

Sustainability of Tourism

Sustainability of Tourism:
Cultural and Environmental Perspectives

Edited by

Metin Kozak and Nazmi Kozak

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P U B L I S H I N G

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CHAPTER ONE

SOCIAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN TURKEY

MUAMMER TUNA

Abstract

Tourism has been one of the most widely disseminated social and economic phenomena since World War II. Tourism and its related activities, such as per capita income and socio-economic welfare, have seen enormous growth in the twentieth century. Each year, more and more people are going abroad and visiting other countries, even other continents. It is expected that approximately 700 million tourists will visit Europe by the year 2020. Turkey is a provider-country in terms of tourism, and is an important example of global tourism development. Its EU membership and close proximity to greater Europe makes Turkey a main player in both the global and European tourism markets. However, there are many social and environmental impacts of this development and these will be discussed in this chapter.

1. Introduction

Tourism and its effects have primarily been seen in the southern Aegean and western Mediterranean regions of Turkey. The faster social, economic and environmental changes from tourism in the coastal towns and cities of Turkey are particularly important, with the towns of Antalya, Muğla, Aydın and İzmir provinces providing important examples: significant socio-economic changes have appeared in these areas over the last 30-40 years as a result of tourism development. Before then, these provinces were small agricultural and fishing towns. It is clear that direct and indirect factors of the general economy, such as global economic fluctuations, supply and demand factors and structural problems of tourism

in Turkey have affected the social and economic structures of these towns and provinces.

The impacts of tourism development are multi-dimensional, with economic, social and environmental impacts. Since there is already abundant research on the economic impacts of tourism development, this study will focus more on the social and the environmental impacts as they relate to Turkey. This chapter will also concentrate on related sustainability issues and offer some suggestions towards alleviating their impact.

2. Tourism: Definition and Conception

Tourism is one of the most well-known free-time and recreational activities in modern society (Müller, 2002). It is a temporary displacement of people for health, sport, entertainment, travel and holiday (Lanquar, 1999). Travel is thus an important part of tourism, but an operational definition of tourism places more emphasis on accommodation and hospitality. So, even though tourism today is generally considered as free-time and recreational activity, the wider perspective is that travel for health, business, sport and scientific congress and meetings also fits the broader tourism definition.

All components of tourism should be considered in order to gain the fullest picture of the concept. When looked at from the economic perspective, for example, tourism is a service sector that has production and consumption dimensions. In other words, there are “producers” and “consumers” of the tourism service. The “producers” are the managers, owners and workers within the tourism industry and the “consumers” are the tourists. In term of economics, there is an economic exchange between the consumers (tourists) and the producers (workers within the tourism industry).

Or, when viewed from a sociological perspective, tourism is a social interaction between the host community and the guest community (Apostolopulos, 1996). It is the contention of this study that the societal dimension of tourism deserves at least as much consideration as the economic dimension; therefore, the societal and accompanying environmental dimensions of tourism development in Turkey are the main focus of this chapter. Social relations (Apostolopoulos, 1996), the concept of ‘tourist satisfaction’ (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000), and social and cultural changes and the impacts of these changes on the local community as a result of tourism development in Turkey will

also be discussed, together with the sustainability aspect of tourism development in Turkey.

While normally looked at primarily in economic terms, it should be clear that an understanding of tourism based solely on an economic point of view is insufficient (and ultimately un-economical). Behind its economic side, tourism is a social interaction in which persons who otherwise would most likely never meet come together in face-to-face interaction (Apostolopoulos, 1996; Cohen, 1996; Dann & Cohen, 1996). The quality of those interactions is, therefore, crucial, and impacts the economic dimension, whether the interactions are between two individuals, two groups, two nations, or two different cultures. These interactions, therefore, also have both national and international tourism implications (Tuna, 2006a).

If we examine the group or societal aspect of tourism, two different groups of people (perhaps even from different cultures) interact; and the socio-cultural backgrounds of the tourist and the host determine the structure and the quality of this interaction, which itself affects the economic dimension of tourism activity. If we look at this activity from an economic perspective, both sides of the economic exchange –the producer and the consumer – should be satisfied (Baudrillard, 1998; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2001). On the other hand, if tourism activity is viewed from a societal perspective, the two sides of the social interaction (host and guest) should be satisfied within the social interaction. Thus vigorous economic activity is closely associated with foreseeable social interaction between the consumer or tourist community and the producers or host community (Apostolopoulos, 1996).

The second major subject of this chapter is the environmental aspect of tourism. There are a number of different ways to evaluate the environmental dimension; however, most of them deal with sustainability issues. The most radical perspective is possibly the eco-tourism one, which implies a totally different viewpoint about tourism activity. According to this perspective, tourism activity or tourism development should be totally based upon ecological principles. Another view about the environmental dimension of tourism activity would be to have developed tourism areas whereby tourism is dealt with in a more environmentally sensitive way within those areas (Atabay, 2002).

