses through tourism enterprises, funds were not made available for small scale businesses.

As tourism policy makers were not trained to understand the full concept of tourism, the linkage between the governmental agencies and local sector is very weak. This has also been a barrier to capacity building among local entrepreneurs. Small and medium scale businesses are not created by the government as masses lack access to credit facilities. Opportunities provided by the tourism potentials of the state are not harnessed and utilised to empower the poor. A major problem the state government struggles with is enhancement of infrastructural facilities. Although much was done in this area recently, the impact is yet to be fully realised by the masses. Tourism in Oyo State has however promoted traditional festival and ceremonies thereby enhancing the socio-cultural status of the people. The State agencies made appreciable effort to lessen tourism economic leakages by reducing imported skilled labour and luxury products. Demonstration projects to improve the traditional skills of the local enterprise are lacking and this has further widened the gap between the government and the poor.

**Questionnaires**

The questionnaires attempted to find out how activities of the government agencies positively impacted poverty alleviation in the state.

**Table 2: Impact of Governmental Agencies’ Activities on Poverty Alleviation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities of governmental agencies</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government assist to market products to tourists</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>74.3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existence of viable partnership and collaboration with government</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government aiding supply of tourism goods and services by the poor</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>68.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government encouraging direct sales of goods and services to tourists</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>82.9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government allow access to credit facilities for small and medium scale businesses</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor made to partake in decision making</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>91.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training programme on tourism from the government</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>77.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism taxes used for poverty alleviation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>91.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results from Table 1 show that the government agencies in Oyo state are yet to fully actualise programmes and policies that would alleviate poverty among the poor.

Although the Oyo state governmental agencies have not fully utilised the knowledge of tourism market, majority (74.3%) of the respondents from tourism outlets believe the agencies assist in marketing the tourism products to tourists. The respondents from the tourism outlets (80%) believe that there is no viable partnership and collaboration with government and this might has resulted to absence of demonstration projects to enhance the traditional skills of the poor. Sustainable tourism
can only be achieved when governments and local businesses cooperate on practical initiatives in destinations through stable local level partnerships. This might also be as a result of the State government lacking the organisational capacities to respond to the opportunities provided by tourism ventures. In line with the result that there is no viable partnership between the agencies and the tourism outlets, majority (77%) also testified to absence of training programmes by the government. There is a very low level of response of the government agencies to poverty alleviation as over 85% of the response believed the poor do not have access to credit facilities for creation of small and medium scale businesses. This is reflected in the report of WTTC (2014) that the collective spending of the government on tourism is low. Jameison et al.,(2004) stated that the focus of development aid should not be solely to build hotels and fund national airlines but rather to support the process of development through of the country through capacity building, infrastructural development and in small and medium scale businesses creation. Promotion of local businesses is however doing fairly well in Oyo state as many of the respondents (about 83%) attested to the fact that government agencies assist in direct sales of their products to the tourists. Tourism is said to be capable of contributing to direct taxation by generating taxable economic growth. Tourism taxes in Oyo state are not used to alleviate poverty as over 91% of respondents testified to this. Tourism taxes could alleviate poverty through education, health and infrastructural development.

**Conclusion and Recommendation**

The results indicate that governmental agencies in Oyo state lack programmes targeted on tourism development and poverty alleviation. The full concept of tourism in respect of its capability to serve as tool for economic development and wealth creation is yet to be fully understood by policy makers. There is dearth of viable collaboration and partnership between governmental agencies and the local sector and as such credit facilities are not readily accessed by the poor for creation of small and medium scale enterprises. Although governmental agencies assist in marketing local products to tourists, non-involvement of the poor in decision-making process has led to lesser positive impacts. The study revealed that the poor are not experiencing improvement in their lives and livelihood in reasonable measure through tourism.

The recommendations that emanate from this study are as follows:

- Governmental agencies and Policy Makers should have a large understanding about the potentials and role of sustainable tourism in national development and wealth creation
- Oyo State tourism agencies should collaborate with national and international agencies in development of viable partnership with residents in alleviating poverty
- The linkage between the government and the local sector must be recreated by skill enhancement training, access to fund for small and medium scale tourism enterprises and active participation in decision making process.
- Governmental agencies should always encourage direct linkage of tourists with the poor which would enhance vibrant marketing and sales of products
- Professional and academic training of governmental agencies’ staff is imperative to broaden the scope of activities and perception in alleviating poverty through sustainable tourism.
- A bottom-up decision making procedure that directly takes into consideration the immediate need of the poor should be put in place.
References


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The Potentials for Cultural Heritage Tourism Development in the Red Sea – Case Study: Halayib and Shalateen in Egypt

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Abstract

Halayib and Shalateen are two Cities in the Red Sea governorate that are important on the South boarders of Egypt. In this paper the potential to develop Cultural Heritage Tourism in the Halayib and Shalateen Region is assessed. The successful achievement of the objective to position the country as an attractive heritage destination on the international market is very important for Halayib and Shalateen and the Egyptian tourism sector. The heritage destinations in Halayib and Shalateen need to build strong destination brands in order to gain competitive advantage on the international market.

Keywords: Cultural Heritage Tourism, Halayib and Shalateen, Destination development.

1. Introduction

Egypt is rich in cultural heritage that can be traced from the remote prehistoric past to the various stages of world civilization. Ancient Egypt’s monuments link us to the past and make us aware of past human achievements. It is our duty to protect and preserve this heritage so that we, and future generations, can share in this historical legacy of our predecessors. Many Sites in Egypt like Abu Simbel have been proposed as UNESCO World heritage Sites. Cultural and heritage tourism is growing at the international level: in an era characterized by increasing globalization of markets and technological innovation, culture is one of the main differentiation factors of tourism destinations. When Cultural Heritage Tourism is done well, the biggest beneficiaries are not the visitors but the local residents who experience a renewed appreciation for and pride in their local city and its history. The influence of well-planned and well-managed local tourism programs extends to improving the local economy and enhancing the quality of life for local residents (Ennis 2003). The benefits may include the potential for profitable domestic industries – hotels, restaurants, transport systems, souvenirs, handicrafts and guide services. In addition, there is a quantified gain in tourist expenditure. Through this, money earned through informal employment such as street vendors, informal guides, and rickshaw drivers is returned to the local economy and has a great multiplier effect, as it is spent over and over again. The WTTC estimates that the indirect contribution of tourism equals 100% of that of direct tourism expenditures (Stokes, K. 2006).

1.1 Statement of the Problem

In the Red Sea region, el Sokhna, el Quseir, Safaga, and Marsa Alam were developed for tourism without any plan to protect their heritage. This study tries to explore the elements of Cultural Heritage Tourism in the region of Halayib and Shalateen to be planned and developed and the creation of a modern tourist region which can add diversity to the product of Egyptian tourism.

To achieve this, the study attempts to answer the following questions:
- What are the main destinations for Cultural Heritage Tourism in Halayib and Shalateen?
- What are the important effects of the Cultural Heritage Tourism to the economic growth of Egypt?
- What are major roles of public and private sectors in making essential investment for the Cultural Heritage Tourism development?
- What necessary policies should be implemented to develop Cultural Heritage Tourism in Halayib and Shalateen?

1.2 Research Objectives:

- Analysis of spatial and regional variation of tourist sites in the region, under study in the light of the factors affecting them, in order to identify the main tourist sites, to provide a stronger basis for planners and decision makers to realize the importance of Cultural Heritage Tourism, and tourism industry in Halayib and Shalateen.

- Highlighting the spatial features of tourist sites in the region and recognizing its position among other tourist regions, in light of the available potentialities, and building up Halayib and Shalateen as interesting tourist destinations, with the aim of achieving uniqueness and advancement.

1.3 Research Hypothesis

There is an impact of a positive nature for the development of Halayib and Shalateen on increasing the rate of growth of the Egyptian economy.

1.4 Methodology:

This study uses a descriptive method to collect data. Part of the data are qualitative data gathered through personal semi-structured interviews with 15 tourism experts - The collection of data is mainly based on a questionnaire - which was carried out in June and July 2014.

2. Review of Literature

2.1 Cultural Heritage Tourism (CHT)

Tourism is a form of modern cross-cultural communications and relations. One of the reasons for traveling is heritage and heritage sites. The concept of heritage as the main carrier of historical values from the past, means that it is seen as part of the cultural identification of society (Dahles 1996). Cultural Heritage Tourism is perceived as a particular component, which is “travelling to experience places and activities that authentically represent the stories and people of the past and present. It includes historic, cultural and natural resources” (CHT organization 2011). Christou suggests that the term “heritage and cultural tourism” refers to that segment of the tourism industry which places special emphasis on heritage and cultural attractions (Christou, E. 2006). It can be argued there are five objectives of heritage and cultural destinations: Focus on authenticity and quality, preservation of resources, make sites come alive, find the fit between community and heritage tourism, and collaborate with tourism managers (Laws, E. and G.Wen Pan 2004). The link between culture and tourism is the most visible aspect of the contribution of culture to local development: 37% of global tourism has a cultural motivation. When tourism is identified as part of an overall development strategy, the identification, protection and enhancement of historic resources is vital for any sustainable effort. According to recent estimates the impact of heritage driving the tourism industry is obvious in many cities. Due to the exploitation of heritage, many new jobs are generated in the tourism (Phu 2014).
2.2 The Potential for Cultural Heritage Tourism in Halayib and Shalateen

Heritage destination development is very important for Halayib and Shalateen, to improve the quality of life in the region by achieving sustainable development. Halayib and Shalateen have the potential to attract a number of totally different market segments with regards to the type of the tourist and per capita expenditure, because the “cultural” tourist is a different kind of visitor compared to the traditional tourist of “sun, sea and sand” as he wants to discover and get acquainted with historical cities and museums. At the same time this type of tourist shows an interest in landscapes, popular celebrations, gastronomy, typical folklore and other cultural representations (Archibugi 2008).

Fig.1. Map of Halayib Triangle showing the important Sites in the area.

Source: Researchers.

The case study (Halayib and Shalateen) is an area of land located on the Red Sea's Egyptian coast (Fig.1). It measures 20,580 square kilometers. It consisted of three large towns including Halayib, Shalateen and Abu Ramad. Shalateen is characterized by fisheries (Mahmoud 2009). It includes in the south-east Gebel Elba. It is also characterized by its fertile lands that depend on irrigation from groundwater and rainwater. The region includes five villages (red sea.gov.eg 2014):

- The village of Abu Ramad: 125 km south of the city of Shalateen.
- Village of Halayib: 165 km south of the city Shalateen.
- Village of Raas Alhaddarbh: 22 km south of the village of Halayib.
- Village of Mersa Humeira: 40 km north of Shalateen.
- Abraq village: 90 km west of Mersa Humeira Village.
2.2.1 Natural resources

The region contains geological and mineral wealth, water resources of the wells, and freshwater springs. It is also enriched by the Red Sea that provides it with coral reefs, sea grass, rare sea creatures in addition to the many islands of the Red Sea within the limits of the region which contain sea turtles and many rare species of birds (resident and migratory), species of mangrove trees of environmental and economic value (Mackie 2004).

Gebel Elba: It is located in the south-eastern corner of Halayib triangle and extends to an area of 35,600 square kilometers. Gebel Elba is a group of mountain ranges facing the eastern coast of the Red Sea and in the interface of air currents and clouds laden with moisture, which gather over the tops of 350 species of plants to compose green oases above the cliffs and peaks of Gebel Elba, on those mountains and in the streams of valleys passing by it. These species grow annually or permanently. The most important of these plants that grow on top of these mountains are Dracaena trees which characterize Gebel Elba. Dracaena ombet: Medium height trees grow over the summits of Gebel Elba in the valleys of Yahmeeb, Akao and Aidyb as the environment of Gebel Elba is characterized by high humidity (Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency 2010). In addition to the mangrove coastal forests and the islands of the Red Sea: the marine life of Gebel Elba Region is distinct.

Wildlife: The region includes about 23 species of mammals, a large number of which are threatened with extinction, such as the bighorn ram, Hyrax and the African Tiger. The Gebel Elba region has 40 types of reptiles - 173 species of marine and desert birds and some amphibians. The coral reefs: approximately 123 species of soft and hard coral reefs in the marine area of the coastal Red Sea and five types of Sea turtles in the region (Dabs 2000).

Plant diversity

The region is marked with its chains of mountains containing about 350 plant species. The Egyptian flora represents 14% of 121 species of such equivalent environment. The areas of environmental diversity: at the global level: the area is similar to the African tropical environment, especially in the southern regions (Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency 1995).

2.2.2 Historical resources

In the Prehistoric and early historic times the eastern Desert was populated as in Pharaonic times. There are numerous rock drawings in the southern region. The drawings show local contact with the population in the Nile Valley during the Naqada II period (Kessler 2001). The topography is the result of faults and elevating shifts that occurred during the formation of the Red Sea basin, some twenty to thirty million years ago. The desert began to dry out about 3500 B.C. and the eastern desert's climate is similar today to the climate conditions in Pharaonic times. God Amun Min or Min was the dominant deity in the southern part of the eastern desert (Kessler 2001). The desert nomads traveled to water sources and across the coastal regions of the southern part of the eastern desert. In the Pharaonic expedition reports they were referred as Medjay from which the today's Bedja and Maaza tribes are assumed to be descended (Kessler 2001). Since Ptolemaic times (332-30 B.C.), the Nile Valley between Aswan and Wadi Alaqi was known as the Dodecaschoinos. In Roman times this name was used for the entire area south of Aswan under Roman control, until Emperor Diocletian withdrew the border to Aswan around 295 CE (Barnard 2008). There was a Ptolemaic station in the desert near el-Abraq (Shenshef). Gebel Siikeit (Mons Smaragdos) and Gebel Zabara, green beryl (emerald) was mined in the Ptolemaic and Roman times. The Via Nova Hadriana is the first confirmed road built in 130 B.C. by the Roman emperor Hadrian from...
his founded City Antinoeopolis (Sheik Abada) in Central Egypt on the Red Sea and then farther along the coast to the southern Berenice (Kessler 2001). During most periods important political, military or cultural borders were located in this area, respectively those between Pharaonic, Graeco-Roman, Early Islamic and Ottoman Egypt, part of the larger Eastern Mediterranean sphere of influence, and the Kerma, Nepatan, Meroitic, Early Christian and Funj states. No systematic study of the Halayib Triangle has yet been completed (Barnard 2008).

2.2.3 Cultural resources

There are three tribes residing in Halayib and Shalateen forming a part of the local environment: Albashaira tribe descending from Hamian origins who speak an unwritten language called Albideauah. Al-Ababda tribe of an Arab descent and inhabit the northern areas of the region, and al-Rashaida tribe which descends from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, and inhabits the coastal plain (red sea.gov.eg 2014). The residents in Halayib and Shalateen have some occupations that fit the character of their environment and their existing resources. The most important of these crafts are grazing, where residents graze their camels on both livestock and plants in the ground, especially during the periods of rain. They also use dry trees as fuel for the production of charcoal, creating another craft that is cooking, in addition to the fishing. The locals work also in industry and trade (Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency 2010). Most of the local people are skillful in some manual crafts such as making environmental tools including the living tools, the tools of combat as swords and daggers beside their own nomadic textiles. Some of them work in the trade of camels and medicinal herbs as well as handicrafts. This creates the international trading market in Shalateen inside the region, which is concerned with trade across the borders between Egypt and Sudan (red sea.gov.eg 2014). The cultures of the local community in the region are represented by many arts, including music and singing which handles stories that touch the environment around them. They use a musical instrument called a "drum - Altonbour". They express the nature of their area through some dances, including, that of "Hussite". These customs and traditions produce a unique heritage of this region that expresses a need to preserve it. An example is the Ababda headrest that is in the collection of Bayt al – Ababda Museum in Wadi Gamal, Egypt (Fig.2). It's similar to the ancient Egyptian headrests (Fig.3).

