

**LOCAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE TOURISM  
DEVELOPMENT PROCESS: THE CASE OF URGUP IN TURKEY**

**BY**

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for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

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***Dedication***

***For my mother, father, wife, my sons F. Tufan and Y. Enes, and in memory of my  
beloved brother Tufan***

## ABSTRACT

This research was an attempt to understand the concept of community participation as a tourism development approach. Four main objectives were established; 1) to examine the current practice of, and potential for community participation in the tourism development process in Urgup, 2) to determine views of interest groups on various issues of community participation, 3) to explore the expectations of the local community from the tourism development; and 4) to develop policy suggestions to facilitate community participation in the tourism development process (TDP).

This study has adopted an inductive research approach, rather than a deductive one. The pre-determined research objectives have led and structured the study. Both theoretical discussions and empirical field research are employed to achieve the pre-determined objectives of the study.

Several general conclusions are drawn from this study: 1) There is a theoretical gap in the knowledge of participatory tourism development which may be closed from an understanding gained in other community participation areas such as health, housing, etc. 2) Many local tourist destinations are at different levels of development; thus, it may be naive to claim that one form of participatory tourism development approach will provide a universal model. 3) This study has revealed that there are three main groups of limitations to the participatory tourism development approach. These limitations can be classified as operational limitations, structural limitations and cultural limitations. 4) Implementation of a participatory tourism development approach requires the re-structuring of the public administration system, and re-distribution of power and wealth, for which hard political choices and logical decisions are a sine qua non. 5) Adoption of contemporary approaches to tourism development emerged and refined in developed countries is not a panacea for poor planning in developing countries that do not have the basis of the pre-industrial phase experienced last century in Europe and North America. Thus, a cautionary approach is needed to follow what developed countries are doing in the context of tourism development.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATION AND SYMBOLS**

App.	Appendix
CP	Community Participation
CPDP	Community Participation in the Development Process
CPTDP	Community Participation in the Tourism Development Process
DBA	Doctor of Business Administration
EIU	The Economist Intelligence Unit
FYDPs	Five Years Development Plans
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
IBRD	International Bank of Re-construction and Development
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ISI	Import Substitution Industrialization
KAPTIB	Kapadokya Otelciler Birligi (Cappadocia Association of Tourism Operators)
M	Mean
Mdn	Median
MRR	Ministry of Reconstruction and Resettlement
MT	Ministry of Tourism
NATO	The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NGOs	Non-governmental Organisations
NIC	Newly Industrialised Country
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
SEEs	State Economic Enterprises
SPO	State Planning Organisation
TDP	Tourism Development Process
TGNA	Turkish Grand National Assembly
TL	Turkish Lira

<b>TUREM</b>	<b>Turizm Egitim Merkezi (Tourism Education Centre)</b>
<b>TYD</b>	<b>Turizm Yatirimcilar Dernegi (Association of Tourism Investors)</b>
<b>UK</b>	<b>The United Kingdom</b>
<b>UN</b>	<b>United Nations</b>
<b>UNRISD</b>	<b>The United Nations Research Institute for Social Development</b>
<b>US\$</b>	<b>United States Dollar</b>
<b>USA</b>	<b>United States of America</b>
<b>USSR</b>	<b>United Soviet Socialist Republic</b>
<b>WB</b>	<b>The World Bank</b>
<b>WCED</b>	<b>World Commission on Environment and Development</b>
<b>WHO</b>	<b>The World Health Organisation</b>
<b>WTO</b>	<b>World Tourism Organisation</b>

# CHAPTER - 1

## INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

### **Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a general introduction to this study. Firstly, the chapter give a brief background to and presents the research problem. After explaining the objectives of the study, it states the significance of the study and gives a summary of the research methodology employed. Finally, the chapter ends with a brief outline of the whole thesis.