3. Dimensions of Tourism

As mentioned earlier, tourism is not only an economic activity, but also a social interaction, and has environmental dimensions, too. Tourism should

thus be seen as a multi-dimensional phenomenon. If tourism is considered, from an economic point of view, as part of the service sector, it has been affected by a number of factors, such as quality of service, productivity of the sector, and the income generated by the sector. All these relate directly to consumer satisfaction, and indirectly to social interaction between the guest and the host. In other words, a successful tourism industry should follow demands and new trends in the tourist market. Thus, since the demands and expectations of tourists have changed, the form and structure of tourism has also changed over the past few decades. Natural, environmental, historical, cultural, artistic and social amenities have therefore become unavoidable factors in new tourism trends (Hildebrand, 1992; Judge, 1992; Weale & Williams, 1992). The natural environmental factors, and cultural and historical values of the destination areas are major criteria for tourists. As a result, preservation of the natural environment, environmentally friendly tourism products, tourism facilities within the natural environment and sustainability are key elements in understanding the new tourism trends (Altıparmak, 2002; Mowfort & Munt, 1998).

4. Principles of Sustainability

Sustainability in terms of new tourism trends means a sustainable use of natural resources. In other words, natural resources should be used not only for present, but also for future generations (Redclift, 2001; Weale & Williams, 1992). Eco-tourism might be the most appropriate form of sustainable tourism development: the concept of ecological tourism is that ecological principles should be considered as the main principles of the tourism development (Bakırçı, 2002), and this should apply not only to newly developed tourist areas but traditional tourist areas and facilities as well (Richards & Hall, 2000). The principles of sustainability are as follows:

1. Concern about the future: The possible positive and negative impacts of development should be considered from a wider perspective than just that of the political and business sectors.
2. Equality between the different generations: Use of natural resources by future generations should not be impeded by the present one; therefore, some resources should be reserved for future generations.
3. Participation: All social and political groups that are affected by the impact of development should participate in all decision-making processes.

4. Balance between economical and environmental factors: The decision-making process should be concerned with more than just an economical perspective; environmental factors should be considered as unavoidable factors in economic development.
5. Environmental capacities: All environmental factors should be taken into account so that there is no negative impact on the ecosystem.
6. Qualitative vs quantitative factors: Minimization of cost should not be a primary factor in taking decisions, which must be made with a view to minimizing environmental impact.
7. Taking local ecosystems for granted: Development should take into account the sustainability of local social, political, agricultural, and ecological systems (Kirk, 1995).

Developers of tourism should thus consider these principles as major reference points. However, it would hardly be true to say that these principles generally inform Turkish tourism development policies. The European Union, whose vast population is a main source of tourism for Turkey, has accepted ecological principles as the main philosophy of tourism development (Inforegio/panorama, 2002b; McCormic, 1999), and the EU Regional Committee held in Florence on 21 November 2001, agreed that all rules and regulations relating to tourism development should accord with sustainability and ecological tourism principles (Inforegio/panorama, 2002a, p. 11). Turkey should thus bear in mind the EU's principles regarding tourism development for two reasons. First, the EU is a major source of Turkey's tourism business and, secondly, Turkey is an associate member of the EU. Therefore, making Turkey's tourism structure more ecological and sustainable seems to be unavoidable (Birkan, 2001; Çağatay, 2002; Ceylan, 1995). An evaluation of the social and environmental impacts of tourism development in Turkey – particularly the Southern Aegean and the Western Mediterranean regions – is necessary to understanding the future of tourism in Turkey. Such evaluation would also provide an important understanding of the possibilities of sustainability and future trends in tourism development (Tuna, 2007).

5. Social Dimensions of Tourism

Tourism as seen from a wider perspective has a number of social impacts. The social changes as a result of tourism development can thus be grouped as following:

1. Demographic impacts: A general increase and changing structure of the population in terms of age, gender and education in a given tourism area.
2. Economical impacts: Changes in production and consumption habits.
Changing from traditional, local practices to national and international ones.
Changes in production factors: Changing human resources demanding new technologies; educational, occupational and linguistic changes.
3. Cultural impacts: The cultural production and consumption forms of the society have been changed. Traditional ways of life and customs have been changed to more modern ones.
Changes in norms: Traditional social tests and preferences have changed – social behavior that was not acceptable before tourism development is now tolerated.
Consumption culture: Traditional entertainment, religious rituals, marriage ceremonies and local arts and literature reflected national and international forms.
4. Impacts on the environment: degradation of ecological, historical and geographical resources, and fauna and flora; general pollution of the environment (ie of air, soil and water).

Additionally, the demographic, economic and cultural impacts of tourism on the environment can be divided in two; the impact on the natural environment, and on the social environment. We can view the social environment as a subset of the natural environment, so that policies to minimize the negative impacts of tourism development on the environment must give priority to specifically protecting the natural environment.