3. Result and Research Finding

3.1 Questionnaire Analysis

The One Sample T test was used to analyze the questionnaire. The paragraph is positive when the sample respondents approve its content if the value of calculated (T) is greater than the value of tabular (T) which is equal to 2.624 or the significance level is less than 0.01 and the relative weight is greater than 60 %. The paragraph is negative in the sense that the
respondents do not agree on the content if the value of calculated (T) is greater than the value of tabular (T) which is equal to 2.624 or when the significance level is less than 0.01 and the relative weight is less than 60%. The sample respondents to the paragraph are neutral if the level of significance is greater than 0.01.

Table (1)

Illustrates the Answers of a sample of respondents to the first question:
Do the government have any plan to develop Halayib and Shalateen?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: SPSS

Figure (4)
Illustrates the Answers of a sample of respondents to the first question:

It can be seen from Table 1 and Figure (1) that 60% of the sample believes that the government has no plan for the development of Halayib and Shalateen. Some 40% of the samples do not know that the government has no plan for the development of Halayib and Shalateen. The researchers see that this is because the government did not explicitly declare the presence of such a plan for the development of Halayib and Shalateen.
Table (2)

Illustrates the Answers of a sample of respondents to the Second question
What are the main causes which have affected the development in Halayib and Shalateen?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Paragraph</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Mathematical Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Relative Weight</th>
<th>T Value</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>public policy of the Government</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.8000</td>
<td>.41404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Lack of public &amp; private investments</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.4667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Insufficient of infrastructure</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.4667</td>
<td>.83381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Tribes of the region</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2.0667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Paragraphs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.4500</td>
<td>.34330</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tabulated t value at the level of significance (0.01) and degrees of freedom (14) equals 2.624.

**Table (2) shows that:**

Paragraph (1), states that "public policy of the Government" with the relative weight (96%) and the level of significance (0.000) that is less than 0.01 and indicating agreement of the respondents with this paragraph. This is because the development of Halayib and Shalateen is not listed within the general policy of successive governments for the development of this region.

Paragraph (2), states a lack of public & private investments with a relative weight (69.334%) and the level of significance (0.000) which is less than 0.01, indicating agreement of the respondents with this paragraph. This is because of the lack of public or private investment for the development of this region.

Paragraph (3), states insufficient infrastructure with a relative weight (69.334%) and the level of significance (0.000) which is less than 0.01, indicating agreement of the respondents with this paragraph. This is because of the lack of interest by the state in the infrastructure of Halayib and Shalateen.

Paragraph (4), deals with the tribes of the region, the relative weight is (41.334%) and the level of significance (0.000) which is less than 0.01. This indicates disagreement of the respondents with this paragraph, due to the fact that the respondents do not consider the tribes inhabiting the province of Halayib and Shalateen as a constraint to development.
In general, it appears that the mean of all the paragraphs of answers of respondents to the second question, which inquired: "What are the main causes which have affected the development in Halayib and Shalateen?" equals 3.4500. The relative weight equals 69%, which is greater than the neutral relative weight (60%). The (t) value calculated equals 38.921, and that is greater than the value of Tabular (t) which equals 2.624. The significance level equals 0.000, which is less than 0.01. This indicates the research sample on public policy pursued by the state with Halayib and Shalateen do not consider further development. So, public or private investments are not directed to the development of the region. In addition, there is a lack of infrastructure to develop the region and the complete reluctance of private investments. All this because that region is under the control of the armed forces who consider it a military zone.

As for the third question about: the main destinations for Cultural Heritage Tourism in Halayib and Shalateen, the Answers of a sample of respondents revolved around the following: Beaches, Mountains, Historic places, Monuments, and Traditional Villages.

Table (3)
Illustrates the Answers of a sample of respondents to the Second question (What are the advantages of the development of Cultural Heritage Tourism?)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Paragraph</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Relative Weight</th>
<th>T Value</th>
<th>Function level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Heritage Conservation</td>
<td>Zero Zero Zero 1 14</td>
<td>4.9333</td>
<td>.25820</td>
<td>98.66</td>
<td>74.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Natural Resources Preservation</td>
<td>Zero Zero 1 2 12</td>
<td>4.7333</td>
<td>.59362</td>
<td>94.66</td>
<td>30.882</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>People’s Awareness Improvement</td>
<td>Zero Zero 4 11 Zero</td>
<td>3.8000</td>
<td>.41404</td>
<td>76.00</td>
<td>35.546</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All paragraphs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.4889</td>
<td>.21331</td>
<td>89.78</td>
<td>81.502</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tabulated t value at the level of significance (0.01) and degrees of freedom (14) equals 2.624.

From Table (3), it is clear that:
In Paragraph (1), which states "Heritage Conservation", the relative weight is (98.66%) and the level of significance (0.000) which is less than 0.01, indicating the agreement of the respondents to this paragraph. This is because the development of Halayib and Shalateen is one of the advantages of the development of Cultural Heritage, Tourism and Cultural Preservation.

In paragraph (2) that deals with (the Natural resources preservation), the relative weight is (94.66%) and the level of significance is (0.000) which is less than 0.01, indicating the agreement of the respondents to this paragraph. This is because it is one of the advantages of the development of Cultural Heritage, Tourism and conservation of natural resources.
In paragraph (3), which deals with people's awareness improvement, the relative weight reached (76%) and the level of significance (0.000) which is less than 0.01, indicating the agreement of the respondents to this paragraph. This is because it is one of the advantages of development of Cultural Heritage and Tourism to increase the awareness of the population.

In general, it appears that the mean of all the paragraphs of answers by respondents to the second question, which states: "What are the advantages of the development of Cultural Heritage and Tourism?" equal 4.4889 and the relative weight equals 89.78%, which is greater than the neutral relative weight (60%).

The calculated value of (t) equals 81.502 and that is greater than the tabulate value of (T) that is equal to 2.624. The significance level equals 0.000, which is less than 0.01, indicating the agreement of the research sample that the development of Halayib and Shalateen helps to maintain the heritage and natural resources of the region and increase the awareness of their population.

As for the question about: the important effects of the Cultural Heritage Tourism to the economic growth of Egypt, the answers of a sample of respondents revolved around the following: Jobs/employments creation, increase of revenue, incomes generation, improvement of tourism industry, and sustainable economic growth.

Table (4) Illustrates the answers of a sample of respondents to the second question
Do you think that the development of Cultural Heritage Tourism will bring negative impacts in Halayib and Shalateen?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Paragraph</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Relative Weight</th>
<th>T Value</th>
<th>Function level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Do you think that the development of Cultural Heritage Tourism will bring negative impacts in Halayib and Shalateen?</td>
<td>Zero Zero Zero 3 12 4.8000 .41404 96.00 44.900 .000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tabulated t value at the level of significance (0.01) and degrees of freedom (14) equals 2.624.

Table (4) shows that:
The respondents for "Do you think that the development of Cultural Heritage and Tourism will bring negative impacts in Halayib and Shalateen?" scored the relative weight (96%) and a level of significance (0.000) which is less than 0.01. This indicates the respondents'
agreement to this paragraph, as any development has adverse effects, especially if it is random, without the adequate planning, and study of all cultural, economic, social and natural aspects.

As for the question about: the negative impact of development of Cultural Heritage Tourism in Halayib and Shalateen, the Answers of a sample of respondents revolved around the following:

- Emissions of air pollution
- Degradation of relics, monuments.
- Water and solid waste
- Destruction of eco-system.

Threats to biodiversity in Gebel Elba park can be divided into:

- Internal threats (hunting wild animals – sea fishing and collecting marine species - agriculture within the park - cooking - logging and timber collection - drought and climate change - change and transformation of ownership and uses of the land in the park).
- External threats (invasive species to the park- hunting wild animals)
- Threats of removal (mineralization and mining - collecting wild plants and animals – reaping and collecting medicinal plants).

Table (5)
Respondents answers to the Eighth question
What are the difficult issues for the development of Cultural Heritage Tourism in Halayib and Shalateen?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Paragraph</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Relative Weight</th>
<th>T Value</th>
<th>Function level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>agree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Transportation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.8000</td>
<td>.56061</td>
<td>76.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Infrastructure</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.9333</td>
<td>.25820</td>
<td>98.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.4000</td>
<td>.73679</td>
<td>68.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.1333</td>
<td>1.12546</td>
<td>62.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Environmental Issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5.0000</td>
<td>.00000*</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All Paragraphs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.0533</td>
<td>.19223</td>
<td>81.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tabulated t value at the level of significance (0.01) and degrees of freedom (14) equals 2.624.

It cannot be computed because the standard deviation is 0.

Table (5) shows that:
In paragraph (1) which dealt with "Transportation" the relative weight reached (76.00%) and the level of significance (0.000) which is less than 0.01, indicating the agreement of the respondents to this paragraph. This is because the region has normal chains of mountainous which make it difficult to move from a place to another.
In paragraph (2), which dealt with infrastructure, the relative weight reached (98.66%) and the level of significance (0.000) which is less than 0.01, indicating the agreement of the respondents to this paragraph. This is because there is no infrastructure in the region due to the negligence by successive governments for its development.

In paragraph (3), which deals with accommodation, the relative weight reached (68.00%) and the level of significance (0.000) which is less than 0.01, indicating the agreement of the respondents to this paragraph. This is because of the absence of hospitality places in the region, because the government neglected the establishment of infrastructure.

In paragraph (4) which dealt with communication, the relative weight was (62.66%) and the level of significance (0.000) which is less than 0.01, indicating the agreement of the respondents to this paragraph. This is because of the negligence of the government to establish infrastructure.

In paragraph (5) which dealt with Environmental issues, the relative weight reached (100.00%) indicating the agreement of all respondents to this paragraph. This is because of the presence of Gebel Elba park within the province of Halayib and Shalateen.

In general, it appears that the arithmetic mean of all the paragraphs of the respondents' answers to the second question, which states:

"What are the difficult issues for the development of Cultural Heritage and Tourism in Halayib and Shalateen?"

Equals (4.0533) and the relative weight equals 81.07%, which is greater than the neutral relative weight (60%). The calculated value of (t) equals 81.665 which is greater than the value of tabular (t) equal to 2.624. The significance level equals 0.000 which is less than 0.01, indicating the agreement of the research sample on the importance of the paragraphs in question, and taking this into account when planning for the development of the region.

As for the question about: the necessary policies should be implemented to develop Cultural Heritage Tourism in Halayib and Shalateen, the Answers of a sample of respondents revolved around the following: Infrastructure: Electricity, water system, telecommunicate, health care service, banking, roads, Sea ports, airport, hotels and diving center.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table (6)</th>
<th>Respondents Answers to the Tenth Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financing development processes in Halayib and Shalateen?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid public investments</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>public investments</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (6)
Respondents Answers to the Tenth Question
Financing development processes in Halayib and Shalateen?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid public investments</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public investments</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public and private investments</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: SPSS

Figure (5)
Respondents Answers to the Tenth Question

It is seen from Table (6) and Figure (5) that 66.7% of the research sample believes in the need to develop Halayib and Shalateen and the need for partnership between the public and private sector in its development. Some 20.00% prefer the public sector to assume the development process, and 13.3% believe that the private sector is better at handling the development process in Halayib and Shalateen.

3.2 The Study Hypothesis:
There is an impact of a positive nature for the development of Halayib and Shalateen on increasing the rate of growth of the Egyptian economy.

Table (7)
One Sample T test was used to test the hypothesis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.8133</td>
<td>.11602</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (8)

<p>| Test Value = 0.1 |
|------------------|-------------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>123.960</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3.71333</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Through the test results it is clear that the arithmetic mean is 3.8133, the standard deviation is 0.11602, and the value of (t) test 127.298 with freedom degrees (14). It is noted that the p value = 0.000 which is less than $\alpha$. So, we reject the null hypothesis, which states that "there is no impact of positive nature to the development of Halayib and Shalateen on increasing the rate of growth of the Egyptian economy". And we accept the alternative hypothesis, which states: "There is an impact of a positive nature to the development of Halayib and Shalateen on increasing the rate of growth of the Egyptian economy".

4. **Conclusion:**
Halayib and Shalateen have significant potential for developing Cultural Heritage Tourism. The government has till now no plan for the development of Cultural Heritage Tourism in Halayib and Shalateen. The successful achievement of the objective to position the country as an attractive heritage destination on the international market is very important for Halayib and Shalateen and the Egyptian tourism sector for:

- sufficient and adequate utilization of the tourist resources and facilities for sustainable economic development;
- preservation, popularization and socialization of the cultural heritage.
- opening of new economic opportunities and new jobs in areas and places with lower living standard and economic development.

The heritage destinations in Halayib and Shalateen need to build strong destination brands in order to gain a competitive advantage on the international market.

5. **Recommendation**
- Cooperation and Coordination between the Multi-Stakeholders should be developed further to make essential investments into the development of Cultural Heritage Tourism in Halayib
and Shalateen* . The selling of land for touristic purposes has to be restricted to avoid building on archeological sites.
- Improvement of awareness for the local people about the conservation and preservation of Cultural Heritages, should be developed further in Halayib and Shalateen.
- Environmental protection and management should be always given necessary attention.

**References**
2. Barnarad, Hans (2008), *Eastern Desert Ware: Traces of the Inhabitants of the Eastern Deserts in Egypt and Sudan during the 4th-6th Centuries CE*.
17. PM, VII. pp.207-209.

* During the research the government has announced a donating fund for the development of Halayib and Shalateen under number 999 999 of all Egyptian banks.
20. Stokes, K. (2006), Heritage and Cultural Tourism as a Strategy to Lead Newport County Tourism, retrieved April 20th, from Web site:

Author’s Background

Ass.Prof. Mona Taha Hussein teaches Egyptology at the Faculty of Tourism and Hotel Management, October 6 University, Egypt. She received her Ph.D at the Faculty of Tourism, Helwan University. Member of the (ACGSSR), General Association of the Arab Archaeologists, and the General Tourist Guides Syndicate.

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Dynamics of Land Use and Land Cover Change in Nan province during 1995-2012

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Abstract

In this paper, the author analyzed dynamics of land use and land cover change in Nan province (Thailand) from 1995 to 2012. The study area covers 1,205,412 ha. Satellite data Landsat 7 ETM from 2002 and 2009, THEOS/THAICHOTE from 2012 and vector data set years 1995 and 2000 issued by Land Development Department (Thailand) were employed. Data preparation was conducted by using remote sensing technics. Analysis and mapping was done by using geographical information systems (GIS).

The result showed that the main types of land use and land cover were natural forest, perennial crop, swidden cultivation, field crop, pasture, forestry plantation and paddy field respectively. The change of land use types during almost 20 year period were characterized by rapid decreasing of natural forest areas and increasing of cultivated areas. From 1995 to 2012, natural forest areas decreased from 856,246 ha to 500,439 ha or 41.6%, whereas cultivated areas increased from 342,997 ha to 518,257 ha or 51.1%. Land use changes in the study area are much influenced by economic factors, such as increased need for cash and easier access to markets for agricultural products. It also caused by the government policy through the promotion of cash-crop cultivation and permanent fields.

Keywords: land use change, land cover change, GIS analysis, remote sensing, Thailand
Introduction

Land use and land cover changes are not a new issue but the research of the ongoing changes is still important as it gives new meaning and content in the context of global environment change. Furthermore, due to the diversity of physical environment, political and socio-economic factors of each region we need to create a suitable measures and plans for sustainable management of natural resources.

Nan province is situated in Northern Thailand, in the region with the majority of area (41.5%) is mainly covered by natural forest. Currently, these areas are confronting with a variety of environmental problems, such as deforestation, expansion of cultivated areas, changing from swidden cultivation to permanent cultivation, landslide, flooding and agrochemicals. Characteristics of changes in the study area correspond with the result from researchers, who previously studied about land use changes in northern Thailand. They found that in a part of northern Thailand shifting/swidden cultivation areas have been replaced by intensive permanent farming areas. Those land use changes transformed the environment into an open landscape, which is maintained by high inputs of agrochemicals [Forsyth and Walker, 2008; Erni, 2009; Trisurat et. al, 2010]. Land use changes have influenced enormously the ecological environment, such as intensive soil erosion, reduction in water quality, and biodiversity loss.

The author studied the extent and degree of land use and land cover changes (LUCC) in Nan province, based on spatial and temporal analysis of LUCC from 1995 to 2012, and explored the possible impact of changing in the study area. Land use changes in different types of landscape, trends in the expansion of cultivated areas and associated results are presented. Hence, this study will be useful for stakeholders in the study area and policy maker to understand and to create the best practice for natural resources management.