### **Background of the Study**

During the post World War II period, tourism demand had rapidly increased and tourism has become a world-wide phenomenon. For example, in 1995 567 million international tourist trips were made world-wide (World Tourism Organisation (WTO), 1996). Total world arrivals in the year 2000 are projected as 660.9 million and with an average annual increase of between 3.5 to 3.6 percent. Arrivals are estimated as 937.1 million in 2010 (WTO, 1994 and WTO, 1997). Such a scale of travel ushered in economic benefits for various countries alongside environmental, political and socio-cultural impacts. Other benefits including foreign currency earnings and the creation of employment opportunities.

Not surprisingly, this post war tourism boom has drawn the attention of many less developed and developing countries (Jenkins, 1991, 1992, 1995) and tourism as one of the growing industries of the world economy has enticed many entrepreneurs and governments of various countries to invest in the tourism industry. As a result, US\$321,466 billion was generated as international tourism receipts in 1994 (WTO, 1995). Moreover, tourism generates more than US\$3.4 trillion in gross output, that consists of 10.9 percent of world gross product, and the travel and tourism sector has the largest capacity to create employment opportunities by employing 212 million people world-wide. This employment figure represents 1 in 9 employed in the world economy. What is more important may be that it is projected that tourism will continue to grow at a faster rate than the average growth of the world economy, and this ensures its position as the largest industry in the world economy (the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (1995).

However, it was argued that many governments and entrepreneurs invested in the tourism industry without considering whether it was a viable tourism product or the spillover effects of tourism development (Murphy, 1985). In this context, many

scholars of tourism studies have contended that tourism was developed during the last four or five decades in most areas of the world as an unplanned activity (Seth, 1985, Pearce, 1989, Inskip, 1991, Tosun, 1996, and Tosun and Jenkins, 1998). In fact, the tourism industry was guided by many types and different scales of plans and development approaches at various levels in different parts of the world, but, as Murphy (1985) emphasised, the development and planning approaches to tourism were entirely myopic. Historically, tourism development planning has been studied to concentrate either on the physical requirements or on the economic considerations. Therefore most studies for tourism planning contained serious shortcomings (Baud-Bovy and Lawson, 1977 and Murphy, 1983). According to Getz (1984), tourism development planning was not prepared systematically until the 1960s. Apparently, ad hoc planning for tourism development was undertaken in a number of tourist destinations.

Consequently, it has been argued that there is the need for a changed approach to tourism development and planning, a view supported by numerous tourism impact and resident attitude studies conducted with destination residents (Keogh, 1990). In this context, Tosun and Jenkins (1998) have argued that the tourism development approach has continuously evolved over time, in which five main stages, not separate and distinctive, were determined. These stages are: (1) unplanned tourism development era; (2) beginning of partly supply oriented tourism planning period; (3) entirely supply oriented tourism planning; (4) market or demand oriented tourism development planning and (5) contemporary tourism development approach period.

### **Research Problems**

The noted tourism development approaches are not totally exclusive and may overlap each other. This research puts community participation in the tourism development process (TDP) at the centre stages of these contemporary tourism development approaches. Community participation in the TDP has been studied and recognised as a contemporary approach to the tourism development process (D'Amore, 1983, Getz, 1983, Murphy, 1983, 1985, 1988, Haywood, 1988, Blank, 1989, Keogh, 1990, Woodley, 1993, McIntyre and Inskip, 1993, Harssel, 1994, Inskip, 1994, Pearce, 1994, Simmons, 1994, Brohman, 1996, Lankford et al, 1996, Pearce et al, 1996), but these studies, in general, have a number of defects. These shortcomings are:




(1) to large extent, these studies have remained at a normative level, and have been descriptive or even speculative rather than empirical and realistic in the context of developing countries;

- (2) moreover, they also lack of a sound theoretical base and framework, thus there seems to be a conceptual vacuum in these studies;
- (3) these studies approached community participation by usually taking into account the conditions in developed countries, and thus have developed arguments for the concept as if it had universal validity;
- (4) therefore, they are too general to a specific destination regarding community participation in the TDP developing countries;
- (5) as a result, recommended policies in general terms regarding community participation in the TDP may not be valid for developing countries;
- (6) they do not have much connection with the relevant studies and practices in other sectors such as health, transport, education and agriculture; and thus they have developed myopic views and narrow perspectives over the participatory tourism development approach.