6. Environmental Dimension of Tourism

The environment might be defined as the multi-dimensional natural and artificial factors that determine human life, and which might be categorized as biological, physical, social and cultural. Humans have always tried to make maximize consumption of natural resources, therefore, human societies created an artificial environment nested in the natural one (Tuna, 2006a).

There are many negative impacts on the natural environment in modern industrial society, mainly health issues resulting from air, water and soil pollution and climate change. These problems impact enormously on the natural, as well as the social, environment. These global environmental problems (Tuna, 2011) of these environmental problems relate to social behavior in modern industrial society (Tuna, 2006b). Tourist activity is one practical forms of social behavior in the industrial society that affects the natural environment.

The degradation of the natural and artificial environments are related to modernization and industrialization. In other words, there is, to some extent, a close association between the above-mentioned environmental degradation and modern lifestyles (Prety & Ward, 2001). Moreover, modern ideology has legitimized the manipulation of natural resources, and, as a result, society has become alienated from the natural environment; in industrial societies the relationship with the natural environment has been especially weakened (Tuna, 2006b). This alienation and degradation of the natural environment reached a peak in the second half the twentieth century, potentially threatening the very existence of human beings (Tuna, 2006b).

Thus, new schools of thought emerged to try and solve these environmental problems and establish a peaceful relationship with the natural environment, culminating in the 'back to nature' movement (Tuna, 2006b). Eco-tourism and the re-exploration of the natural environment within tourism activities can be seen as concrete examples of this 'back to nature' philosophy (Tuna, 2007).

Tourism development as a multi-faceted socio-economic activity is mostly based upon a wider consumption and manipulation of the natural environment. The relationship between tourism development and the natural environment has two main dimensions. On the one hand, natural resources are the main, and most critical, asset of a tourist destination; but on the other hand, the development of tourism can have a very negative impact on the natural environment. Moreover, consumption of natural resources by tourists can actually change the basic structure of the natural environment (Ceylan, 2001; Weale & Williams, 1992).

The tourism potential of a country is related to its social, historical and cultural resources. Tourism is one of the most popular, and economically most valuable, sectors of the 21st century; however, tourism development – especially mass tourism – is not as sensitive to the natural environment in developing countries as in developed ones. Mass tourism especially conflicts with the principles of sustainability (Dindar, 2002), threatening historical, structural and natural resources.

Rapid development and mass tourism seem to disenfranchise the natural environment, making such negative impacts as overcrowding, urban sprawl, destruction of the natural environment, destruction of coastal zones, , overloaded infrastructure (eg sewage system and garbage collection), sea pollution, damage to historical areas, and degeneration of traditional social life. All these further impact on the natural environment in ways like changing land use, loss of agricultural land and fauna and flora, and degradation of the natural environment (Tuna, 2007).

Tourism development consumes many more environmental resources than any other in the economic sector. Natural environmental resources are extremely important to tourism development, partly because they are not renewable, but mainly because over-exploitation will kill tourist interest. The OECD report published in 1980, specifically pointed out four important environmental resources:

1. Wetlands: Rivers, streams, seas, coastal zones and other water resources,
2. Natural areas: Soil, forests and air,
3. Architectural areas: All notable architectural areas are of interest to tourists
4. Social environment: All social activities (Lanquar, 1999).

Tourism is based upon these resources. Environmentally friendly and naturally sensitive tourism development uses natural resources in a more sustainable way, and makes tourism itself more sustainable (Mowforth & Munt, 1998). The protection of natural resources is therefore essential for sustainable tourism development, requiring a high degree of environmental sensitivity.

An increasing demand for environmentally friendly tourism products has become the prime determinant of the planning of holiday destinations, and the before mentioned environmental motivation has become an important economic determinant of tourism entrepreneurs, with private tour operators, local and international authorities, and even local communities becoming more environmentally aware than ever before, because most agree that the future of tourism depends upon sustainable consumption and protection of the natural environment (CE, 1993, p.4).

Even though the demands of tourism have greatly increased since the 1970s, some positive of these demands should be mentioned, for instance the development, management and preservation of natural resources and cultural values of local communities have become major priorities for tourism development over the past few decades. There has also been a

tendency to make these resources marketable factors in tourism development: people want to escape from the stressful working conditions and boring daily life of crowded metropolises, with their overcrowding and traffic, so that they (the tourists) want to spend their holiday in a peaceful atmosphere and a natural environment, which becomes their basic demand (Mowforth & Munt, 1998).

On the other hand though, such rapid tourism development can degrade the natural environment, leading to the loss of sustainability, competitiveness and natural resources, it is likely that global demand for environmentally sensitive tourism is going to increase in the near future, tourists' environmental awareness is increasing, and they more likely to prefer environmentally friendly tourism products than others (CE, 1993). There is thus the danger that development can endanger or damage the very environment that eco-tourists wish to enjoy.