Materials and Methods

Monitoring of land use and land cover change in Nan province was based primarily on Landsat 7 ETM+ acquired in 2002 and 2009, and THEOS/THAICHOTE data acquired in 2012 (Tab.1). In addition, sets of vector data years 1995 and 2000 and issued by Land Development Department (Thailand) were used. All satellite images were enhanced using suitable contrast stretch techniques, after that were geo-registered to a customized Transverse Mercator projection and projected to UTM coordinate system of WGS 84. The images were resampled using the nearest neighbor algorithm. Data preparation was conducted by using remote sensing technics. Analysis and mapping was done by using geographical information systems (GIS).

Table 1. Satellite data used for classification of land use changes in province Nan, Northern Thailand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Satellite</th>
<th>Number of bands</th>
<th>Spatial Resolution (m)</th>
<th>Acquisition Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Landsat 7 ETM+</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4 March, 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8 May, 2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THEOS/THAICHOTE</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>29 March, 2012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Study Area

The study area covers 1205412 ha, it is located between latitude 18° 0' 50" to 19° 38' 0.6" N and longitude 100° 20' 26" to 101° 21' 19" E. It is situated in the North of Thailand the distance of 670 km from Bangkok. Administratively, the area is divided into 15 districts (amphoe) (Fig.1). Landscape of Nan province is mountainous, the topography is characterized by north-south mountain ridges (western-the Phi Pan Nam Range and eastern-the Luang Prabang Range) with steep slopes and narrow alluvial valleys.

The lowlands constitute just only 2.51% of total area. The soil is medium or poor fertility. Agriculture plays an important role in the livelihood of local people but suitable areas are limited. The large areas of the province (89,56%) are protected by conservation laws; hence, agriculture and forest activities in this area are limited. In the national park human activities are particularly stricted by laws. The problem is that many activities in natural forests are prohibited by law for example, the collection of several forest products like honey, resin, wasp eggs and rattan. The main forest types found in the study area are the dry dipterocarp, mixed deciduous and evergreen forests, comprised of tropical and montane evergreen and pine forests.

The study area is located in Nan watershed, contributing a major part of the flow of Nan River, which flows from the north through to the center of area and finally to Chao Phraya River, the main river system of Thailand. The mean annual precipitation in Nan province is 1268,8 mm between 1961-2013. The rainy season is from May to September.

The majority of lowlands are mainly occupied by Thai ethic, while the uplands are inhabited by various ethnic groups. The largest minority groups are Lua, Hmong, Mien and Khmu. Population density in the study area is low (~42 persons/km²). The whole population of Nan province is about 478000 people (2013).
Results and Discussion

- Land use and land cover change (1995 – 2012)

Based on the studies of land use and land cover change in Nan province from the period 1995 to 2012, 11 different land use and land cover types have been categorized (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3): natural forest, perennial crop, swidden cultivation, forestry plantation, field crop, pasture, paddy field, orchard, mines, water bodies and urban areas. In 1995, the first three categories were natural forest (71.0%), swidden cultivation (10.2%) and field crops (7.4%). While in 2012, the three first categories were natural forest (41.5%), perennial crops (15.2%) and swidden cultivation (11.7%).

I also considered the trend of changing of land use and land cover in the study area. I found that natural forest areas declined from 856,246 ha in 1995 to 500,439 ha in 2012 (41.5%). On the other hand, cultivated area (combined coverage of perennial crop, swidden cultivation, field crop, pasture, paddy field and orchard) increased by 51.1% from 342,997 ha in 1995 to 518,257 ha in 2012. The majority of deforestation occurred in the period 2009-2012, about 32.87% of the forest area was destroyed as compared to 2009. The majority of the expansion of cultivated areas also occurred in this period. It is highly believed that the missing natural forest areas were replaced by cultivated areas.
Fig. 2 and Table 2 also reveals the cultivation categories such as paddy field, field crops, swidden cultivation and pasture varied according to the size of areas. For example, the area of swidden cultivation between 1995 and 2002 increased from 1.2% to 24.0%, but this category area declined from 24.0% to 11.7% in 2012. In addition, the area of field crops declined from 7.4% in 1995 to 4.2% in 2002. On the other hand, this area increased to 7.6% in 2009 and then again declined to 4.9% in 2012.

Moreover, the area of perennial crop (rubbers, teak) dramatically increased from 0% in 1995 to 0.1% in 2002, 2.1% in 2009 and 15.2% in 2012. The expansion of the area in this category has been distributed both in gentle and steep zones. Considerations with socio-economic, policy and other factors resulted that the fluctuation of changes in land use and land cover could be possibly caused by government policy through the promotion of cash-crop cultivation and permanent fields. Economically increased need for cash and more access to markets for agricultural products may be another cause. In addition, agro-industrial companies’ promotion of cash-crop cultivation in the study area, such as sweet corn was also has some influence. At first, they give seeds, fertilizers and chemicals, and will buy products at guaranteed price.

At present, the expansion of swidden cultivation is limited by Forest Conservation Law. Furthermore, about 80% of the study area is in the protected area (National Park and National Forest), hence farmers are allowed to move cultivated area when the cycle of land is ready. Changing from swidden cultivation to permanent fields and cash-crop cultivation has required more fertilizers, agricultural chemicals and other inputs. The problems follows are soil degradation, remaining agricultural chemicals in the environment, which lead to the variety of problems in the study area.
Fig. 2 Land use and land cover in Nan province, 1995-2012 (%)
Fig. 3 Land use and land cover changes in Nan province (1995-2012)
Table 2. Change in land use and land cover (in ha)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Period of changes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paddy Field</td>
<td>8374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Crop</td>
<td>-21745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perennial Crop</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orchard</td>
<td>11838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swidden Cultivation</td>
<td>83797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Forest</td>
<td>-82342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry Plantation</td>
<td>16462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mineral</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasture</td>
<td>-25624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>6260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>2980</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Land use and land cover changes in relation to slopes

The area of study consists of gentle (<35%) and steep slopes (>35%). Under the forest policy the areas with slope of 35% or more are defined as forest areas that should be protected for watershed conservation and any land use activities are prohibited. The collection of several forest products, such as resin, mushroom, honey and rattan are also prohibited by law.

As shown in Fig. 4 (a), the distribution of natural forest areas on both gentle and steep slopes is nearly equal, but the difference in forest types is essential. Whereas about 70% of cultivated area (Fig.4 (b) was mainly found on gentle slopes (<35%). Moreover, between 1995 and 2012 the natural forest areas on slopes of 12-35% dramatically decreased to 43.89%, but cultivated areas changed in the opposite direction, they increased to about 111.24%.
Fig. 4 Changes of natural forest area (a) and cultivated area (b) and their distribution according to slope classes in 1995-2012.

The expansion of cultivated areas on gentle slopes and plain areas (<35%) totally increased about by 69.84%, which is climbed from 22.01% in 1995 to 25.64% in 2002 and 37.38% in 2012. But within the slope classes, natural forest areas declined from 39.31% in 1995 to 34.33% in 2002 and 19.40% in 2012. The overall deforestation rate on these slope classes was high and gained about 50.65% for 1995-2012. The most severe deforestation (48.88%) occurred between 2009 and 2012 (Fig. 5(a)). The lack of rights on land may force people to clear forests for cultivating because that is the only way for survival and slash-and-burn cultivation is probably the best method for them.

About 38% of the study area is steep slopes (>35%), where the cultivated areas increased from 7.85% in 1995 to 8.67% in 2000 to 9.41% in 2002 and 15.32% in 2012. The overall expansion rate on these slope classes was 95.28%. Majority of expansion (146.13%) occurred between 2009 and 2012. On the other hand, natural forest areas declined from 29.88% in 1995 to 28.78% in 2002, and 21.59% in 2012, respectively (Fig. 5(b))
Fig. 5 Changes in cultivated area and natural forest area, and their distribution on gentle slopes <35% (a) and on steep slope >35% (b) in 1995-2012.

Conclusion

In Nan province, land use and land cover changed obviously between 1995 and 2012. Natural forest areas overall decreased by 41.6%, on the other hand, cultivated areas increased by 51.1%. It happened despite the national forest logging ban started since 1989. The bans enforced after the devastating flood in 1988, and brought forest management of country towards conservation. However, the lack of land rights may force people to clear forest for cultivating because that it is the only way for their survival and slash-and-burn cultivation is probably the best method. Furthermore, land use changes in the study area are much influenced by economic factors, such as an increased need for cash and more access to markets for agricultural products. It is also caused by the government policy through the promotion of cash-crop cultivation and permanent fields. However, changing from swidden cultivation to permanent fields and cash-crop cultivations has required more fertilizers and agricultural chemicals, which will in turn affects on the environment.
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ARE CASH FLOWS FROM OPERATIONS AND EARNINGS ABLE TO FORECAST FUTURE CASH FLOWS? EVIDENCE FROM THAILAND

SARANYA YOHMAD

ABSTRACT

This study aimed to test the predictive ability of cash flows from operations and earnings as reported in the statement of cash flows and statement of comprehensive income respectively, in forecasting future cash flows based on data selection from 627 companies on Stock Exchange of Thailand for the period from 1994 to 2009. The ordinary least square (OLS) regression was used to test the hypotheses in the study.

The regression result of this study shows that cash flows from operations have a relationship with future cash flows. It also shows that earnings have the predictive ability for future cash flows.

Keyword: CASH FLOWS FROM OPERATIONS, EARNINGS, FUTURE CASH FLOWS

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INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

The most important asset in any company is cash. The availability of cash shows liquidity and efficiency in the operations of a company. In addition, cash is used as an indicator of the well-being of a company, as shown in the financial statement. It can also be used to identify a company’s financial strength as the statement of cash flows is clear evidence of a company’s operation. Cash therefore, plays a vital role in attracting investors and building confidence for future investors to invest in a company. This is because investors invariably tend to make a decision whether to invest or not, based on the financial position of a company. Almeida et al. (2004) documented that it is important to study cash flows of a firm. They emphasised that the cash value should be positive in order to attract investors’ attention.

In addition, Megan et al. (2009) implied that cash flows are very crucial for decision makers because it measures the actual money paid out or received by a company. The author also reported that the amount of cash generated from operating activities, as stated in the statement of cash flows, would be able to assist investors in forecasting future cash flows. Cash flows can therefore enhance investors or shareholders decision-making capacity, by enabling investors and shareholders to carefully study how a company generates cash from assets and how expenditures are made. This will further aid the predicting of future cash flows.

The earnings of a company is an indicator of future cash flows. Firstly, this is because the measurement of earnings derives from the historical cost principle based on accrual accounting and is the most common variable to be analysed in accounting literature. It is therefore an indication of future cash flows (Board & Day, 1989). Secondly, Lipe (1990), presented that earnings provides information about the future dividends’ paying ability in firms.

Future cash flows are a key input when determining the value of a firm, and the ability to predict it helps investors to make the primary economic decision of whether or not to invest. Thus,
the cash flows from operations and earnings are importance in forecasting future cash flows, as well as a vital determinant for decision-making.

**Problem Statement**

Future cash flows are the main guideline or measurement used by investors in decision makings. They help investors to forecast the value of their investments.

Many prior studies examined the ability of cash flows from operations and earnings to forecast future cash flows. For example, Mooi (2007) found that cash flows from operations and earnings are able to predict future cash flows in Malaysia. The results also showed that cash flows from operations have more incremental predictive ability than net income and net income plus depreciation and amortizations. Eng et al. (2005) studied the predictive ability of cash flows and earnings in a few East Asian countries. They found that cash flows and earnings are associated with future excess earnings. Wardhani, (2008) documented that operating cash flows could predict future cash flows in Indonesia.

In Thailand, Chotkunakitti (2005) showed that for the period 1996-2002, earnings, cash flows and accrual component of earnings are able to predict future cash flows. The results also showed that cash flows have superior predictive ability compared to earnings.

In recent years, Thailand has been experiencing changes in economic condition. Since 2005, the economy has prospered. The number of foreign investors has increased sharply especially in properties, construction and service sectors (Bank of Thailand, 2009). The real investment has increased as well. The increase is the highest compared to neighboring countries such Malaysia, Singapore and Philippines (Udomkerdmongkol, Chuenchoksan, & Vorasa-ngasil, 2010). In addition, in 2006, Thailand adopted International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) as the national generally accepted accounting principles (GAAP) in an effort to harmonize financial reporting standards. These changes in economic condition as well as financial reporting regulation affected the usefulness of accounting measures. Therefore, a new evidence on the ability of
earnings and cash flows to predict future cash flows is necessary. This study extends Chotkunakiti (2005) to examine the ability of earnings and cash flows from operations to forecast future cash flows over a longer period from 1994 to 2009 that includes the period of economic changes.

Research Questions

This study mainly focuses on cash flows from operations and earnings and whether they are able to forecast future cash flows for companies listed on the SET. Thus, this study intends to investigate the following research questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between cash flows from operations and future cash flows for companies listed on the SET?

2. Is there any significant relationship between earnings and future cash flows for companies listed on the SET?

Research Objectives

The objectives of this study are as below:

1. To investigate the relationship between cash flows from operations and future cash flows for companies listed on the SET.

2. To investigate the relationship between earnings and future cash flows for companies listed on the SET.

Scope of the Study

This study intends to examine the relationship between cash flows from operations and future cash flows, and to investigate the relationship whether there is any significant relationship between earnings and future cash flows on companies listed for the SET. This study expects to find a positive and significant of cash flows from operations and earnings to forecast future cash flows.
The sample consists of the listed companies on the SET. The study period is from 1994 to 2009. This study aims to provide information and knowledge to investors and stakeholders on how to make an informed decision.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Theoretical Framework

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between cash flows from operations and earnings (independent variables) and future cash flows (dependent variable). Figure 3.1 shows the research model of this study that includes all the respective variables.

![Research Framework Diagram](image)

The research framework was extracted from Al-Attar et al. (2004) and Farshadfar et al. (2008). These authors used the framework to investigate the ability of cash flows and earnings to predict future cash flows. Thus, this study used the framework to define the relationship between cash flows from operations and earnings and future cash flows for companies listed on the SET. This framework was designed to answer the entire objectives of this study. Each of the variables is discussed further in the following section.
Hypothesis Development

This study involves inductive technique where hypotheses are developed and tested based on the research question and there are two main hypotheses as follows:

1. Cash flows from operations

Cash flows from operations can be defined as the cash generated from operating activity which is reported in the statement of cash flows (Figlewicz & Zeller 1991). Thus, cash flows from operations were tested to identify whether there was a significant relationship between cash flows from operations and future cash flows for companies listed on the SET.

Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses,

\( H1: \) There is a significant relationship between cash flows from operations and future cash flows for companies listed on the Stock Exchange of Thailand.

2. Earnings

Earnings is measured using the accrual concept and provides information about the ability of the companies to generate future cash flows. Earnings is calculated by revenues minus cost of sales, operating expenses, and taxes, over a given period of time. (White et al., 2002). Thus, this leads to the hypothesis 2,

\( H2: \) There is a significant relationship between earnings and future cash flows for companies listed on the Stock Exchange of Thailand.

Data Selection

This study used secondary data gathered from data stream of the companies listed on the SET. The samples are 627 companies for the period from 1994 to 2009. The study period was chosen from 1994 because, during this year, all companies were required to provide the disclosure of cash flows, which was mandated under the listing requirements of the SET.