The above facts have stimulated the author to research community participation in the TDP at local level in a developing country: the chosen location is Urgup in Turkey.

### **Research Objectives**

In the light of the research needs, the study has the following main objectives:

-  (1) to examine current practice and the potential for community participation in the tourism development process in Urgup;
-  (2) to determine the views of interest groups on various issues of community participation such as barriers to, expected nature of, and strategies for community participation in the TDP;
- (3) to find out the expectations of the local community from tourism development in Urgup; and
-  (4) to develop policy suggestions for community participation in the TDP.

Urgup as a small tourist destination (town) in Turkey is chosen for the case study for three reasons. First, Urgup has experienced a rapid growth in international tourism since 1980. The author noted that tourism development has taken place under the control of central government and expatriates, without taking into account local people's concerns. Second, it was thought that the familiarity of the author with the country and the destination would be helpful during the field research. Third, it was

assumed that the research would develop a model for community participation in the tourism development process, which would help policy makers.

### **Significance of the Research**

Community participation as an approach to tourism development has been presented as a superior development tool, and even as a panacea for the problems of the tourism development unfortunately without taking into account conditions in developing countries (Getz, 1983, Murphy, 1983, 1985, 1988, Haywood, 1988, Ritchie, 1988, Blank, 1989, Murphy, 1992, Harssel, 1994 and Brohman, 1996). Examining the concept of community participation as a contemporary approach to the tourism development process should be useful in a number of ways. First, a multi-disciplinary literature review provides an important theoretical framework for future research. Second, analysis of barriers to participatory tourism development approach could help the Turkish tourism authorities to take into account those barriers so as to develop a realistic policies regarding participatory tourism development. Third, the proposed policy recommendations will guide policy makers. Finally, some lessons can be drawn from this study which are useful for other developing countries.

### **Methodology**

Both theoretical discussion and an empirical field study was employed to achieve the objectives. It may be useful to state at the outset that the finding of the empirical (field) study will be primarily used and interpreted in terms of tourism development and its policy implication rather than in relation to assessing the social impacts of tourism on the host community.

**Theoretical Discussion:** The theoretical part consisted of desk research to acquire general knowledge on (1) the notion of the community and the scope of community participation, (2) arguments for community participation in the TDP, (3) barriers to community participation in the TDP, and (4) strategies for promoting community participation in the TDP. A conceptual framework based on the literature was developed

**Empirical Investigation:** With regard to the empirical study three questionnaire were designed, namely the local community's, the local bodies' and the

✱

central bodies' survey. Unstructured personal interviews with representatives of the private sector in the tourism industry and members of the local bodies were conducted. Detailed information on the survey methodology has been given in the Research Methodology Chapter.

**Analysis of Secondary Data:** The empirical study required an extensive search of secondary data and documented government sources. These data were valuable in trying to analyse tourism growth, tourism development approaches and policies at national and local level with specific reference to Urgup, and the economic importance of tourism in the Turkish economy.

**Documented Sources:** Additionally, the State Planning Organisation, Ministry of Tourism, Ministry of Interior, and Local Tourism Bodies in Urgup were personally visited for information regarding: (1) the tourism development process in Turkey and Urgup; (2) public policies and institutions involved in the management of tourism; (3) problems of Turkish tourism development; (4) socio-economic stability in Urgup.

### **Organisation of the Study**

The organisation of the chapters is as follows:

Chapter 1: provides a general introduction to the study dealing with the background, objectives, significance of the study, and the methodology used. The chapter ends with a broad outline of the entire thesis.

Chapter 2: examines related concepts such as community, community participation, approaches to community participation and typology of community participation in general by reviewing an extensive multi-disciplinary literature. Indeed, this chapter reviews literature on community participation in other sectors such as education, health, agriculture, transportation, etc. in order to bring about a better conceptual clarity and drawing lessons for community participation in the tourism development process.



Chapter 3: reviews and critiques the literature on community participation in the tourism development process. It analyses arguments for, barriers to, and strategies for promoting community participation in this process.