7. Social and Environmental Impacts of Tourism Development in Turkey

There has been enormous progress in the development of tourism in Turkey over the past three decades. While just few hundred thousand foreign tourists had visited Turkey in the early 1970s, the number had risen to more than 26 million by 2008. In addition, the tourism industry has generated nearly US\$22 billion, and hundreds of thousands of jobs in year 2008 (www.kultur.gov.tr). The positive economic impacts of tourism are, of course, enormous (Baki, 1990), with Turkish society enjoying the economic development and socio-economic welfare thus generated (Korzay, 1994; Tavmergen and Oral, 1996; Tosun, 1999). However, there are many unintended and unwanted social and environmental consequences of this development (in Turkey) which are rarely investigated (Göymen, 2000; Tuna, 2007).

There is a wealth of literature evaluating tourism development in Turkey (Bal, 2002; Cevik, 1999; Goymen, 2000; Işıkcı, 2002; Karaman 2002; Korzay, 1994; Kusluvan, 1999; Nurlu & Erdem, 2002; Ozatacan, 1999; Ozdemir, 1998; Ozturk, 2002; Tosun, 1999; Tuna, 2006a; 2007); most of it examines tourism development from an economic perspective, with just a few taking an environmental point of view.

8. Social Impacts of Tourism Development in Turkey

Taking an initial sociological perspective reveals interesting facts about the social structure of tourist towns in Turkey. The first and probably most

important point about the social infrastructure of tourism relates to educational achievement. In general, the level of employers' education in tourism is not very high. One study shows that a third of the workforce only has a basic level, 40% finished high school, and only one fourth has finished higher education (Tuna, 2007). Additionally, most tourism workers have not had any tourism-related training. Much of the workforce has therefore no previous idea about such basic fundamentals of tourism as tourist satisfaction, or the environment and sustainability (Tuna, 2006a, 2007). Low educational achievement is one of the most important problems facing the tourism industry as it directly impinges on tourist satisfaction and the sustainability of tourism development. Improvement in the general level of education thus appears as a basic necessity.

The second point deals with the low awareness of workers and managers of the environmental impact of tourism (Tuna, 2007); this is also related to their generally low educational achievement

There are, of course, many positive and negative impacts of the development of tourism in Turkey: as mentioned, most of the research is positive (Goymen, 2000; Isıkcı, 2002; Korzay, 1994; Tosun, 1999); indeed, Turkish society has a generally favourable attitude towards tourism development (Tuna, 2007).

Even so, the public is ambivalent regarding some of the socio-cultural changes brought about by tourism. For instance, the same group of people both approved and disapproved of the dissolution of strong family ties, and the loosening of social solidarity (Tuna, 2007). On the one hand, Turkish society disapproves of the dissolution of strong family ties and social solidarity, because these values are perceived as a distinctive features of traditional societies like Turkey's. On the other hand, these changes are accepted as indicators of individual freedom, modern family life and the modern lifestyle: evidence that as Turkish society is modernizing, in other words (Giddens, 1990, 1991; Tuna, 2007). This might be acknowledged as an indicator of a dual social structure, or change from a traditional social structure to a modern one (Harrison, 1995), since tourism is a main agent of social change (Apostolopoulos, 1996; Cohen, 1996; Dann & Cohen, 1996).

However, these social changes have not been easily accepted by many individuals. For example, traditional institutions like the family structure are being weakened, but counter-institutions like community clubs, youth clubs, family clubs, veteran clubs and advisory boards, with their associated value systems have not yet been established or institutionalized synchronically as major elements of modern society. Because social control mechanisms have become ineffective, individuals in society are

lacking norms and values, and have even become alienated. These kinds of problems facing Turkish society have been exacerbated by the rapid increase in income as a result of tourism development. The relationships between family members, especially parents and children, are dissolving. There is a growing trend towards alcoholism, drug usage, and underage sexual intercourse that is unacceptable in traditional society (Tuna, 2006a). All these social changes could be seen as the socio-cultural cost of too rapid tourism development in a traditional society (Apostolopoulos, 1996; Cohen, 1996; Dann, 1996a).

The problems caused by the erosion of traditional social values, and the lack of compensatory modern values, are obvious. Community consultation centres should be established in order to resolve them, and local government, occupational associations and non-governmental organizations should take the lead in establishing these organizations. Additionally, universities could play an advisory role in institutionalizing these consultancy services.

9. Environmental Impacts of Tourism Development in Turkey

Most of the tourism resorts in Turkey have been established in productive agricultural areas, or on the coastal zones of the Mediterranean and the Aegean regions. Huge areas of productive farmland have been swallowed up by the development of new tourist facilities. Turkey's agricultural potential has thus been decreased (Cağatay et al., 2001; Dindar, 2002). Tourism development has also negatively affected some archeological and historical sites (Akurgal, 1998). And this all conflicts with the sustainability principles mentioned above (Tuna, 2007).