Specifically, the data was collected until 2009 because Thailand adopted the IFRS on 1 January 2010. Due to the adoption, some changes were made in accordance with the new implementation
of IFRS (Ibarra & Suez-Sales, 2011). The amount of cash flows from operations was taken directly from the statement of cash flows. The amounts of earnings were collected from the statement of comprehensive income. Table 1 shows the total number of companies listed on the SET by industry:

Table 1 Total Number of Companies Based on Industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Sample of companies</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agro and Food</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrials</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Products</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Properties &amp; Construction</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mai and Companies rehabilitation</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>627</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Stock Exchange of Thailand

**Model Specification**

The model used in this study was adapted from prior studies namely, Farshadfar et al. (2008), Al-Attar et al. (2004), Finger (1994) and Chotkunakitti (2005). The model for this study is as follows:

\[
CFO_t = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \times EARNINGS_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \quad (1)
\]

\[
CFO_t = \beta_1 - \beta_2 \times CFO_{t-1} + \epsilon_t \quad (2)
\]
Results

Descriptive analysis

The descriptive statistics were used to determine the mean, median and standard deviation value for each independent variable that affected the dependent variable.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for year 1994-2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total sample</td>
<td>739332.0</td>
<td>109249.5</td>
<td>4779643.0</td>
<td>10,032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFO</td>
<td>404887.6</td>
<td>74518.0</td>
<td>3293477.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EARNING</td>
<td>845810.1</td>
<td>126235.5</td>
<td>5035991.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. shows descriptive analysis. The mean value of CFO (739332.0) is higher than EARN (404887.6). This is because CFO increased by cash flows from operating activity. For example cash inflow from goods and service sales or the interest received in firms. The mean values between CFO and EARN are positive. Typically, these results are similar with prior studies carried out in the US (Barth, et al., 2001; Dechow, et al., 1998; Murdoch & Krause, 1989). In these studies, the mean of CFO and earnings is positive. The mean of earnings is smaller than CFO, which reflects the fact that earnings are reduced by non-cash expenses such as depreciation and amortization (Dechow, et al. 1998).

The standard deviation of CFO of 4779643.0 is higher than the standard deviation of EARN which is 3293477.0. These results are in contrast to some prior researches, such as Farshadfar et al. (2008) and Dechow et al. (1998) in Australia. The result shows that the standard deviation of EARN is higher than CFO which are 0.436 and 0.218, respectively. The reasons for this may be due to the selection of data criteria (i.e. Australia and Thailand). Perhaps, the companies listed on the SET are all smaller and younger than those listed in the Australian capital market. However,
the standard deviation of CFO and EARN is positive, which is similar with the prior study in Australia (Farshadfar et al. 2008).

**Pairwise Correlation Analysis**

Table 3. Pairwise Correlation Matrix between CFO and FCF, EARN and FCF and CFO and EARN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>FCF</th>
<th>CFO</th>
<th>EARN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>FCF</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.99999</td>
<td>0.73648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CFO</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.69243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EARN</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. above shows the correlation between CFO and FCF. The correlation matrix explains the rate at which CFO at 1 unit affects FCF at the rate of 0.99999 units, showing that there is significant and positive correlation between CFO and FCF. The correlation matrix also indicates that CFO has a highly positive relation with FCF. The correlation matrix also documents that EARN has a highly positive relation with FCF. Moreover, the correlation matrix defined that the rate of CFO at 1 unit affects EARN at the rate of 0.69243 units, meaning there is significant and positive correlation between CFO and EARN.
Regression Analysis Results

Table 4. Results from Ordinary Least Squares regression models of cash flows from operations and earnings (1994-2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EARN</td>
<td>0.416*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFO</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.832***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>13.04%</td>
<td>57.02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durbin Watson</td>
<td>1.682</td>
<td>2.031</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the 0.10 level.

**Significant at the 0.05 level.

***Significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 4 reports the summary statistics of the univariate OLS regression models over the period 1994-2009. The results indicate that coefficient of CFO is 0.832, which is statistically significant at the 0.01 level. Therefore, the hypothesis 1 is accepted.

Hypothesis 1 states the relationship between CFO and FCF as stated below:

$\textbf{H1: There is a significant relationship between cash flows from operations and future cash flows for companies listed on the Stock Exchange of Thailand.}$

The coefficient of EARN is 0.416, which is statistically significant at the 0.10 level. Thus, the hypothesis 2 stated as below.

$\textbf{H2: There is a significant relationship between earnings and future cash flows for companies listed on the Stock Exchange of Thailand.}$

The value of the adjusted $R^2$ of model 1 is 13.04% and 57.02% in model 2, which means the model 2 has a higher percentage of significance than model 1 in its ability to predict FCF. These results are also supported by a prior study conducted by Farshadfar et al. (2008) that examined the
relative ability of earnings and cash flow data in forecasting FCF. The adjusted $R^2$ of CFO is 35.20% and earnings is 20.2%, whereby CFO has a higher percentage of significance than earnings. Moreover, these results are also similar with the prior study of Arthur et al. (2007).

**Discussion and Conclusion**

The aim of this study is to investigate the ability of cash flows from operations and earnings in forecasting future cash flows for companies listed on the SET. The companies selected based on industry. The banks and other financial institutions were excluded.

In the following discussion, the results for two of the research objectives are reviewed and compared with previous literature review. First of all, the mean of cash flows from operations was showed that it higher than the mean value of earnings. The mean values of cash flows from operations and earnings were positive. The results are consistent with prior study conducted by Barth et al., (2001).

With respect to examine the ability of cash flows from operations and earnings in forecasting future cash flows. The findings revealed that cash flows from operations and earnings have significant and positive for future cash flows was high (as expected) for companies listed on Stock Exchange of Thailand. This study supported previous findings by Farshadfar et al. (2008), Al-Attar et al. (2004), Finger (1994) and Chotkunakitti (2005) which found cash flows from operations and earnings are a positively related to future cash flows.

Chotkunakitti (2005) examined the ability of earnings, cash flows and cash flow and accrual component of earnings to predict future cash flows of Thai listed companies. The author found that these three main models have ability to predict future cash flows. The author suggested that also the three models showed that significant and positive correlation for predicting future cash flows was high.
The conclusions of the study results relating to the research objective are discussed below.

**Objective 1:** to investigate the relationship between CFO and FCF for companies listed on the SET.

This study used the OLS regression with the coefficient of regression to find the results of the objective. The result showed a positive and significant correlation between CFO and FCF.

**Objective 2:** To investigate the relationship between earnings and FCF for companies listed on the SET.

The results showed that there was a significant and positive correlation between earnings and FCF.

The findings of this study concluded that CFO and earnings can predict FCF. The results have confirmed the previous findings that CFO and earnings can significantly predict FCF. Farshadfar et al. (2008) supported that CFO and earnings are important variables to predict FCF.

As expected, the result provides actual empirical evidences that CFO and earnings are both positive and significant correlation to forecast FCF.

**Reference**


Activating the role of the virtual communities in tourism marketing strategies (Case Study: EGYPT)

Soad Omran Mansour¹ Samar kamal Ahmad²
Shawky El Sayed Amin Mohamed³

Abstract:

Many researchers stressed the effective role of social media in supporting the tourism industry and in particular, marketing tourism destinations. This paper provides a critical examination of using social media in marketing “Egypt” as a tourism destination. We develop our discussion in three main sections. First, we explain the commonly positive image of social media in marketing and its influence on tourist decision making, analyze how tourists use social media along their decision-making, and also investigate the negative dimensions that should be considered when using it in marketing such as the subjectivity and credibility of the contents. Second, based on a quantitative approach, we examined the extent of using social media as a destination marketing tool in Egypt. We collected data from three sources; executives of the marketing department in 150 Egyptian tourism companies; 10 tourism experts in the Egyptian Tourism Promotion Authority (ETPA); and 10 academics in Egyptian faculties of Tourism and Hotels. The findings support the main hypothesis that social media is not included in the marketing strategy of either tourism public and private sectors in Egypt. Even that, governmental and business organizations communicate with tourists mainly through the traditional forms of media. Tourism players still do not recognize the tourists’ new digital behavior and rarely get advantage from it in marketing Egypt. Finally, this paper concludes some practical implications for the tourism industry in order to take advantage of social media and increase their presence in marketing strategy. In addition, suggestions have been drown for similar future research in the subject of tourism marketing.

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(3) Shawky El Sayed Amin Mohamed – researcher at Tourism Studies department - Faculty of Tourism and Hotel Management- Suez Canal University, Egypt
Introduction

Social media has become a key communication tool in the 21st century. It enabled people to interact and share common activities and interests through online communities. Such online communities are the epitome of the technology known as web 2.0 which uses a technology beyond the static form of earlier websites. Web 2.0 allows users to create, modify and exchange data and documents with significantly reduced complexity and enhanced ease of use. The ease of interactivity fostered the rapid and widespread formation of online communities and the user generated contents on various applications such as personal blogs, chat rooms, forums and discussion boards (Thevenot, 2007).

It is not surprising that tourism related aspects are among the most popular topics on social pages. The new tourists search internet, plan and book holidays depending on the wealth of information provided by ordinary people’s stories (i.e. through texts, images, videos and audios) (Litvin & Hoffman, 2012). For tourists, especially those without prior visits to the destination, such social stories are more credible than the traditional digital form of advertisement and information available on official destination and attraction websites. Therefore, the official tourism websites are competing with online communities that like to continually create and share their positive or negative travel experience (Inversini & Buhalis, 2009). Such experience can easily reach tourists and emotionally influence their travel decisions (Govers & GO, 2009). Therefore, social media is considered a challenge for tourism destinations’ managers and marketers. They need to invest efforts to find the right strategies for dealing with such unstructured data produced by tourists.

The aim of this paper is to examine how the Egyptian tourism managers and marketers in both the Egyptian Tourism Promotion Authority (ETPA) and the Egyptian tourism companies deal with the social media in tourism marketing, their reaction to such new phenomenon and the features of the tourism marketing strategy in its digital form.

Literature review:

Social media and tourist decision making:

In the last few years, we have seen a huge gross of virtual communities on the internet where users create, share and exchange information, opinions and experiences. Such fast growing social sharing have been broadly been defined as online social media. It depends on a series of tools such as blogs and microblogs (e.g. twitter), social photo and video sharing (e.g. YouTube), social sharing of knowledge (e.g. wikipedia) , social bookmarking (i.e. Delicious) and many other forms of tools (Chung & Buhalis, 2008). One of the fast increasing segments using such social media is prospective tourists. Tourists who have little or no experience of a destination might face several constraints in their decision making. Lack of knowledge might create some negative feelings influencing the decision making process such as fear about visiting unsafe destination, the risk of choosing inadequate services and accordingly, losing money. Therefore, recommendations from secondary sources of information are vital assets in the process of decision making (xiang and gretezel, 2010; xiang et al., 2008). A declaration of experience
satisfaction, hotels/restaurants reviews, and recommendations on things to do at a destination may change tourists’ final decision. Kim and Fesenmaier (2008) argued that social media has the ability to persuade people during their decision making process to visit a specific destination and deal with a specific tourism provider and vice versa (Xiang et al., 2008). The study of Nielsen Global Online Consumer Survey (2009) found that 92% of consumers around the world consider earned media such as word of mouth and recommendations from family and friends as the first most trusted media sources with an increase of 18% since 2007. Managers and marketers of tourism destinations and attractions need to consider such new behavior of tourists, who are more connected than ever to online media. The new tourists seek to increase the value of their travel choices and inspire their holidays by gathering more information from social media. Therefore, social media seems to play an important role in the decision making behavior of the new tourists and accordingly in tourism marketing.

Social media and destination management organizations

Though the increasing body of literature on social media in travel and tourism, studies on the influence of social media on destination management organizations (DMOs) and tourism providers are limited (Xiang, 2011). Hamill and colleagues (2009) examined the response of DMOs to social media and prospective tourists’ conversations. They classified DMOs according to their adoption of web 2.0 technologies into three main clusters: first, "Non-Starters", representing DMOs with no or limited use of web 2.0; second, "Cautious adopters", that provide some basic but limited progress; finally, "Progressive adopters", that stimulate interaction and user generated content (UGC) in their official portal site. In the same direction, Stankov and colleagues (2010) primarily analyzed the use of Facebook by European national tourism organizations (NTOs). The main analyzed factors were having a Facebook account; number of their Facebook fans; the page's name and the use of included page features (i.e. info, photos and events). Their findings showed that NTOs slowly respond to the marketing opportunities lay in Facebook, as they do not use all features offered by such form of UGC. Some researchers see that European NTOs are struggling to fit in the social media environment and to change their communication mentality (i.e. Hay, 2010; Zouganeli et al., 2011; Bayram & ARICI, 2013; Martin-Fuentes & Ramon, 2014). Matloka and Buhalis (2010) explored the promising opportunities for destination marketing from the development of user personalized content. Their findings demonstrated the great opportunity of delivering customized information (i.e. Presenting personal needs and preferences) to prospective tourists. They also emphasized the importance of creating a destination database and a more systematic and efficient technique in dealing with web 2.0 technologies. Towards the same direction, Yayli and colleagues (2011) suggested a set of guidelines that enables European DMOs to successfully interact with prospective tourists on Twitter.

In terms of the micro level of tourism business (e.g. tourism companies, hotels and restaurants), many of them dedicate staff to monitor and engage with consumers on social media pages in order to manage their brand. However, according to Rheem (2010), not few remain suspicious about social media's importance and its powerful influence on business. In a study on the use of Facebook by hotel chains, it was found that few hotel chains are making potent use from such social media tool in commercial and sales activities (O'Connor, 2011). Another study on the use
of Facebook in tourism promotion found that Serbian and Croatian tourist agencies specialized in youth travel are poorly aware of the importance of such tool in marketing (Slivar, 2009). In brief, although social media significantly influence the tourists travel decisions, DMOs and tourism business not yet fully recognize the promising marketing opportunities offered by social media.

**Egypt and social media**

With no doubt, Egypt is one of the prime tourist attractions of the world. Its civilization has more than seven thousand years of recorded history. The culture of Egypt is considered a unique case that cannot be matched. A mix of Pharaohs, Patolomic, Roman, Arab and ottoman history has formed the culture of Egypt. As for tourism, it plays an important role in the Egyptian economy and employment growth. According to the Egyptian Ministry of tourism (2014), 14.7 million tourists visited Egypt in 2010 with an increase of 17.5% than tourists of the previous year. Thus, the total number of tourist nights increased from 126.5 million nights in 2009 to 147.4 million nights 2010, bringing revenue of 12.53 billion USD in 2010 with an increase of 16.5% than the income in 2009. Unfortunately, the numbers of tourists and accordingly revenues have dramatically dropped after the chaos following the revolution of 25th January 2011. It is worth mentioning here that social media played a great role during such revolution. Egyptian protesters depended heavily on social media, especially Facebook and Twitter, to communicate and organize their demonstrations. According to a study by the TNS digital life institution, Egyptians are among the most active on social network. Nearly 68% of Egyptian Internet users communicate on social media daily, spending 16 hours/week on average online (Think marketing, 2014). However, in terms of other stakeholders such as managers and staff in the macro and micro level of the tourism industry, there is a paucity of research investigating the activity of them on social media. Therefore, this study tries to fill this gap and examines the way the tourism managers and staff in the Egyptian Tourism Promotion Authority (ETPA) and tourism companies are dealing with social media applications. The study also investigates how such micro and macro tourism level use social media in their marketing strategy.

To that end, the following two-part research question is presented and tested

**Research question:** How does the using of social media in marketing Egypt as a tourism destination is related to (a) the perception of employees and managers in tourism companies and experts in the ETPA of the marketing capabilities of social media, (b) the Egyptian official strategies and plans of tourism marketing

**Methodology**

To test the research questions proposed above, two structured questionnaires were distributed on two sources of data. First: managers and employees working in 150 establishments of the most popular Egyptian tourism companies. Second: 10 tourism experts in ETPA which is the main governmental body responsible for tourism marketing in Egypt. Thus, the sample addressed a wide range of functional backgrounds and occupations including managerial, administrative, technical and professional careers. Participants were briefed on the general purpose of the study, told that the study is solely for academic purposes, and asked to complete the questionnaire
anonymously. The current survey took place during the first quarter of 2014 and the questionnaires were personally distributed.