Chapter 4: gives a general profile of Turkey and tourism development in Turkey. Brief information about geography, climate, history, population, culture and an overview of the public administration system and the Turkish economy are given. It examines tourism growth in Turkey, role of international tourism in the Turkish economy and the tourism development approach in Turkey.

Chapter 5: explains the research design, sampling, questionnaire development, administration of field work and the specific statistical techniques used for analysing the collected data from the field work

Chapter 6: deals with tourism development at the local level in Urgup. After giving a general history and an analysis of cultural features, geography and socio-economic structure of Urgup, it looks at tourism supply and demand in Urgup.

Chapter 7: is devoted to the analysis of the findings of the field research.

Chapter 8: will summarise the research findings and attempt to examine additional problems areas which have emerged. Some policy recommendations are made.

Chapter 9: will discuss the contributions and limitations of the study. Then, a number of conclusions will be offered and some suggestion for future research.

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## CHAPTER - 2

### UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

#### **Introduction**

The main aim of this chapter is to provide conceptual clarity to guide the study. What de Vaus (1996: 48) said in this context cannot be ignored. He stated that

Concepts are terms which people create for the purpose of communication and efficiency. ... It is up to us first define what we mean by the concept and then develop indicators for the concept as it has been defined. By their very nature definitions are neither true nor false: they are only more useful or less useful. ... The view that concepts do not have real or set meanings can lead to conceptual anarchy, a problem with no entirely satisfactory solution. The most practical action is to make it very clear how we have defined a concept and to keep this definition clearly in mind when drawing conclusions and comparing the findings with those of other researchers.

Within the guidance of the above quotation, this chapter will examine and explain relevant conceptual issues. First, it will analyse a range of definitions of the term 'community' from a multi-disciplinary point of views. Based upon this conceptual framework a working definition of community will be developed for the purpose of this study. Second, this chapter will explain in brief the antecedents and emergence of community participation. Third, it will attempt to clarify the concept of community participation. Fourth, it will elaborate approaches to a definition of community participation. Fifth, the chapter will provide a brief account of a typology of community participation as a concept in development studies. Finally, it will give a summary of the key points made in the chapter.

#### **Definitions of Community**

In the course of researching community involvement in the sectoral development process, it seems quite natural to ask for a definition of the concept 'community'. Most scholars have emphasised that community is a difficult term to define (Hillery, 1955; Stacey, 1969; Scherer, 1972 and Thorns, 1976). 'Yet all

attempts to define it appear doomed to failure' (Ladd, 1959:269). That is to say that 'in spite of constant usage, community remains an untidy, confusing, and difficult term' (Scherer, 1972:1). Selznick (1994:357) has also advanced the argument that community is a difficult term to define, and stated that 'many writers (and readers) are troubled by the fact that the idea of community is so elusive'. Cairn (1959:25) has supported the idea that 'community is one of those general ideas difficult to define'. Inconsistency and ambiguity of the concept of community has plagued sociology like much of its other basic terminology. Indeed, the sociologist uses some words which have so many shades of meaning that it is not easy to explain them with any accuracy. The word community is in this class (Poplin, 1979). Some other sociologists have stated that the term 'community' has been studied by sociologist for more than two hundred years, yet they have not developed a satisfactory definition in sociological terms. Most sociologists have defined community by weighing in with their own ideas of what a community should consist of. This has created more confusion (Bell and Newby, 1971).

In addition, Ladd (1959) has discussed that it is very difficult, if not impossible, to explain the differences between an aggregation of persons which is a community and one which is not. Such differentiation will inevitably be either so narrow as not to involve many types of community or so ambiguous and broad that any aggregation of individuals whatsoever could be called a community. The concept of community is essentially an indefinable entity and therefore is subject to personal adaptation by researchers.