Tourism development has also affected urban and rural structures, especially in the coastal areas. Small agricultural and fishing towns have grown into large tourist centres over the past 20-30 years; wetlands, forests, lakes, rivers and seas have deteriorated; building construction expanded enormously, many tourist facilities and houses being built in unsuitably small areas and the "carrying capacity" of coastal zones has been exceeded for this period. This over-intensive construction has resulted in many infrastructure problems like insufficient roads and inefficient water supply and sewage systems (this last itself creating further pollution of the sea and fresh water supply). The huge funds needed to correct all this are unavailable. And the over-intensive urbanization in the tourist city centers has also created parking problems, air pollution, esthetic pollution and noise pollution (Tuna, 2007).

So, to make tourism structures more sustainable, strict control over new development in tourism areas is a fundamental necessity. Sustainability should be accepted as the major principle of tourism development and building permits rigidly controlled to prevent over-intensive construction in city centres. New tourism development and rehabilitation plans should be permitted in tourism areas only if it is necessary. Some tourism areas have already been announced in specially protected areas in Turkey, but because of the inefficient control mechanisms of relevant institutions, and lack of cooperation among the public and private stake holders such as local governments, local branches of central government, NGOs and tourism organizations, protection is not being effectively applied. Proper cooperation among these institutions should therefore initially be institutionalized. These areas should then be strictly protected for sustainable tourist development under the aegis of specially designed and applied general, regional and local environmental protection plans. The objectives of those protection plans should be: prevention of sea pollution, prevention of algae and dead seeds in the sea, crime control and prevention, prevention of high population density and overcrowding, prevention of noise pollution, distinguishing tourist areas from non-tourist areas, distinguishing rural areas, prevention of over-construction and over-urbanization in tourist areas, and the restoration of negatively urbanized areas.

10. Conclusion

Tourism is one the most important economic inputs in Turkey, with faster development seen in the industry over the past few decades. Tens of millions of foreign tourists are visiting, hundreds of thousands are employed in the industry, and billions of US\$ revenues are being generated. The economic impact of tourism development is enormous, and Turkish society enjoys that the wealth generated from it, which has improved Turkish society's social and economic well-being. Over the past few decades there has been investment in roads, water and sewage systems, etc. in the affected regions.

However, there have been many unwanted and unintended social and environmental impacts of tourism development. The basic features of the traditional social structure, such as strong family ties and strong social solidarity have been weakened. Juvenile delinquency, alcoholism, drug abuse, some petty crime, and under-age sexual intercourse have increased among the younger population, but new social institutions such as family, youth and retirement consultation centres have not yet been established.

Traditional social institutions have evaporated, but modern social institutions have not yet replaced them. As a result, Turkish society lacks norms and values. These social impacts might be seen as the social cost of rapid tourist development in Turkey.

Other major impacts of fast development have been on the natural environment as the scenery in coastal areas has been enormously changed; water, sea, and land pollution, degradation of the natural environment, over-intensive population growth, and loss of countryside and agricultural areas are all major environmental problems that have arisen in tourism areas. These have negatively affected not only the competitiveness of the tourism industry, but also the productivity of the agriculture industry. Taking necessary measurements and initiating appropriate policies are therefore major requirements to prevent the negative social and environmental impacts of tourism development in Turkey. The policies of tourism development should accord with the sustainability principle that natural and human resources are not only for the present generation to enjoy, but should be preserved for future generations as well. In particular, the establishment of national, regional, and local Environmental Management Plans appears as the basic necessity for sustainable tourism development in Turkey.

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CHAPTER TWO

I WANT THIS RAMSES' STATUE: MOTIVES AND MEANINGS OF TOURIST SOUVENIRS

ALAIN DECROP AND JULIE MASSET

Abstract

This chapter aims to better understand tourists' motivations to buy souvenirs while travelling or vacationing as well as the meanings, values and symbols that underlie the consumption of such souvenirs. We only consider the material souvenirs, i.e., all the objects that have been purchased, received, or picked up from the destination. For this research goal, we conducted a qualitative interpretive study using in-depth interview, participant observation, and projective techniques. A total of nineteen Belgian informants have been interviewed and observed at home. Grounded theory, which consists in building a local theory through an inductive and logical process, has been used to analyse and interpret the data. Emerging findings provide a series of motives for buying and consuming material souvenirs, i.e., remembrance, extension of the vacation experience, decoration, functionality, exercising an economic power, and gift-giving. The analysis of related meanings leads to a new typology of four types of souvenirs, i.e., the symbolic souvenir, the hedonistic souvenir, the utilitarian souvenir, and the souvenir as a gift. Finally, we propose managerial actions to makers and retailers of tourist souvenirs.