Procedure

The questionnaire used for the collection of data from employees and managers of Egyptian tourism companies is divided into three sections. The first section tapped information on participants’ perception on the marketing capabilities of social media. This section contained six items on “whether the social media tools pay off in marketing Egypt as a tourism destination”, “if not, explain why”, “the number of the social media pages that their establishment is joining”, “the period from first joining the page…”, “the basic standards to consider when joining a social media page”, “whether the staff encourages the current tourists to communicate through the company’s web pages”. The second section sought to determine participants’ general perception on the application of social media as a marketing tool in the establishment’s strategy. This section included eight items on “whether the establishment consider the social media as a tool of marketing”, “the targets that the establishment seek from joining the social media pages”, “whether the activities on the social media pages are planned or based on personnel efforts”, “the kind of contents displayed on the pages”, “whether this content is planned for or not”, “the degree of response to the comments of tourists”, “the degree of potential tourists expected from the communication on these pages” ,and “the range of comments, likes and shares on the contents of these pages”. The third section used to measure the degree of cooperation between ETPA and the Egyptian tourism companies. This section included three Items on “whether the tourism companies join the web pages of the official web pages of Egyptian tourism authorities”, “whether there are official authorities support the efforts of tourism companies on the social media”, “the degree that the company participate in the social media conferences and conventions supported by the official authorities”. 

The second questionnaire distributed to the experts of ETPA is divided also to three sections. Most of the question was open ended. The first section represented questions on the participants’ views on the use of social media in marketing Egypt as a tourism destination. This section contained five items on “whether the use of social media in the tourism marketing strategy pays off”, “the role of social media in the tourism strategy”, “the social media pages that the authority joins”, “the frequency the participants themselves communicate on such pages and the target from this communication”, and “whether the kind of targeted tourists from promotional activities on the social media pages is international or local”. Six items in the second section sought information on the existence of clear plans of using social media in marketing. For example, “whether social media is included as marketing tool in the strategy of the authority”, “the needs of the tourism strategy of marketing”, “whether the contents of the shared objects are planned and the criteria of updating”, “whether the activities of the authority on the social media pages helped in increasing the perspective tourists to Egypt”, “whether the authority get benefit from the tourists’ positive/negative comments”, and “whether the authority get benefit from the frequency statistics provided on the social media pages”. The third section of three items was used to assess the integration between the authority and the tourism companies in activating the use of social media in marketing Egypt. Items of this section are: “whether the authority held conferences and conventions on the importance of social media as a marketing tool”, “whether the authority encourages the tourism companies to join their pages on the social media”, and “their satisfaction of the integration and organization between the authority and the tourism companies”. Participants were asked to respond to all questionnaire items using a rating scale ranging from 0 (disagree) to 4 (totally agree).

**Results and discussion**

The aim of this study is to examine the use of social media in marketing “Egypt” as a tourism destination by ETPA and the Egyptian tourism companies. In order to answer the first part of the research question on “the perception of employees and managers in tourism companies and experts in ETPA of the marketing capabilities of social media”, six items in the first questionnaire and five items in the second one were used as a measure.

The data analysis showed that the majority of employees and managers in tourism companies (% 93.75) and all the experts (100%) from the ETPA participating in the survey see that social media are useful in marketing Egypt as a tourism destination. It is clear that the most majority of Egyptian tourism managers, marketers and employees realize how social media collaborate to image Egypt as a tourism destination.

In terms of the number of pages that the company joins, the data showed that 133 companies have 1:3 pages on social media and 17 companies have 4:6 pages. These pages are on Facebook, Twitter, TripAdvisor, YouTube and MySpace. Tourism companies may see that the previous social media sites are more useful in marketing because of the opportunities offered through them. Tourism companies may also want to get benefit from the large number of fans who are addicted to such social media. On the other hand they may not be aware of the other popular social media sites such as Tumbler and LinkedIn.
The results related to the most active ETPA’s social media pages revealed the following: all the participants from ETPA (100%) indicated that ETPA’s Facebook page has the most admin’s and fans’ activities, while (60%) added twitter account and (10%) added YouTube account. This is quite surprising as participants do not make activities on tourism specialized pages such as TripAdvisor.

As one would expect, there is a strong relation between the participation of the tourism companies in the social media pages and the Egyptian revolution of 25th of January 2011. The data analysis showed that (64.7%) of the tourism companies have joined the social media pages since less than a year, (30%) have joined social media pages since 1:3 years whilst (5.3%) have joined such pages since 4:5 years. This means that the majority of the tourism companies (94.7%) have realized the important role of social media in sharing thoughts and experiences and influencing others’ decisions after the revolution of 2011.

When asking about the criteria which characterize the chosen social media pages, (86.67%) of the tourism companies totally agree with the “specialty in travel and tourism industry” criteria, (66%) totally agree and (28%) agree with the “geographical distribution” criteria, (58.67%) totally agree and (35.33%) are unsure with “the number of pages’ fans” criteria, and (52.67%) totally agree and (42%) agree with the “increase of social activities on the page”. This is quite surprising as there are many popular social media applications that enjoy the previous criteria but the tourism companies have no accounts on them. Moreover, the majority of pages that the tourism companies currently join are not specialized in travel and tourism industry “the first major mentioned criteria”. Such strange data indicates that these criteria are not applied or the managers and staff of tourism companies intend to apply these criteria in the future plan.

In terms of whether the company informs its current tourists with its accounts on social media and encourages them to share their travel experience, (87%) of participants totally agree, (43%) agree and (20%) are unsure that the company’s staff do such practice. These data indicate that the majority of tourism companies perceive the importance of social media as a tool to connect with their current customers in order to maximize the travel experience value.

An open question on the role of social media in the strategy of tourism marketing, participants from ETPA indicated that the authority launched a number of marketing campaigns to persuade tourists that Egypt is safe after the revolution of 2011. However, social media is not included in such campaigns.

Of the participants from the ETPA, (80%) make social activities on their personal and ETPA pages on social media. This indicates that the experts of ETPA are aware of the importance of building communication channels with the social media fans which may create potential tourists.

In relation to the aim of activities the ETPA participants do on social media applications, it was to update the cultural, political and tourism events and to know what others share. This indicates that the activities tend to be for social targets and enjoyment more than for marketing reasons.

In terms of the kind of tourists targeted by the participants of ETPA through their activities on social media, (70%) indicated that they target the inbound tourists, (20%) indicated that they
target inbound and outbound tourists and (10%) indicated that the kind of tourist is not taken into their consideration.

To answer the second part of the research question on “the use of social media as a marketing tool in the strategy of tourism marketing”, seven items in the first questionnaire and four items in the second were used as a measure.

Of the participants from the tourism companies, 139 companies consider the social media a tool used in tourism marketing while 11 companies do not. In terms of the participants from the ETPA, (70%) indicated that social media is considered a marketing tool in the tourism strategy but (30%) are not sure about that. Despite these promising percentages that indicate growing awareness of the role of social media as a marketing tool, participants revealed that no clear planned role for social media in neither the strategy of the tourism companies nor the strategy of the ETPA.

In relation to the aims of joining the social media pages, (98.67%) of the participants from the tourism companies totally agree with “the existence in the internet tourism markets”, (65.33%) totally agree with “studying the tourism markets”, (82.67%) totally agree with “attracting more customers “, (49.33%) totally agree with “improving the tourism image of Egypt”, (29.33%) disagree with “defining the target tourists” , (46%) agree with “knowing the preferences and demands of tourists and finally (78%) are not sure about “estimating the characteristics of the tourism demands”.

Of the tourism companies participants, (44.67%) indicated that the activities on social media always done through personal efforts not planned efforts from the top management. (24%) of the participants indicated that they often do that. This means that communicating with audience through social media has not yet reached the strategy of marketing made by the top management. It is just the personal efforts of the staff who believe in social media capabilities in enhancing the image of Egypt.

Of the tourism companies’ participants, (100%) always post advertisements on promotional programs, (59.33%) always post photos and videos on Egyptian tourism sites and (42%) often post tourists related content.

In relation to the content post on the social media pages of the companies, (72%) of participants indicated that the contents are equivalent to the traditional advertisement of the promotional programs. this assures that there is no planned advertisement to be used on social media despite the good intentions of the companies’ staff.

When asking about the degree of response on the fans’ comments, questions and complaints, (46%) always respond to such comments, (43.33%) often do that. The later percentage indicates that a considerable number of the staff and mangers is not trained or aware of the consequences of such behavior (e.g. distrust, losing tourist loyalty and negative criticism that would spread through the social networks).
In relation to whether social media helped in converting potential tourists into actual ones, (61.33%) of participants indicated that their company’s pages have low ability to do that. However, (40%) of the participants from the ETPA are not sure that their pages or activities do that. This indicates that the way of handling social media marketing by whether the tourism companies or the ETPA is not adequate to convince the audience to be actual tourists. This perhaps happened because managers and staff are active on social media for social reasons and enjoyment rather than marketing reasons.

In relation to the degree of comments and likes on the company’s posts, (24.67%) see that it is a high degree, (39.33%) see it is a moderate degree, (23.33%) see it is a fair degree, while (12.67%) see that it is a weak degree.

In terms of the planning of the contents posted on social media pages, (40%) of the participants from the ETPA indicated that they are not sure that the contents are planned, while (30%) indicated that the contents are not planned. This assures that no strategy for social media marketing is applied within the authority.

When asking whether the ETPA considers the social media pages statistics when planning for the tourism marketing strategy, (90%) of participants indicated that such statistics are not considered when planning.

**Conclusion**

Literature review indicates that the growth of web 2.0 technology have a strong influence on the travel and tourism industry, especially for travel planning. Social media communities have proved to have a powerful impact on tourist behavior and consequently on the destination's image and its marketing. Tourists trust social media communities more than traditional information and advertisements presented on official websites of destinations. Most tourists are well educated and understand that DMOs are using these sites for marketing the destination and focusing only on the positive points. Therefore, this study was conducted to investigate the reaction of DMOs and micro tourism business towards such new phenomenon in the setting of Egypt.

Our findings show that the Egyptian Tourism Promotion Authority (ETPA), which is the official body responsible for tourism marketing in Egypt, understands the crucial role that social media plays in the tourists decision making. Yet, the tourism promotion strategy does not support the use of social media for marketing. There are no planned programs designed for creating the suitable content that attracts attention and encourages audience to share it. Moreover, although ETPA are connected to the most famous social media pages, the benefits comes from such connections are very poor. This is because ETPA does not use the marketing features offered through such pages. For example, social media offers vast amount of information - offered through semantic analysis technologies- about the tourism services and facilities that potential tourists might be interested in. ETPA does not use such information to better understand its potential tourists and their needs and accordingly set its marketing plans and campaigns.

Regarding the Egyptian tourism companies, the activities on social media applications such as Facebook, Twitter and TripAdvisor depends mainly on the personal efforts of their staff. The top management of the majority of tourism companies does not apply a social media marketing
strategy. Despite the growth of the web 2.0 technology, the traditional print/TV/radio advertisements and promotional campaigns are still the main - and nearly only- marketing tool used by Egyptian tourism companies. The way the Egyptian companies interact with its potential tourists has not changed though the new tourist's digital behavior. This gives evidence that tourism players in Egypt whether on the macro or micro level have not yet adopted a strategy for using social media in marketing despite its perceived benefits.

Against this backdrop, this study suggests that social media marketing must be included in the tourism marketing strategy in order to reach the new tourists, get their attention, build relationships with them and accordingly gain their trust. ETPA and tourism companies may hire personnel to specifically deal with the activities on the social media pages. The tasks of such personnel are not just to interact with the pages' fans but also analyzing the contents shared and understanding the signals of tourists' interests.

The findings of this study provide only a starting point in studying the reaction of tourism destinations towards social media marketing. Further research should be made in the direction of explaining the barriers that lead to these low adoption rates of social media in marketing Egypt. It is also recommended to focus on how these barriers can be overcome by exploring the viewpoint of managers and employees working in the macro or micro level of tourism industry.
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Issues in developing a sustainable ecotourism certification framework: The case of Chiang Mai, Thailand

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Abstract:

This paper reports on a study of ecotourism certification and sustainable development in the research area of Chiang Mai that has been developed by using qualitative case study research. As will be shown in this paper, government agencies and ecotourism enterprises in Chiang Mai are critically important stakeholders and their views may affect the development of ecotourism certification. Thematic analysis was used to address commonality, differences and relationships within the dataset. Analysis of related empirical data has shown that the quality of ecotourism products and services in Chiang Mai is inconsistent. Three main themes emerge from the data analysis: (1) unclear functioning of government agencies in ecotourism development, (2) difficulties associated with implementing the effectiveness of Thailand Tourism Standards, and (3) lack of awareness of environmental conservation amongst ecotourism operators. It will be shown in this paper that the theoretical and empirical investigations described in this study can lead to a better understanding of ecotourism certification development from both demand and supply sides of the ecotourism industry.

Keywords: sustainable development, ecotourism, certification system, tourism standard
1. INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry is one of the most profitable industries in Thailand. According to a 2013 Thai government report (Department of Tourism, 2013), international tourist arrivals to Thailand reached 21.7 million, while tourism revenue was 942 billion baht (approximately 31 billion Australian dollars). However, the rapid growth of the tourism industry has significant impacts on Thailand’s socio-culture, economic and natural resources, and more responsible tourism practices, including cultural and environmental conservation, are needed.

Since 1997, the concept of ecotourism has been adopted as a strategy to promote sustainable development, and to develop national tourism policies (Sriphnomya, 2002; Thavarasukha, 2002). Ecotourism has been defined in a variety of ways (Ross & Wall, 1999), with its benefits purported to include: providing conservation tools to enhance the potential of sustainable tourism development; providing well-being to host communities; and maintaining natural resources in tourist destinations (Wanichanugorn, 2002; Stem et al., 2003; Braden & Prunikovo, 2008).

Although Thailand boasts a diverse range of natural attractions and has a great opportunity to promote ecotourism, the standard of ecotourism products and services in Thailand is still inconsistent. Ecotourism products and services need to move beyond the concepts of ecotourism and demonstrate ecotourism practices (Thavarasukha, 2002; Honey, 2002). In order to investigate how this transition can be made, a case study approach will be used, with Chiang Mai being selected to be the single case study in this research. Chiang Mai is the main tourist destination in northern Thailand, with its natural attractions and indigenous hill tribes enhancing its distinctive diversity. Moreover, Chiang Mai is a gateway to other provinces in the North and has been promoted by the Tourism Authority of Thailand as an ecotourism and adventure tourism hub of the northern region.

However, to date, ecotourism operators in Chiang Mai have chosen not to be certified by national or international standards, even though it has been demonstrated that certification is a tool that can motivate businesses and improve their environmental, social and economic achievements. This study investigates ecotourism stakeholders’ needs and their perspectives of ecotourism certification, and highlights issues associated with implementing an ecotourism certification model to assist in developing an ecotourism industry in Chiang Mai and the surrounding region.

This paper is divided into five main sections. The first section, the introduction, is followed by an examination of the literature pertaining to ecotourism concepts, the ecotourism movement in Thailand, Thailand Tourism Standards, and best world practice in ecotourism certification. The third section outlines the study research methods, while the fourth section provides the research findings, which are categorised by three main issues: (1) unclear functioning government organisation in ecotourism development; (2) discontinuity of ecotourism policy and planning; and (3) demand and supply-based perspectives of an ecotourism certification system. The fifth and final section presents the conclusions and implications of this study.
2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature related to ecotourism certification development in Thailand can be categorised into three themes: (1) ecotourism concepts and sustainable development; (2) the ecotourism certification system: world best practice; and (3) Thailand Tourism Standards in the context of ecotourism.

2.1 ECOTOURISM CONCEPTS AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Sustainable tourism and ecotourism development

The fundamental principles of ecotourism can be found in concepts such as sustainability and sustainable development (Higham, 2007). Ecotourism started to receive greater attention during the late 1960s and early 1970s when ecologists and environmentalists became concerned about the inappropriate use of natural resources (Fennell, 2008; Higham, 2007). In terms of tourism, the word ‘sustainability’ referred to a new form of tourism development that was concerned about the negative impacts of mass consumption and led to a new branch of the discipline: sustainable tourism (Mowforth & Munt, 2008). Some scholars claimed that tourism development is extremely unsustainable because of its impacts on environments and cultures of tourist attraction areas (Harris et al., 2002).