There is usually disagreement among members of any discipline on the nature of the issues that they examine. As previously mentioned, the concept of community is not an exception from this general statement (Hillery 1955). The disagreement on the term, 'community', has reached a point where some scholars have suggested not to use and define the term in order to avoid further confusion and conflicts. 'The various groups have often avoided defining what they have meant by 'community; preferring to use it as a label to cover their particular attitude to or activities within the urban environment' (Thorns, 1976:15). Scherer (1972:1) stated that ' The result is that no one is sure what is meant by such vague phrases as the word community...The most of definitions provided more often confuse than clarify'. Stacey (1969) has pointed out

that it is not definite that the term community alludes to a beneficial notion since confusion still exists to govern the uses of the term. In fact, 'The many popular and technical meanings of the word community are so confused and confusing that it is tempting to avoid using it altogether' (Gottschalk, 1975:100).

It may now be clear that one of the most important tasks in this study is to find a working definition for the term 'community', which may guide the research, and remove misunderstanding and confusion. In order to achieve this, some of the definitions will be examined and the concept of community will be evaluated to fulfil the purposes of this study.

It may be the easiest and also the most efficient way to look at a dictionary in order to define a concept. The Collins English Dictionary (1993) defines the word community in three different ways. First, the word 'community' means that 'all the people who live in a particular area or place'. Second, 'a particular group of people or part of a society who are all alike in some way'. Finally, 'friendship that is created and maintained between people or groups who are different in some way'. The first definition emphasises an aggregation of individuals and the territorial unit as a geographical element. The second one drives attention to similarities between members of a community. More importantly, it may imply that community is a part of a society rather than society itself. That is to say that community may be smaller than a society, and, in fact, communities constitute a society. Finally, the dictionary conceives community as the synonym of the word association in terms of creation of friendship between people or groups who are different in one way. As can be noticed in the last two meanings of the word 'community', the territorial unit as an element of community, which may mirror that a group of people who have something to share with each others could create and maintain friendship and various transaction by using technology such as electronic mail and other means of tele-communication without sharing an identical geographical unit. Though the dictionary gives a general view about what the word 'community' means, it is not specific enough to achieve our purposes.

A Dictionary of Sociology edited by Mitchell (1968:32) explains the concept as follows: 'Originally the term community denoted a collectivity of people who occupied a geographical area; people who were together engaged in economic and

political activities and who essentially constituted a self-governing social unit with some common values and experiencing feelings of belonging to one another. Examples are a city, a town, a village or parish'. It continues to explain that the idea of community has become a significant goal which people may want to achieve, that is raised by the greater mobility of people in modern industrial societies and the widespread use of mass media communications. Thus today, industrial concerns are not limited by local areas; they spread over many countries. 'Community may be regarded as denoting a community of interests'. Mitchell sums up that 'In modern sociology it remains the case that the term community is used in a general and deliberately vague way' (Mitchell, 1968:32).

The Dictionary of Sociology has pinpointed that the concept of community is endowed with demographic, geographic, economic and political dimensions which leads the community to rule itself as an autonomous social unit. This autonomous social unit is strengthened by common values and experiencing feelings of belonging to one another. It explains the term community relatively in a wider scope than does the Collins English Dictionary. However, this explanation of community is still vague for this research.

Poplin has considered unity of social and territorial organisation as community, that may also be called hamlets, villages, towns, cities, or metropolitan areas, depending upon their size. He has argued that 'community refers to the places where people maintain their homes, earn their livings, rear their children, and carry on most of their life activities' (1979:8). Poplin's definition may be one of the most related definitions for this study. His definition involves geographical, economic, socio-cultural and time element, which seem to be profoundly important for planners. This definition could be considered in determining the scope of the term community for this research.

Factories, trade unions, corporation, professions and etc. are also considered as communities (Minar and Greer, 1969). It may be unavoidable to use community in this multiple sense, but it is obvious that they create difficulties for those who seek to study the concept as a distant form of social and geographical organisation. Moreover, it is the fact that using a word in several ways reduce its usefulness for goals of scientific communication and precision (Poplin, 1979).