1. Introduction

Almost everyone is involved in shopping activities while travelling or vacationing. Tourism shopping refers to “the expenditure of tangible goods by tourists either for consumption in the destination (excluding food

and beverage items) or for export to their home countries/regions” (Timothy, 2005, p. 69). Timothy (2005) contends that shopping is part of the three favourite holiday activities. Several recent examples support such an assertion. During 2007, the Tourism British Board established that the average inbound traveller to UK respectively took part in shopping, pubs, and socializing with locals (VisitBritain, 2009). In 2008, holiday visitors were the most likely to eat in restaurants (83%), to enjoy visiting famous monuments and buildings (65%) and to shop for souvenirs (62%) (VisitBritain, 2009). Tourism shopping was also a popular activity among the visitors visiting friends or relatives (39%). Moreover, Malaysians were the most likely to undertake the activity of shopping for souvenirs while the visitors from Ireland were the less likely to undertake it. In 2009, the International Trade Administration Office of Travel and Tourism Industries (U.S. Department of Commerce) identified shopping as the principal activity (87%) experienced by overseas visitors while staying in the United States. The other activities are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1: Activities Experienced by all overseas visitors* while in the U.S.**

Activity participation while in the U.S. (2009)	
Shopping	87%
Dining Out	86%
Sightseeing in Cities	56%
Historical Places	45%
National Parks	39%
Amusement/Theme Parks	39%
Visiting Small Towns	38%
Cultural Heritage Sites	32%
Touring Countryside	31%
Casinos/Gambling	27%
Art Gallery/Museum	26%
Guided Tours	24%

* Overseas visitors to the U.S. do not include visitors from Canada or Mexico.

** Multiple response question. Table may add to more than 100%.

Source: International Trade Administration Office of Travel and Tourism Industries, *Survey of international air travelers*, <http://tourism.visitcalifornia.com/>

Table 2: Tourist spending for shopping from 2002 to 2007 (domestic and international tourists) in millions US\$.

Country	2002	2007	% of growth
United States	77,892	106,962	37.3
China	35,756	56,129	57.0
Mexico	11,640	21,880	88.0
France	15,928	21,192	33.0
Japan	17,005	19,852	16.7
Spain	8,174	15,971	95.4
Germany	7,334	9,800	33.6
United Kingdom	7,394	9,189	24.3
Italy	5,923	8,767	48.0
Sweden	6,448	8,038	24.7
Thailand	3,546	7,318	106.4
Austria	3,833	6,619	72.7
Saudi Arabia	2,472	6,133	148.1
Australia	3,767	5,443	44.5
Hong Kong, China	3,247	5,295	63.1
South Africa	2,750	5,001	81.8
Egypt	4,767	5,482	15.0
Canada	2,381	3,971	66.8
Turkey	1,774	3,397	91.5
Finland	2,138	2,883	34.9

Source: Marianne Dodelet, *Le magasinage à la recherche de la bonne affaire, Le profil des Canadiens au Québec*, Réseau de Veille en Tourisme, 2009.

Moreover, in recent studies, researchers have identified shopping as a major driver of destination visits (Hanqin & Lam, 1999; Horneman, Carter, Wei, & Ruys, 2002; Origet du Cluzeau & Viceriat, 2009).

Finally, tourism shopping represents an important business as illustrated by Table 2. U.S., European, or Australian tourists spend between 30 and 37% of their total travel budget on shopping for different consumer goods, including local crafts, antiques, apparel, household goods, memorabilia, and gifts (Timothy, 2005). Chinese and Taiwanese tourists devote still a larger share of their budget (up to 61%) to shopping (Timothy, 2005).

In France and more precisely in Paris, shopping represents one of the main tourist motivations to visit and one of the principal activities during the stay for more than half of the tourists. Some tourists are more *shopping addicts* than others: Chinese (62%), Japanese (62%), American (55%) and Russian (52%) tourists pretend to shop in Paris. As Figure 1 illustrates, an international leisure tourist spends 23% of his/her daily budget on shopping. In contrast, his/her spending represents respectively 38% for accommodation, 19% for eating and 13% for visits while transportation in Paris and vital purchase account for 4% and 3%.