The building of infrastructure and other activities associated with tourism produces impacts on the environment of the destination area and the culture of the host communities (Mason, 2008). Therefore, if tourism development is to be sustainable, infrastructure must be designed appropriately and only activities that do not negatively impact the ecosystem or biodiversity should be implemented. Moreover, tourism development needs to ensure that it does not further threaten endangered species, particularly in sensitive areas (Buckley, 2009). For example, World Wildlife Fund supports sustainable tourism and its associated infrastructure when it is concerned with effective conservation of natural resources, minimises its footprint in ecological areas and distributes proper benefits to local people (WWF, 2002).

Various definitions and characterisations of ecotourism are provided in the relevant academic and industry literature. For example, the International Ecotourism Society defines ecotourism as ‘a responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains the well-being of local people’ (UNEP, 2001), while ATREE (2006) notes that ecotourism can be categorised by four essential characteristics: it should (1) be nature-based; (2) demonstrate eco-cultural sustainability; (3) promote conservation education among stakeholders; and (4) have significant involvement that is of local benefit. Furthermore, ecotourism involves three main stakeholders – tourists, tour operators and host communities – who work collaboratively to raise awareness of the environment and sustainability for local communities of tourism destinations (Blamey, 2001; UNEP, 2002; ATREE, 2006; Fennell, 2008).

In line with these descriptions, this paper defines ecotourism as ‘responsible travelling in natural and cultural areas that provides benefits to locals and their communities with minimal impacts on local environment and culture’.

Ecotourism Development in Thailand

In the early 1990s, the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) was the government agency that had sole responsibility for tourism development in Thailand. TAT participated in the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in 1992, with this his summit being organised by the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED). The outcome of this summit, known as Agenda 21, was a comprehensive program of actions adopted by 182 governments. Agenda 21 provided a blueprint to secure the sustainable future of the planet from 1992 towards the 21st century (UNEP, 2002), with one part of Agenda 21 providing the action plan for travel and the tourism industry: *Agenda 21 for the Tourism and Travel Industry* (WTO, 1996). This action plan was designed to raise awareness among
tourism and travel stakeholders, and the program was adapted for local implementation. The principles of this action plan were integrated into Thailand’s sustainable development policy (TAT, 2001).

In order to meet the future challenges of tourism development, TAT has continuously promoted the sustainable development concept within the Thai tourism industry, and has encouraged responsible tourism practices. The concept of ecotourism can be seen as a sub-component of sustainable development (Diamantis & Westlake, 2001), and, as a new form of alternative tourism, has appeal in Thailand as a means to promote sustainable tourism development (DT, 2011).

TAT has been working towards the formulation of a National Ecotourism Policy since 1993, and in 1997 Thailand started to focus on sustainability and set up the National Ecotourism Council, which included representatives from the public, private, academic and NGO sectors. This council aimed to monitor the development of the National Ecotourism Policy and Action Plan and also arranged subcommittees on different aspects of ecotourism management (ATREE, 2006). However, despite Thailand launching the National Ecotourism Action Plan, it is not clear whether this plan has been implemented in organisations, or remains just a good idea (Fennell et al., 2001).

*Thailand Tourism Standards (TTS) in the context of ecotourism certification*

The overall goal of ecotourism development in Thailand is to assist the tourism industry to become more sustainable (Sripiphnomya, 2002). National tourism standards need to be developed to improve the quality of tourism products and services in Thailand. Font and Bendell (2002) support the argument that tourism standards are a tool that will benefit the tourism industry by helping it to become more sustainable. As well as taking into account established acceptable practices for tourism products and services, the standards criteria should be concerned with all aspects of the tourism industry, including social and cultural responsibility, environmental concern and awareness, the conservation of natural resources, and the well-being of local communities (Font, 2002). However, Font (2002) also argued that tourism standards often only address the environmental criteria rather than social and economic criteria.

The Department of Tourism announced national tourism standards, known as Thailand Tourism Standards (TTS), in 2004. By 2011, TTS had addressed 38 standards covering all types of tourism products and services, including tourism activities, tourist destinations and attractions, and tourism business registration. These activities support Font’s (2002) claims that the common purpose of tourism standards is to help to improve sustainable tourism from both demand and supply sides.

2.2 THE ECOTOURISM CERTIFICATION SYSTEM: THE WORLD BEST PRACTICE

This section outlines the ecotourism certification schemes related to travel and tourism, and the benefits of certification. Honey and Steward (2002) described certification as the procedure that audits and gives written assurance on the facility, product, process, service and management system that meet the standard criteria and then rewards businesses or activities with a logo or seal. Focusing on the link between the concept of ecotourism and the certification system, Buckley (2002) stated that there is a significant level of environmental concern about tourist destinations in both developed and developing countries. This concern is further highlighted in the academic literature on tourism certification, with most research in this area focusing broadly on certification for tourism sustainability (Medina, 2005).

Of particular relevance to this research, Fennell (2008) defined ecotourism certification as programs that cover businesses, services and products involved in the ecotourism industry. Ecotourism certification programs need to encourage small and medium enterprises to not only focus on environmental awareness, but to be respectful of the needs and well-being of local communities. Moreover, ecotourism certification programs should educate all ecotourism stakeholders so that they become socially and environmentally responsible businesses that are concerned with more than just economic benefits.

As a component of this study, ten certification programs were studied to draw a comparison between the context of ecotourism certification development in Chiang Mai and ecotourism certification worldwide. These programs are detailed in Table 1: Ecotourism Certification Worldwide.

Table 1: Ecotourism Certification Worldwide (source: Ecotrans, 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Travel Countries</th>
<th>Certifying Organization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Certification for Sustainable Tourism (CST)</td>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>Costa Rican Tourism Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco Certification Program</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Ecotourism Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism Label</td>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Ecotourism Ireland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green Globe</td>
<td>International 83 countries</td>
<td>Green Globe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco Awards Namibia</td>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>Eco Awards Namibia Alliance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotour Certification Program</td>
<td>Hawaii</td>
<td>Hawaii Ecotourism Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable Tourism Eco-Certification Program (STEP)</td>
<td>International, U.S.A.</td>
<td>Sustainable Travel International</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco-Romania</td>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>Association of Ecotourism Romania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecotourism Kenya’s Eco-rating scheme</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Ecotourism Kenya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The European Ecotourism Labelling Standard (EETLS)</td>
<td>International, Europe</td>
<td>European Ecotourism Network</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of the challenges for ecotourism certification include demonstrating the benefits of certification to ecotourism stakeholders and, as government policy is one of the main supports to ecotourism development, ensuring that the certification fits within the existing ecotourism policies so that it can be implemented (Fennell, 2008). Points that need to be considered for appropriate ecotourism policy and
implementation include public and private sector roles, integrated planning, natural resources conservation and preservation, funding, marketing, operator concerns, socio-cultural concerns, regulation, monitoring, and education and training (Liu, 1994 cited in Fennell, 2008).

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) insists that governments have an important role in the operation of certification systems and suggests that certification systems can bring benefits to stakeholders in the tourism industry. In 2003, twenty out of the 59 recognised certification schemes were led by government agencies (WTO, 2003), with the major government support coming through areas such as finance, marketing, expert know-how in criteria setting, training and technical support. It is also worth noting that government agencies use certification systems to promote national interests, while private sectors apply for certification to upgrade their competitive advantages and for the marketing benefits of being certified (Font, 2002b).

3. STUDY RESEARCH METHODS

This section outlines the research methodology adopted in this study and provides details on the qualitative case study, including the documentary analysis and semi-structured interviews.

**Qualitative case study**

A single qualitative case study was chosen for this study, which investigates ecotourism certification development in Chiang Mai. A single case study is an appropriate design because of the complexity of the tourism phenomenon in Chiang Mai, where ecotourism certification systems have been inconsistently managed from both procedural and operational points of view. The selection of this case was related to ecotourism development theory and represents a significant contribution to ecotourism knowledge in the north of Thailand (Yin, 2014).

The qualitative case study was exploratory in nature. An exploratory approach was chosen because there is very little data on ecotourism certification development existing in research case studies (Jenning, 2001). The methods used were documentary analysis and semi-structured interviews. Thematic analysis was used to address broad areas of similarity and difference within the dataset (Yin, 2013). Additionally, thematic analysis aims can be divided into three sets: commonality, differences and relationships. This paper applies these themes to ecotourism certification development in the research area (Chiang Mai).

The documentary analysis of Thailand Ecotourism Policy and Planning and Thailand Tourism Standards (TTS) was undertaken to gain a better understanding of the context in which ecotourism certification development in Chiang Mai sits. An official document associated with sustainable development and ecotourism policy in Thailand was obtained to disclose TTS criteria, which are currently and widely adopted in this research area. Thai official document used in this research are Thailand National Tourism Plan; The National Ecotourism Action Plan; Tourism Strategy of Ministry of Tourism and Sports; ASEAN Tourism Strategic Plan; Chiang Mai Tourism Strategic Plan; Tourism Authority of Thailand Annual Report.
Semi-structured interviews were undertaken with eighteen participants who were involved in the operation and management of ecotourism certification in Chiang Mai. Analysis was undertaken using NVivo 10 software. The eighteen participants can be divided into two main employment groups: ecotourism operators (13) and personnel from local government agencies (5). Details on whether the ecotourism operators were certified or not are provided in Table 2: List of research participants.

Table 2: List of research participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Certified</th>
<th>Uncertified</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trekking</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rafting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elephant Camp</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rock Climbing</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecolodge</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour Operator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zipline</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other: Small Farm</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Agencies (TAT) - National Park (3)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The semi-structured interviews used two different formats – one for ecotourism operators (G1) and one for personnel from government agencies (G2). The interviews with ecotourism operators included questions related to ecotourism knowledge, ecotourism activities adopted in their business, their needs and perspectives on ecotourism certification programs, and the ecotourism situation in Chiang Mai. The interviews with the personnel from government agencies (G2) investigated ecotourism policy and planning-making processes, organisation policy, and strategies and missions associated with ecotourism development in Chiang Mai.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS

This section presents the research findings in relation to the commonality, differences and relationships within the dataset. The commonality finding from both groups of research participants is that there is in an unclear functioning of local government agencies related to ecotourism development in Chiang Mai, while the differences relate to environmental awareness and factors that influence ecotourism operators that chose to be certified, or remain uncertified by tourism standards. The third area, relationships, identifies the relationship between ecotourism public policy and the role of government agencies in the ecotourism policy-making process.
4.1 Unclear functioning government organisation in ecotourism development

There are three main government agencies located in Chiang Mai that are responsible for tourism development in the area: the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), the Chiang Mai Provincial Office of Tourism and Sports, and the Department of National Parks, Wildlife and Plant Conservation (National Parks).

TAT is the government body that supplies information and data on tourist destinations and attractions to the public, with the intention of encouraging both domestic and international tourists to travel in and around Thailand. TAT has established a regional office in Chiang Mai. The Chiang Mai Provincial Office of Tourism and Sports (within the Ministry of Tourism and Sports) has responsibility for developing the quality of tourism products and services. National Parks is an agency within the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment and has a significant role in maintaining ecological stability and preserving biological diversity in protected areas. There are 13 national parks located in Chiang Mai and these offer visitors a tremendous variety of natural attractions.

Since the tourism industry is a significant source of revenue, other provincial government agencies that have representatives in Chiang Mai are also involved in tourism development. However, tourism policy and planning in Thai government agencies focus on all types of tourism development, not just ecotourism, and ecotourism is not seen as a key priority for local government agencies and, therefore, must compete with other tourism niches in Chiang Mai, such as cultural and historical tourism, agritourism, sport tourism, health tourism and adventure tourism. Furthermore, ecotourism development in Chiang Mai is integrated with, and linked to, adventure tourism and it is difficult to define and identify pure ecotourism activities in the region.

Considering the local government role identified in the interviews, it appears that the local government role specific to ecotourism certification development in Chiang Mai is unclear. One of the G2 participants, for example, was concerned that the annual fiscal-year budget was insufficient to focus on ecotourism activities as the budget will be allocated throughout the year to support programs that are already proposed and approved. Furthermore, the coordination between the provincial government organisations associated with ecotourism development in Chiang Mai is still weak and there is a lack of integration between individual parts.

One of the biggest issues is that, at the provincial administration level, there are several kinds of budget allocations for the different operating teams that cover a variety of activities, with tourism development being just one area of responsibility amongst many. Likewise, the local administration or sub-district administration will have budget support to develop the local area overall and the natural preservation and natural resources usage in tourist attractions is only one area of their responsibility.

Additionally, most ecotourism destination areas in Thailand are in national parks, (Thavarasukha, 2002). The findings from the interviews demonstrate that tourism operators in Chiang Mai did not use ecotourism routes or attractions in national parks to attract or serve tourists. One G1 participant said that ‘the main activity of the company is organising trekking and bringing people to live in the forest without facilities. It aims to make tourists learn the local culture and participate with local people. However, most of the trekking attractions would normally use the same trails that impact on natural areas... for example, there is just a few creeks where is possible for rafting and every ecotourism company in Chiang Mai would share the same creek’.

Another research participant from the government agencies group (G2) explained that ‘in Chiang Mai there is lacking of cooperation between National Parks and tourism business associations or entrepreneurs. Most tourists who come to visit national parks mostly is domestic tourist and in private. They do not usually come with tour agencies. Another group included youth tourists who come to do school activity. The National Parks has some cooperation with local community and academic association instead’.
Moreover, there is no officer or staff member who is specifically responsible for ecotourism in Chiang Mai and, at the provincial administration level; there are several kinds of budgets provided for many operational teams that cover a wide range of responsibilities and activities. Tourism development is only a subset of the main tasks that this is agency responsible for. Likewise, in the local government agencies, nature preservation and natural resources usage in tourist attractions are just some of their many and varied tasks.

4.2 Discontinuity of ecotourism policy and planning to encourage certification system

It appears that ecotourism policy and planning is not the main focus in any government agency and there is no official authorised government agency that is directly responsible for ecotourism development in Chiang Mai.

There are five local government agencies in Chiang Mai that participated in this project. The first agency noted that there are 17 provinces in the northern area of Thailand, with the Office of Tourism being located in 8 locations. The office in Chiang Mai is the centre of the northern tourism region and focuses on the potential development of tourist attractions. Ecotourism or half-adventure tourism is one of the tasks in the responsibility of this agency, but not its only responsibility.

As a domestic government agency, there is a framework for its marketing strategy, which focuses on different aspects of tourism. For example, with the tourism strategy for learning, adventure tourism is a main selling point of the northern region Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) was previously the direct government agency responsible ecotourism development. During that time TAT focused on ecotourism and had activities and projects to systemically develop this type of tourism to achieve the universal standard and increase the competitive advantage in the world tourism market. For example, in 1998 there was an educational project about the ecotourism policy, which included all aspects of ecotourism development. This project then approved The National Ecotourism Plan of Action in order to set ecotourism standards and promote sustainable tourism development. This plan helped to increase knowledge and basic understanding about ecotourism and dealt with both ecotourism policy and the ecotourism practical strategy.

However, TAT’s main focus is now tourism marketing and promotion for Thailand and the tourism standard came to be the responsibility of the Ministry of Tourism and Sports. As a result, The National Ecotourism Plan of Action no longer exists within the national tourism policy and planning as, unfortunately, this plan of action lacked a clear timeline and a specific government agency to follow the plan.
4.3 Perception on Thailand Tourism Standards and Ecotourism Development

Ecotourism certification, in principle, should encourage sustainable tourism. However, in reality, the specific criteria may not be enough to provide adequate protection to the environment because it is a voluntary program. One research participant from the government agency group (G2) stated that it is good to have standard practices as part of a tourism development plan. In several countries, the tourism standard is considered to be crucial in developing high levels of safety and service and it follows that if Thailand implemented tourism standards and certification, standards would be improved. However, while there is a controlling system for tourism development in relation to business registration, at present there is no law or specific regulation that enforces tourism standards in Thailand. It is up to the individual tourism entrepreneur to decide if they will be certified or not and there are no specific measures to control their activities. For example, with regard to safety systems in tourism operations, if an accident occurs, there are no government agency measures or systems in place to respond to, or to deal directly with, the accident and exercise relevant laws. Furthermore, often tourists do not know who to report their problem to, or which government agency is responsible for their case. If a tourism entrepreneur does not take responsibility for an accident or a problem, there is no designated agency to take a role, make a decision, or solve the tourist’s problem.