Cairns has approached the concept of community from the legal order point of view. He has contended that community is a 'hierarchical unity of lesser unities (the family, the village, the city, the nation), mortised by common values and subject to a general system of law whose origin and end is the community itself' (Cairns, 1959:26). He has claimed that '(t)he community is the basic order at all times and everywhere; it is the order from which men derive their vital unity' (Cairns, 1959:26). He has stressed that '(t)he idea of the community is a necessary one for any adequate view of law...neither community nor law can exist without the other' (Cairns, 1959:30). He has carried on stating that '(t)he community itself is an instance of that order and possesses its own inner law, that is, its unity. The community, therefore, is not an entity which can be manipulated at will; its structure and functions must be understood, and modifications wrought by man must be within these limits' (Cairns, 1959:34). Moreover, Cairns has claimed that 'There is much truth in the metaphor which conceives of the community as an army on the march through perilous territory. The army is made up of numerous units, a whole of distinguishable but inseparate parts. It has a form maintained by its function excellently realised, otherwise it becomes a rabble' (Cairns, 1959:37).

Cairns's approach to the concept of community seems to be meaningful and clear. Indeed, there is not much to say about his approach to clarify further from a legal order point of view. The only thing is that he has conceived a nation as community rather than a society, which may not be compatible for this research.

Gussfield (1975) has stated that the term community has a significance in three dimensions. The first dimension illustrates and defines a particular kind of human association. The second dimension is related to a theory of social change via social evolution. The final one originates from an ideological debate that covers the value of the present as compared to the past and to possible alternative futures. These three dimensions are too broad and vague to be considered as guidelines in this research. Also, this is not a place to elaborate these dimensions in detail.

Gottschalk (1975:18) has defined community 'as the name for a specific type of human group such as town, city and village'. He has also argued that 'A community is local society, a communal organisation including formal and communal subsystems' (Gottschalk, 1975:20). The word local limits the meaning of the term community via



excluding the other things such as the non-territorial community, e.g. the scientific community. In fact, it implies a permanent physical space. More importantly, it points out that there is a larger unit that can be called as 'the nation', or 'national society' (Gottschalk, 1975)

Gottschalk's approach to the concept of community may give two important clues. First of all, he has accepted that community is different from nation and society. Indeed, he has conceived community as a local society. Secondly, he has limited the meaning of community via accepting space as a basic yardstick. These two clues can be considered to describe a community which may fulfil the purposes of this research.

Gottschalk's other important limitation of the concept of community is permanency. He has explained this dimension as follows: 'All the summer guests of an island resort hotel may, under circumstances, be considered a communal organisation. They are not a community, however, because the organisation lacks permanence and it is relatively restricted in its provision for human needs. For similar reasons, the congregation of a church would not fall within our definition of community, despite the fact that it is relatively permanent' (Gottschalk, 1975:21). Gottschalk has suggested that permanency of a communal organisation as a condition for being a community or in a community. This may be an invaluable instruments for community participation in the tourism development process.

Arensberg and Kimball (1966) have discussed that community is a master system involving social form and cultural behaviour in interdependent subsidiary institutions. They have claimed that each kind of community takes place in a geographical area which is its settlement and that has a particular characteristic, and every community is territorially surrounded by other communities which have more or less similar organisations, cultures, and functions. Through institutional arrangements various members of these separate communities get social conduct with each other in transitory or in permanent co-operative activities. Moreover, every community has its own economic, political, religious, social and even familial activities via which cohesion among its members emerge, and which also involves those of other communities. As a whole, these various activities create linkages between communities that constitute the network called a society.

Based upon geographical location and land use, communities' exact repetitive character, wholeness and inclusiveness distinguish them from other human associations. They are not only collections of culture traits or social institutions repeated again and again but first of all they are like units consisting of population aggregates. This demographic dimension should be considered as part of the definition. In addition, they stated that all activities of a community take place within the dimension of time and space (Arensberg and Kimball, 1965).

Arensberg and Kimball (1965) have approached the community from a multi-dimensional point of view. They implied that community is a territorial unit where social interaction emerges from common ties among its member. More importantly, they distinguished community from society that consist of various communities. This distinguishing is important since community and society is often confused with each other.