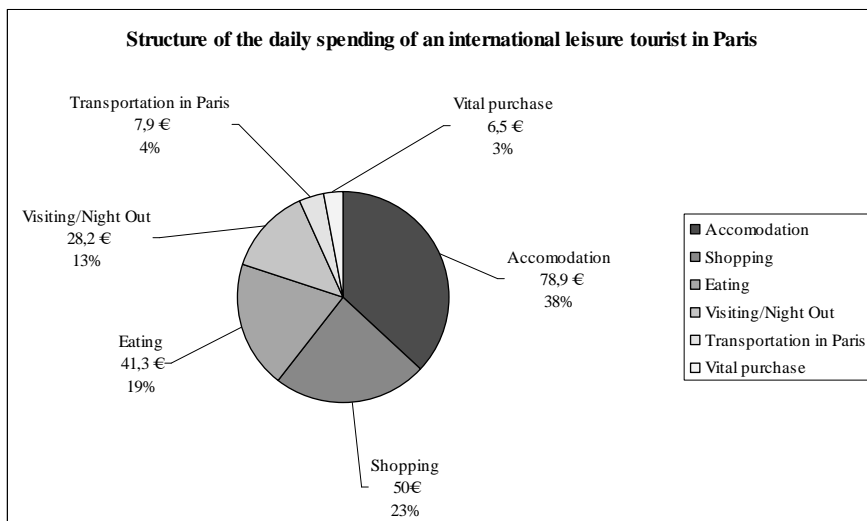


Figure 1: Structure of the daily spending of an international leisure tourist in Paris.
Source: Paul Roll, *Paris, Capitale de la mode, de la culture et du shopping*, Espaces Tourisme et Loisirs, 2009.

The analysis of the spending (per trip) of an international tourist visiting the U.S. reveals other significant figures as Table 3 emphasizes. His/her spending on lodging and food/beverages oriented to respectively 28.6% and 20% while the expenses for transportation in the U.S., entertainment and at the airport assessed to 15.1%, 10.1% and 1.5%. Beside this, the importance of gift and souvenirs in the tourist spending is highlighted. In fact, in 2009, an international tourist visiting the U.S. spent 17.1% of his budget on gifts and souvenirs.

Table 3: Spending of all overseas visitors* while in the U.S. – 2009.

Spending by Category (US\$ Per Visitor/Trip)	
Lodging	660
Food/Beverages	463
Gifts/Souvenirs	395
Transportation in the U.S.	348
Entertainment	234
Expenses at the Airport	34
Other	174
Total Spending Per Visitor/Trip	2308

* Overseas visitors to the U.S. do not include visitors from Canada or Mexico.

Source: International Trade Administration Office of Travel and Tourism Industries, *Survey of international air travelers*, <http://tourism.visitcalifornia.com/>

In brief tourism shopping has become a major driver for many tourism places and for the profitability of the retail trade (Swanson & Horridge, 2006).

This chapter focuses on one type of tourist expenditures, i.e., souvenirs. Cohen defines souvenirs as “material objects which serve as reminders of people, places, events or experiences of significance in a person's biography” (Cohen, 2000, p. 548). Gordon (1986) adds that souvenirs serve as “a concrete reminder of an extra-ordinary experience” (p. 137). The work of Anderson and Littrell (1995) offers an additional insight into the definition of a souvenir by contrasting the intangibility of the (extraordinary) tourism experience and the tangibility of the souvenir: “a tangible symbol and reminder of an experience that differs from daily routine and that otherwise would remain intangible, such as memories of people, places, and events” (Anderson & Littrell, 1995, p. 328). In this study, we consider material souvenirs only, i.e., all the objects that have

been purchased, received or picked up at the vacation destination. Intangible memories in vacationers' mind and the photographs taken during the vacation period are excluded from our scope.

2. Literature Review

Levy (1959, p. 118) was one of the first to assume that "people buy products not only for what they can do, but also for what they mean." In their reflections on the "Consumer Behaviour Odyssey", Wallendorf, Belk, and Heisley (1988, p. 529) suggest that "informants often regarded some of their possessions as more than merely utilitarian things, i.e., possessions held deep meanings in their lives". In Wallendorf and Arnould's (1988) study on favourite objects' meanings, 60% of their American sample indicated an object as favourite not because of its functional attributes, but because it was a "reminder of a friend or family member, a vacation trip, or an event in the respondent's past" (Wallendorf & Arnould, 1988, p. 537). In summary, the meanings attached to special possessions do not mainly stem from utilitarian or hedonistic aspects but from symbolic person-, event-, or place-attachments. For Belk (1988), the development of such deep meanings depends on a series of conditions related to the object's acquisition (e.g., an enjoyable travel experience, an accomplishment, a gift received from important others, a family heritage etc).

Wallendorf et al. (1988) identify four themes borrowed to sociologists and anthropologists in order to understand the process through which possessions are invested with deep meanings: extended-self, fetishism, anthropomorphism versus totemism, and the sacred-profane distinction. For authors like MacCracken (1988) and Belk (1988), people value things that contain a part of themselves, objects that belong to the person's self, possessions that reflect their identity. Such an *extended-self* allows individuals to transcend their existence as biological beings and to assign unique meanings, often sacred, to their possessions. To sum up, possessions contribute to define who we are: "the things that surround us are inseparable of what we are" (Csikszentmihalyi & Rochberg-Halton, 1981, p. 16). Therefore, the loss of cherished possessions is often qualified by consumers as *tragedy* or *violation of self* (Wallendorf & Arnould, 1988).