Additionally, the Thailand Tourism Standard (TTS) is not widely known. Although there is assessment and certification available, there is no public relations process that would communicate to the ecotourism stakeholder how important TTS is. This lack of awareness is compounded by the fact that it takes time, budget, and available human resources to meet the standard, which makes it less attractive to the business owners.

5. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this paper is to highlight issues in identifying and establishing an appropriate ecotourism certification model for Chiang Mai. This paper is important for a number of reasons: (1) there is a little academic research focusing on ecotourism certification development in Chiang Mai and this paper fills that gap; (2) Chiang Mai is the main tourist destination in the north of Thailand, and also positioned by Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) to be an ecotourism and adventure hub of the northern area; (3) new strategies to promote Thailand tourism aim to raise the awareness of balance between the use of tourism resources and preservation of natural resources and the introduction of an ecotourism certification program could assist with this; and (4) tourism development in the north of Thailand needs to secure and maintain local culture and the way of life of the people who live in tourist attraction areas, and ecotourism certification can assist the local community to achieve this goal.

Even though TTS are currently operating in Thailand, there is no evidence that any tourism enterprises in Chiang Mai are certified by TTS. The number of certified company in Chiang Mai is still low. The important issues in this phenomenon relate to the needs of both demand and supply side ecotourism stakeholders with regard to the development of ecotourism certification. This research contributes to the body of knowledge in this area by filling deficiencies and gaps within the current literature by providing more information about the situation in Chiang Mai. Moreover, this research helps to explain why tourism operators in Chiang Mai choose to remain uncertified, despite being knowledgeable about certification and its benefits. The significant research finding in this paper are that, to be successful and effective, an identified ecotourism certification framework for ecotourism development in Chiang Mai needs government support and a dedicated staff member or government body that is specifically responsible for the development and promotion of ecotourism, and that further research in this area is required.
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Rural Women’s Access to Reproductive Health Services in Kun Hing Township the Southern Shan State

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research study was to explore the factors that influence rural women's access to reproductive health services as well as to plan appropriate interventions that can improve access to reproductive health care in Kun Hing Township in the southern Shan State. The study population comprised 496 people living in 17 rural villages. This included 399 women of reproductive age, 74 village leaders, and 23 local health service providers. The study investigation instruments consisted of 3 separate, but inter-related, questionnaires. The data was reviewed by descriptive statistics that summarized percentages, mean/median, as well as by analysing relevant factors. The results of the study are as follows:

From the study component that interviewed 399 women of reproductive age, it was discovered that 39.6% were between 25-34 years of age, 89.2% were married, 96.7% were farmers with irregular sources of income, while each respondent had an average of 3 children that were still living. Regarding predisposing factors 63.2% of the respondents had not attended any schools. With respect to reinforcing factors the study found that respondents received support from family members, such as husbands and parents, to obtain RH services. Concerning enabling factors it was found that there were not any local government health centers, and thus villagers had to travel long distances [i.e. 15-32 kilometers] as well spend many hours [i.e. 3-10 hours] in order to reach the closest township hospital. There was only one government midwife providing health education as well as immunizations to children once or twice a year. With respect to the provision of RH services in rural communities, such as delivery and family planning, the majority of these services were provided by local TBAs and AMWs. A total of 53.0% of the respondents used Depoprovera injections as their choice of contraceptive. In the event of emergencies, during pregnancy, childbirth, and in the post partum period, it is necessary to spend a great amount of money at, as well as a lot of time travelling to, a health facility in Kun Hing and/or Kali township centers.

From the survey component that interviewed 74 village leaders, village elders, and religious leaders, it was found that 72 were male and 2 were female. These village leaders are selected by local inhabitants and are not paid civil servants. They do not receive any salaries or other types of payments. Their job is to make sure that the village operates smoothly and peacefully, as well as to coordinate relations between community members and local government officials.

From the survey component dealing with the 23 local health service providers it was found that all respondents (i.e. 100%) were female. This included a midwife, AMWS, TBAs and VHVs. A total of 52.2% were TBAs between the ages of 40 to 65 years while 30.4% were AMWs. Most of the AMWs were trained by SWAN on a variety of RH topics. The local health service providers' professional experiences ranged from 1 to 35 years. Most of the health service providers assist with deliveries. With respect to the provision of FP services the midwife and AMWs are the only local health service providers.

Access to RH services in Kun Hing Township, in the southern Shan State, still needs additional development in order to provide adequate coverage as well as to improve the quality of life for local inhabitants.

KEY WORDS: Access to Reproductive Health, Rural Women Reproductive Age
Introduction

The situation in Kun Hing Township is considerably different than that indicated in the MOH’s "organogram". The most dramatic difference is that the MOH provides health care “only in township and sub-township centers”, where there is a government hospital that generally has little medicine and/or adequate medical supplies and equipment. It should be noted that the 17 communities included in the Reproductive Health Survey were located to the south of either the Kun Hing Township or Kali Sub-Township centers. These two towns, however, are located only 8 kms from one another. Both the Kun Hing Township and Ka Li Sub-township centers contain hospitals, which are in fact the only government "health facilities" located throughout the "southern section of the township". They also contain pharmacy shops where medicine can be purchased. Although the township, according to the MOH organogram, should contain several RHCs and/or sub RHCs, there is not any health centers located in the 90 or so rural communities situated in the section of Kun Hing Township where the RH survey was conducted. The Kun Hing Township Hospital currently has 14 staff that includes only 1 physician. The Ka Li Sub-township hospital has only 4 permanent staff, which does not include any physicians.

Although there are apparently several "public" and "private" health facilities at the township/sub-township centers, it is not easy for most villagers to obtain medical care at the government hospitals. When patients go to the hospital they have to buy their own medicine and/or medical supplies/equipment from drug shops located near the hospitals as the government facilities often are not supplied with these items from the central level. Even basic items such as alcohol and cotton wool have to be purchased by patients as they are not available at the hospital. If a patient is, for example, referred to the township hospital by a local AMW or traditional medical practitioner hospital staff initially inform the patient and/or his/her relatives of the estimated costs for treatment. If the patient does not have enough money to cover these costs hospital staff will simply refuse admission to this "public" health facility.

Another important constraint preventing local residents from obtaining health care from township hospitals is language barriers. Most hospital staff come from central Burma and cannot speak Shan/Tai or any of the other local ethnic languages or dialects [e.g. Lahu, Palaung, etc.]. At the same time many people living in the Kun Hing Township can only speak their own language/dialect or only Shan/Tai. In general patients are intimidated and afraid to go, even if they have adequate financial resources, to the township hospital as this site is definitely not considered to be a “user friendly health facility”.

The local health service providers [i.e. AMWs], who served as the interviewers for the RH Survey exercise, mentioned that a system of "discrimination against poor patients" is evident even before one sets foot into a government hospital. In brief these "constraints" force most local rural residents, of the Kun Hing Township, to seek and receive treatment/care from local traditional medical practitioners in their village and/or nearby communities. These practitioners include herbal specialists, spirit doctors, auxiliary midwives, and TBAs. It should be noted, however that most villages in the Kun Hing Township do not have any auxiliary midwives, while some tiny communities do not even have local TBAs.

Much of the information published by the Burmese MOH regarding key health indicators, for example, is primarily based upon “hospital records” and limited surveys rather than actual events taking place in rural communities. In brief the vital events [i.e. births and deaths], including miscarriages/induced abortions/stillbirths, infant deaths, early childhood deaths, and maternal deaths, taking place in many rural/remote geographic areas, such as the “survey target area” in Kun Hing Township, go unreported and are not included in official health statistics, although these events may represent the majority of all “vital events” in any given township.

The researcher decided to explore the issue of accessibility to RH services, for rural women living in the Kun Hing Township, for a variety of reasons. Most important is the fact that SWAN has trained, over the past 3 years, a total of 7 local health workers [i.e. AMWs] who could be further
trained to serve as interviewers for this study. The second major reason for selecting Kun Hing Township is that this large geographic area contains approximately 90 villages which have different levels of access to health care.

Rural women also rarely have any access to information regarding nutrition, breast-feeding, immunizations, family planning and/or other essential health services that can have a positive effect on their and their families’ health status. The purpose of this study was to find out exactly what types of access rural women have to information and specific health services, as well as to find out the various constraints that can interfere with them obtaining routine high quality RH and other health services.

**Research Methodology**

The researcher originally divided approximately 50 communities into 5 "village target selection zones". The zones were based upon the “spatial relations” of where these communities were geographically and topographically located in respect to the Ka Li sub-township and the Kun Hing township centers. Two other criteria used to select "tentative" villages to include in the RH Survey "target area" were (a) the presence or absence of local health workers [e.g. AMWs] and/or local medical practitioners [e.g. TBAs] and (b) the ethnicity of the villagers [i.e. Tai/Shan or some other ethnic group such as Palaung or Lahu]. The researcher initially wished to "randomly" select communities, according to these 5 "geographical zone".

The researcher and her team conducted focal group discussions/interviews with village leaders and face to face interview with women of reproductive age and local health service providers. The team travelled from one village to another and stayed with villagers. Most of interviews took place in the evening because villagers had to go to their fields during the day time. The researcher and her team interviewed a total of 496 individuals which included 74 village leaders as part of Survey I, 399 women of reproductive age [i.e. 379 "married" and 20 "unmarried"] as part of Survey II, and 23 local health service providers [i.e. TBAs, AMWs, VHV, and Midwives] as part of Survey III.

**Research Tools/Instruments**

The survey questionnaires were constructed for validity which was verified by the experts and supervisors. The researcher contacted the interviewers when she came across "incomplete” and/or "inconsistent" data during the data summary/analysis phase of her study. The questionnaires were also constructed into two versions: English and Shan/Tai. As such it was easy for the interviewers to clearly discuss each point/question with the interviewees.

The RH Survey's data collection tools consisted of 3 separate questionnaires that are objective in nature. One set of questionnaires was administered to village leaders [e.g. village headmen, village elders, secular religious leaders, and other village authorities]. This questionnaire was conducted as part of a focal group discussion, in each of the 17 communities included in the RH Survey "target area". The second set of questionnaires was administered, individually, to women of reproductive age. The third set of questionnaires was conducted, individually, but as part of a focal group discussion process, to local health service providers. This included local Auxiliary Midwives, local village TBAs, several V Hav, and one local health worker [i.e. employed by township health authorities].

**Procedure**

It took the researcher and her interview team 3 weeks, during May 2013, to interview all 496 participants. The interview team generally comprised 6 individuals, but sometimes local VHV [who understood the survey questionnaires] also helped interview women of reproductive age. The entire survey process used the Shan/Tai version, of the questionnaires.

Ms. Muay Kao served as the key interviewer for the survey component dealing with village leaders/village elders, as she is a well known local "health worker” [i.e. AMW] that personally knows village leaders from most community in this section of Kun Hing Township. Ms. Muay Kao was also
the most dynamic "public speaker", of the interviewers, and accordingly the researcher felt that she
would be able to obtain the most reliable information from this group of respondents.

While Ms. Muay Kao was interviewing the village leaders/village elders, the researcher and
remaining interviewers met with survey participants that comprised the "women of reproductive age". This
group usually met at the home of the village headman or at another large compound in the
country. The interviewers interviewed each "respondent" separately. When Ms. Muay Kao completed
her session with the village leaders/village elders, she joined the interview team and also helped
interview local women that comprised the second component of the survey.

When these two components of the survey were complete, the interview team met with local
health service providers. This usually consisted of only a few women [i.e. TBAs, AMWs, VHV's,
and/or a Midwife] from each village. The local health service providers, that were literate [i.e. the
AMW's, VHV's, and the 1 Midwife] completed their own personal survey questionnaire. The
researcher and her team administered the questionnaire to local TBAs and recorded their answers on
to the questionnaire forms.

Data Analysis

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in the present study which summarized
and analyzed the data from the three survey questionnaires. Descriptive statistics was used to describe
the ranges, percentages, means, medians of most variables studied in the survey.

Results and Discussion

The researcher used PRECEDE framework to describe finding from this survey. The findings
are as follows:

The researcher and her team of local interviewers were able to conduct 3 separate, but inter-
related, surveys in 17 rural/remote communities located in the southern section of Kun Hing
Township, a geographical region that is situated in the Southern Shan State.

In brief the interviewers contacted and interviewed the following villagers, as part of the RH
Survey exercise, (a) 399 women of reproductive ages [i.e. 15-44 years of age] (b) 74 village
leaders/village elders and (c) 23 local health service providers [i.e. TBAs, AMWs, VHV's, and
Midwives].

With respect to the latter group, since most of the survey questionnaire asked respondents to
indicate their "personal reproductive health related experiences" most of this component of the survey
was only answered by 379 "currently married" or "ever married". "Ever married" referred to women
that were either widows or had been married in the past but were presently divorced from their former
husbands.

The 20 "single/never married" women of reproductive ages only answered those questions
dealing with the respondents' demographic characteristics or present socio-economic situation [i.e.
age, gender, ethnicity, religious beliefs, formal educational background, marital status, occupation,
and sources of income].

1. Survey of Women of Reproductive Age: the RH Survey was conducted by interviewing
a total of 399 "women of reproductive ages" [i.e. 15-44 years].

This cohort included 379 "currently married" and/or "ever married" women (i.e. 95.0%) who
were able to relate their personal reproductive health experiences to the interviewers.

Findings and Discussion: The researcher use PRECEDE framework and describe as follows:
**Predisposing factors:**

*Demographic characteristics of rural women*

All of the respondents, or nearly all of them, were women of reproductive age [15-44 years], Tai/Shan in ethnicity, adherents to Buddhism, and farmers, as well as individuals with very few formal educational opportunities. They also, as a group, earned relatively low annual incomes, which were mainly derived from occupations associated with a life in rural areas. From the study exposed that interviewed 399 women of reproductive age, it was discovered that 39.6% were between 25-34 years of age, 37.8% were 35 to 45 years of age and 22.6% were women age between 14 to 24 years and 89.2% were married.

With respect to occupation and income, (a) the overwhelming majority only had a "main occupation" [i.e. farming] and not any "minor" occupations, (b) most households derived their annual income from the sale of agricultural products, although some respondents in certain communities obtained income from several "other sources", (c) average income levels for those "with any reported income" as well as for those "without any reported income" was very low due to the absence of local markets in which to sell local produce or any other goods, and (d) very few families regularly receive "remittances" from household members living/working in Thailand although quite a number of households have "close family members" living in Thailand. Among 399 women 96.7% were farmers with irregular sources of income. ILO(2012) stated that two thirds of employed women and men in sub-Saharan Africa worked in Agriculture, mainly as contributing (unpaid) family workers or own account workers. In South Asia 44% of men and 70% of women workers, were engaged in agriculture. This information is relevance with data found in this survey.

Each respondent had an average of 3 children that were still living. For example: in Khong Sa village, three of 4 women experienced the death of 2 children, while 1 woman experienced 3 childhood deaths. In Kot Pung village, 5 women experienced the death of 1 child, while 1 woman experienced 2 childhood deaths, 2 women encountered 3 childhood deaths and 2 women encountered 4 childhood deaths. In Peng Khan, 6 women experienced the death of 1 child, 1 woman experienced 2 childhood deaths and 1 woman encountered 4 childhood deaths. In Na Leu, one woman experienced 9 pregnancies and only 7 children still living.

**Reproductive Status**

This cohort included 379 "currently married" and/or "ever married" women (i.e. 95.0%) who were able to relate their personal reproductive health experiences to the interviewers. Some of the questions focused on the present-day situation [e.g. current pregnancy status, current desire to become pregnant, current FP use, etc.]. Some of the topics took place recently while others occurred in the very distant past as the respondents were asked to discuss their "last" pregnancy, delivery, and post-partum experiences.