The second helping theme, fetishism, can be defined as an "extreme attention or devotion to certain classes of possessions" (Wallendorf et al., 1988, p. 529); fetishist behaviour can be depicted as addictive or compulsive (Wallendorf et al., 1988; Holbrook, 1988). For example,

collecting behaviour (e.g., a collection of Mickey Mouse memorabilia) can be considered as an addiction if adding objects to the collection represents a *fix* (Belk, Wallendorf, Sherry, Holbrook, & Roberts, 1988).

The anthropomorphism's theme consists in the projection of human attributes onto possessions (e.g., an inanimate object or a pet). In contrast, with totemism, personal characteristics derived from the possession(s) are assigned to humans (e.g., in the Chinese zodiac calendar the monkey confers its malicious, lucid, social, and intellectual qualities to the person born in that particular year).

Finally, most of the deep meaning in special possessions is derived from their sacred status: "Sacred objects are seen as mystical, powerful, and deserving of reverential behaviour, as opposed to the ordinary, common, and mundane behaviour accorded to profane commodities" (Wallendorf et al., 1988, p. 529).

Csikszentmihalyi and Rochberg-Halton's findings (1981) about the meanings attached to special household artefacts assert that these objects offer, for the owners, the possibility of a symbolic connection with their environment through a differentiation with others ("special objects" like trophies, cars etc) or via an integration with others (e.g., family photographs, plants etc). Finally, possessions can enhance self-confidence and express the self-concept to others (Belk, 1988; Wallendorf & Arnould, 1988).

2.1 Motives for Buying Souvenirs

Butler (1991) identifies four major reasons, related to the type of merchandise (e.g. crafts, local materials, clothes, bargains, replicas etc.) and the destination, for tourists to shop: prestige, economic savings, self-esteem, and nostalgia. A number of other motivations were highlighted by Timothy (2005): novelty-seeking (i.e., the tourist's quest to find new, unique, and unusual shopping opportunities), functional needs (i.e., purchasing objects for utilitarian purposes at home or at the destination), aesthetics, boredom/excess time, gift for those stayed at home, and altruism (i.e., help a cause with the sales profit of souvenirs, e.g., a national park). The insightful contact with craftsmen and the enhancement of a personal collection at home can be viewed as motives for buying souvenirs as well (Timothy, 2005).

From an interpretive perspective, the two major motivations for buying tourist souvenirs are extension of the travel experience and remembrance. On the one hand, tourists often make sure they come back from the visited destinations with souvenirs because it validates and extends their travel

experience in time and space (Brown, 1992; MacCannell, 1976; Swanson, 2004; Timothy, 2005). On the other hand, souvenirs can be used as reminders of persons, places visited, and special events related to their trip (Anderson & Littrell, 1995; Gordon, 1986; Graburn, 1989; Littrell, 1990; Littrell et al., 1994; Smith, 1979; Swanson, 2004; Timothy, 2005; Wallendorf & Arnould, 1988). For other authors, tourist souvenirs help to cross the boundary between an extraordinary sphere and an ordinary one and support the transition from the unique and sacred (leisure) experience to a mundane and profane (work) existence (Belk, 1997; Belk, Wallendorf, & Sherry, 1991; Gordon, 1986; Graburn, 1989; MacCannell, 1976).

“Tourism allows individuals to move from the profane to the sacred. People cannot stay indefinitely in a sacred state; however, they can have a tangible piece of the extraordinary (a souvenir) to remind them of the experience” (Swanson, 2004, p. 364). Anderson and Littrell (1995) offer an additional insight into these ideas of boundary crossing and transition by contrasting the intangibility of the tourism experience and the tangibility of the souvenir: “a tangible symbol and reminder of an experience that differs from daily routine and that otherwise would remain intangible, such as memories of people, places, and events” (Anderson & Littrell, 1995, p. 328).

A number of studies have sought to explore the influence of particular socio-demographic variables (e.g., age, gender, culture/nationality) on souvenir purchase behaviour (Anderson & Littrell, 1995, 1996; Kim & Littrell, 2001; Littrell, 1990; Littrell et al., 1994; Turner & Reisinger, 2001; Swanson & Horridge, 2002; Timothy, 2005; Oh, Cheng, Lehto, & O’Leary, 2004). For example, Littrell et al. (1994) report gender and age differences in the development of tourist profiles based on their souvenir buying and tourism styles (i.e., preferred activities). Turner and Reisinger (2001) also mention significant differences in tourists’ shopping list as to gender (males-females) and age (young-old) while other socio-demographic variables show no influence. In contrast, for Anderson and Littrell (1996), age is not important in determining travel and souvenir-purchasing habits, and for Kim and Littrell (2001, p. 648) “only marital status was significantly associated with purchase intention” of souvenirs for self or others. Culture and nationality may have an influence on tourist shopping behaviour as well. For example, Japanese, Korean, and Taiwanese tourists have a higher propensity to shop while travelling (Timothy, 2005).