Other topics took place over at times over a relatively short or a very long period, as respondents were asked to provide their complete "reproductive history" that included their respective (a) total number of pregnancies [379 women interviewed, 351 (92.6%) claimed that there were not currently pregnant, while 23 (6.1%) thought that they were pregnant, and 5 (1.3%) were not sure whether or not they were pregnant] (b) number of still birth [15 women (4.2%) indicated that they had ever experienced a stillbirth] (c) number of live-births [353 (99.4%) indicated that they also experienced at least 1 "live-birth"], (d) number of live-births that subsequently ended in a death [221 "deaths" reported by 138 (39.1%) of the 353 women who experienced at least 1 "live-birth"] and (e) number of live-births that are still living at the present moment [346 respondents (98.0%), from the cohort of 353 women that reported at least 1 "live-birth", reported that they had at least one child that was still living, 7 women (2.0%) no longer had any children that were still alive].
The cohort of 20 "single/never married" women (5.0%) were not able to answer most, if not all of these types of questions, and as such for many topics in this component of the RH Survey the respondents comprised the 379 "currently married" or "ever married" women of reproductive ages.

The main exception was for the questions dealing with the respondents' demographic characteristics and/or socio-economic situation.

**Predisposing factors:**

The overall picture gathered from the data collected from women of reproductive ages was that most had very low levels of formal education [240 of the 379 (63.3%) currently married/ever married women of reproductive age had never attended school and 12 of the 20 (60.0%) single/never married had also never attended school. Thus 252 of the 399 (63.2%) women of reproductive age had not attended any schools], with more than half of the respondents indicating that they had never attended any school whatsoever. According to Myanmar Peace Monitoring people from Shan State have some of the highest rates of illiteracy in Myanmar is 75%, illiteracy often results in women having very little knowledge regarding reproductive health. ILO indicated similar what found in this survey that over two-thirds of the world’s illiterate people are women, many of whom live in rural areas.

**Reinforcing Factors:**

The study found that respondents received support from family members, such as husbands and parents, to obtain RH services. The researcher was interested in learning whether the attitudes, beliefs, or actions of certain respected members of Tai/Shan communities [i.e. the elderly and/or monks] had any positive or negative affect on the provision of FP services for community members.

**Enabling Factors:**

The study found that there were not any local government health centers, and thus villagers had to travel long distances [i.e. 15-32 kilometers] as well spend many hours [i.e. 3-10 hours] in order to reach the closest township hospital. Although central and township health workers rarely visit rural communities, in this section of Kun Hing Township, and village women similarly infrequently visit township/sub-township hospitals and clinics to obtain RH health services such as ANC, Delivery, PNC, FP, and Immunization services, it was surprising to learn that most of these important RH services were available, in some manner or form, at the village level from local health service providers.

In the past TBAs played a very important role in providing ANC, Delivery, and PNC services to pregnant women, post-partum mothers, and newborn infants. Nowadays, however, a new category of health worker [i.e. the AMW] has begun to undertake similar responsibilities and accordingly provide a considerable amount of RH services at the village level. Although not as experienced as some of the TBAs with respect to addressing certain types of deliveries [e.g. breech births], AMWs have begun to provide regular ANC, Delivery, and PNC care to pregnant women, mothers, and newborn infants. These services providers are not officially recognized. Constanze Pfeiffer (2013) stated: Traditional birth attendants retain an important role in reproductive and maternal health in Tanzania. The Tanzanian Government promotes TBAs in order to provide maternal and neonatal health counselling and initiating timely referral, however, their role officially does not include delivery attendance which is similar to the data that found in this survey because until now TBAs assisting women for delivery.

At the same time it was interesting to learn of the important role played by the "Outreach Health Worker" from Ka Li sub-township center. This individual appears to be a 60+ year old individual who was previously posted to one of the sub-health centers located in this section of Kun Hing Township. Although the sub-health center has been closed for many years this "outreach health worker" [originally trained as Midwife] has continued to serve the local population.
One of the reasons for her involvement in RH care is that she is an experienced "birth attendant" capable of performing episiotomies. She also is one of the few individuals in this section of the township authorized to sign and distribute formal "birth certificates" and accordingly her services are in demand by many local women/families.

The SWAN sponsored health team in Kun Hing Township, made up of 6 AMWs, have in the past 2-3 year period evolved into the most important source of FP services, and their efforts have resulted in a huge percentage of married women of reproductive ages presently using modern FP methods. The CPR in 16 of these 17 villages is approximately 80%, a figure more than double that estimated for Burma as a whole. This high CPR has already started to have a positive impact on the overall health status of women, infants, and young children in these communities as CBRs, CDRs, Population Growth Rates, IMRs, CMRs, and MMRs have begun to decline to relatively low levels that one generally would not associate for a rural/remote area of northern Burma.

Although local women have to pay for some of their RH services, most indicate that the cost is not expensive. The TBAs and AMWs, however, are local people and do not necessarily expect any financial compensation for their services, other than to recover the cost of their supplies.

It was interesting to observe that in certain communities, where some respondents indicated that they had to pay for their respective ANC, Delivery, PNC, or FP service, others stated that they were not obligated to pay for these same RH services, implying that unlike government/township hospitals which "turn away patients" not able to demonstrate that they have sufficient funds to pay for their medical care, local health service providers are much more flexible even when they generally charge some fees for their services. APHIA II (2012) stated similar with situation which had found in this survey. It mentions that clients are willing to receive a package of reproductive health services from one midwife. More than 90% of the indicated interest in receiving a package of reproductive health services from a community midwife in future including ANC, delivery, PNC and FP services.

The survey also indicated that the knowledge level, beliefs, and behavioral practices of local village women, were very positive with respect to certain health issues related to pregnancy and childbirth, but needed to perhaps be revised when it came to issues dealing with breast-feeding, as a considerably number of women did not know or feel that they should try to exclusively breast-feed newborn infants for approximately 6 months.

Some respondents thought one could introduce liquid and/or solid foods within the first 1-3 months of delivery, while others thought that one could introduce other foods, in addition to breast-milk, within the first weeks following delivery. Of the 362 women that answered that 67 (or 18.5%) thought that newborn infants should be exclusively feed breast-milk for only 0-1 month, 98 (or 27.1%) thought it should be 1+ - 3 months, 53 (or 14.6%) thought the proper time-frame was 3+ - 6 months, 105 (or 29.0%) thought it was "exactly 6 months", while 39 (or 10.5%) thought exclusive breast-feeding should last > 6 months.

The researcher also asked more about introduced other food to their baby. It found that mothers started feed foods [rice] since their baby about 3 or 5 days. It is similar to Vietnam Phuong H Nguyen, (2014) stated that 73.3% of children were given prelacteal foods in the first three days after birth but different from Nepal, Rajendra Karkee (2014) stated that mother started introduce cow/buffalo milk while children 12 weeks and 22 week after birth. Douglas Auenqua (2013) also wrote that according to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention in a national survey, 40 percent said they gave their baby solid food before they were 4 months old, with 9 percent starting as early as 4 weeks.

In brief many local women were quite knowledgeable about a wide range of health issues, problems, and topics even though (a) they did not have opportunities to attend school and according could not on their own read about these matters, (b) rarely came into contact with any government health workers/officials, and (c) rarely received any sort of health education and/or direct services from medical/health staff stationed at township hospitals or as part of mobile health clinic visits.
The source of their information and care primarily came from different groups of local health service providers, some of whom have been working as TBAs for 40 years while others, such as the AMWs, have been working in their communities for a much shorter period of time. Therefore, women access to RH services from local health service providers rarely from township hospital and the government outreach health workers.

2. Survey of Village Leaders/Village Elders: The first component of the RH survey was conducted by interviewing 74 village leaders/village elders from the 17 villages that were selected to serve as the RH Survey "target intervention area". The village leaders included village headmen (17), assistant village headman (9), village elders (17), village secretaries (14), local "secular" religious leaders (7), and other respected members of the community 10). Only 2 (2.7%) of the village leaders/village elders were female, while the remaining 72 (97.3%) were male. The interviewers usually met 3-5 individuals in a "focus group setting", and discussed the various issues in the survey questionnaire before obtaining a "consensus" that was enumerated as to group's "appropriate answer".

Findings & Discussion: The overall picture gathered from the data collected as part of the "Village Profile" Component is that the "target intervention area" communities are located within travelling distance to the township/sub-township centers. However any trip to hospitals and/or clinics in the main urban centers is both very time-consuming, in terms of the number of hours that one has to travel, as well as expensive if one has to hire an ox-cart, motorcycle, or motorized vehicle such as a car or local "e-taen". Even walking from one's village to the township centre incurs various costs, especially if one has to spend a night sleeping in another village or purchasing food on the way to the hospital.

Villagers have to pay for any medical care provided at the township/sub-township hospitals [and clinics] and most villagers simply do not have sufficient funds for this purpose, even in times of serious illness or emergencies.

This topic [i.e. the cost of hospital care] was further investigated with respect to women of reproductive age who experienced serious obstetrics related complications during pregnancy, childbirth, or shortly after delivery and who subsequently travelled to a hospital for appropriate or emergency treatment.

All villages had several traditional medical practitioners and it was these individuals who generally treated local villagers for minor as well as major [i.e. more serious] illnesses, conditions, or after an accident.

Local medical practitioners were also the main providers of Ante-Natal, Delivery, and Post-Partum Care.

This issue was further investigated during the RH Survey component focusing on the personal experiences of married women of reproductive ages.

The only "non-local service provider" that played an important role in ANC, Delivery, and PNC care was the elderly "Outreach Health Worker" who lived in the Ka Li sub-township centre. Her role was described in the second component of the RH survey.

Except for Wan Lao there were not any government health workers deployed or stationed in any of the 17 communities in the RH Survey "target intervention area".

Village leaders also indicated that central, state, and/or township health workers and officials rarely if ever visit rural communities in this part of Kun Hing Township.

Visits, when they do occur, take place once every 6-12 months, and these visits are geared to providing villagers with some type of information [not health education] and not for the actual provision of specific health services.
Village leaders indicated that visiting government health workers do not provide health education regarding RH services or do they promote or make FP services available at the village level.

Village leaders, in ever community, also indicated that government health workers do not provide actual services or health education for 6 important RH topics [i.e. FP, Immunizations, health education regarding the importance of ANC examinations during pregnancy, health education regarding the importance of referring women with obstetrics complications to a hospital, health education regarding the importance of breast-feeding, and health education the importance of weighing young children to determine if they are growing normally or suffering from malnutrition].

Village leaders also indicated that local religious leaders and elderly members of the community generally do not provide coercive opinions to villagers to either adopt or reject FP services, leaving the decision entirely up to the individual or couple.

This component of the questionnaire also explored whether or not central or local government authorities had made any provision for the construction and/or support of local elementary schools in the "target intervention area".

Only Wan Lao had a government sponsored school while in each of the other 16 communities villagers constructed their own schools, hired individuals to serve as local teachers, and contributed to other overhead costs of maintaining and operating these facilities.

In brief central and local governments had made very few, if any, financial contributions to the establishment and/or maintenance of a health care service delivery as well as an education system for local communities and their respective residents.

3. Survey of Local Health Service Providers: The third component of the RH Survey was conducted by interviewing 23 local health service providers who, for the most part, were actively involved in providing various RH services in their villages, and at times neighboring, communities. This group included 12 TBAs [52.2%], 7 AMWs [30.4%], 3 VHV [13.0%], and 1 Midwife [4.3%].

Findings and Discussion: The overall picture gathered from the data collected as part of the "Local Health Service Provider" Survey is that although villagers living in rural communities of Kun Hing Township have very little access to basic health care from either central or township government health authorities, an important RH services [ANC, Delivery, PNC, and FP services] are nevertheless provided by local health service providers. The latter include TBAs, AMWs, and a Midwife.

Although the small cohort of "interviewed" VHVs provide some information to local villagers on a number of health topics, their respective limited formal training and lack of practical experiences usually do not allow them to actively participate in the provision of basic RH services.

The central Burmese government have not made adequate financial or technical investments necessary to establish a viable health care delivery system.

As such the large Kun Hing Township Area presently does not contain any health centers nor has it established a schedule of regular mobile clinic/outreach health teams to routinely visit rural communities to provide health education on a wide range of topics as well as "specific" RH and/or basic health services to local residents.

Although TBAs have performed village level deliveries, and other related services to pregnant women, post-partum mothers, and newborn infants, probably for endless generations, several new categories of local villagers have recently become involved in the provision of a wide range of RH services, that includes ANC, Delivery, PNC, FP, and Early Childhood Nutritional Surveillance services.
The AMWs are younger women that usually serve as "private medical practitioners" called upon to treat many varieties of minor and major illnesses that occur in their own as well as some neighboring villages.

The AMWs are, however, gradually becoming an important source of RH service delivery in the Kun Hing Township Area.

The introduction and/or expansion of FP services by local AMWs through an SWAN initiated RH program has dramatically increased FP acceptance in several sections of the Kun Hing Township area over the last couple of years. The very high Contraceptive Prevalence Rates (CPRs), found in these communities, have already begun to have an impact on reducing high crude birth, crude death, population growth, infant mortality, early childhood mortality, and maternal mortality rates/ratios.

This successful FP initiative does not appear to have been affected, either positively or negatively, by the attitudes and/or role of monks and elderly members of these communities.

At the same time the cohort of AMWs need to receive further training as their current level of knowledge and technical skills is inadequate to deal with the vast array of issues, conditions, and problems that they potentially face, on a day to day basis, in the absence of a "viable" or "functional" health care delivery system that in fact only exists in or close to the 2 township/sub-township centers located in Kun Hing Township.

**Limitation:**

The researcher initially planned on "randomly" selecting households, in the "target villages", to include in the RH Survey exercise. However as the monsoon rains had begun to fall, and many villagers began to spend more time in their fields, it was decided to interview all women of reproductive age [15-44 years] who were present in their respective village during the interviewers’ on-site visit. These tentative plans, however, had to be modified once the researcher arrived in Kun Hing Township, as the annual monsoon, or "rainy", season had begun, making road communication exceedingly difficult. As such the researcher, after consulting with her local "interviewer team", decided to conduct the RH Survey in the 17 villages where these health workers were presently providing regular health [and RH] services.

**Conclusion & Suggestions:**

The findings of this study are based on the data collected from the 3 inter-related, but separate, questionnaires administered to 496 individuals living in the southern section of Kun Hing Township during a 3 week period in May 2013. In brief there were 74 village leaders, most of whom were male (97.3%), 399 women of reproductive age, and 23 local health service providers (all female). In summary 424 of the 496 respondents (85.5%), participating in the RH Survey exercise, were female.

The study aimed to identify and illustrate the various types of barriers and constraints rural women face in accessing reproductive, and other basic, health services in the Shan State. This included some of the following factors: (a) a weak public sector health care delivery system that was only visible in township centers but was totally non-existent in rural communities, (b) a government health care delivery system that frequently hires and deploys Burmese health workers to township hospitals, creating additional cultural and linguistic barriers between patients and service providers, (c) an absence of government health workers/officials making regular mobile visits to rural communities to provide health education and/or specific promotive/preventive/curative care services to mothers, children, and other villagers, (d) the provision of public sector health care services, at the township hospital level, that is usually on a "fee-for-service" basis regardless of the seriousness of the condition and/or during times of emergency, (e) low income levels that make it difficult for rural residents to make routine visits to the township centers to obtain timely medical/health care during pregnancy, delivery, and the post-partum period, and/pr when obstetric complications and other
emergency situations are evident, and (f) the maintenance of certain local beliefs, such as the "very early" introduction of supplementary foods during the first weeks/months of an infant's life, that can adversely affect the health of newborn children.

At the same time the survey highlighted the presence of a large group of local health service providers, mostly TBAs and some AMWs that apparently treat most minor and major illnesses, as well as provide the vast majority of RH services at the village level in a "user friendly" environment.

In conclusion, access to RH services in Kun Hing Township, in the southern Shan State, still needs additional development in order to provide adequate coverage as well as to improve the quality of life for local inhabitants.

**Implication**

Local health service providers [AMWs] accordingly need to receive further training to deal with the vast array of issues, conditions, and problems that they potentially face, on a day to day basis, in the absence of a "viable" or "functional" health care delivery system that in fact only exists in town or township centers as well as training for health service providers to be able raise health awareness in the community. The information collected as part of the RH Survey will be used as a guide to establish appropriate RH training and service delivery initiatives.

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