Ladd (1959) has contended the term in parallel with Arensberg and Kimball (1965). He has considered a community as an aggregation of persons who are related to each other in some way. He has argued that territorial dimension is the most obvious yardstick of membership in a community, but if this criterion is insisted on being as an essential condition of any aggregation of individuals who constitute a community, automatically many communities are discarded from being a community. Thus he has defined a community as 'an aggregation of individual who have a common feeling of 'belongingness', 'like-mindedness' or fellowship' (Ladd, 1959:274). He has claimed that the practical function of the community in legal and political argument is to bind men together for certain aims. In other words, he has described the term community as a concept that is used as a tool to tie up determined rights and obligations which are result of being in a community with certain shared conditions which make a person a member of that community.

Lewis has approached the concept of community from a geographical point of view. To him, 'a community is a place where individuals interact with each other and receive the greater part of their physiological, psychological and social needs' (Lewis, 1979:30). He has argued that community involves the major characteristics of a society system. In other words, it is 'the smallest spatial system which encompasses the major features of society' (Lewis, 1979:30).

Clark (1968) has claimed that his approach to the concept of community is slightly broader than most which have conceived community as a functionally autonomous social unit. He argued that community is a relatively autonomous political and social system which covers a larger geographical social unit. He has stated that the economic, educational, religious, and other basic social activities together with the political system comprise a single autonomous social system.

Selznick (1994:358) contended that '...definition in social theory should be weak, inclusive, and relatively uncontroversial'. Such a weak, inclusive and neutral definition of community was developed by MacIver and Page (1949:8-10) as follows:

Wherever the members of any group, small or large, live together in such a way that they share, not this or that particular interest, but the basic conditions of common life, we call that group a community. The mark of a community is that one's life may be lived wholly within it. One cannot live wholly within a business organisation or a church; one can live wholly within a tribe or city. The basic criterion of community, then, is that all of one's social relationships may be found within it. ...A community... is an area of common living. There must be the common living with its awareness of sharing a way of life as well as the common earth.

MacIver (1931: 9-11, cited from Philips, 1969) defined the concept of community similarly to the above definition.

'...Any circle of people who live together, who belong together so that they share, not this or that particular interest, but a whole set of interests wide enough and complex enough to include their lives, is a community. Thus we may designate as a community a tribe, a village, a pioneer settlement, a city, or a nation. ...A community ...is always a group occupying a territorial area. One basis of its coherence is locality. ...A community, to repeat, is an area of common earth'

MacIver's (1931) and MacIver and Page's (1949) definitions encompass several units of measurement to describe a community and as having common ties, social interaction, social relationships and space as a geographical unit where members of a community should spend their lives. When these yardsticks are examined, it seems that their definition is comprehensive enough to involve many things, therefore, it may be considered as vague and ambiguous. For example, they have not distinguished community from nation or society, which is necessary for this study.

Nelson (1948:71) has pointed out that 'the term community refers to a group of people inhabiting a limited area, who have sense of belonging together and who

through their organised relationships share and carry on activities in pursuit of their common interests'. This definition focuses on demographic and geographic dimensions, and social interaction. It does not distinguish community from society. Also, it is not clear what 'a limited area' implies. Is it a village, town, city, region, country or continent? This has not been clarified.

Until this point, it has been illustrated how difficult it is to define the concept of community. It seems that we have not yet given enough evidence to indicate ambiguity, elusiveness and difficulties in defining the term. It may worth quoting at some length Hillery (1955) whose analysis of the concept of community has been accepted as one of the most comprehensive definitions of the term 'community' by many scholars in the social sciences (Bell and Newby, 1971; Gottschalk, 1975 and Poplin, 1979). In his paper 'Definitions of Community: Areas of Agreement', Hillery (1965: 117) analysed no fewer than ninety-four definitions. Needless to say, there was everything except agreement. He has pointed that all the definitions cannot be correct. In other words, 'community cannot be all of the definitions in their entirety'. 'There is one element, however, which can be found in all of the concepts, and (if its mention seems obvious) it is specified merely to facilitate a positive delineation of the degree of heterogeneity: all of the definitions deal with people. Beyond this common basis, there is no agreement' (Hillery, 1955: 117).

He abstracted sixteen concepts from his examination of the ninety-four definition of community. And these sixteen notions were linked by twenty-two different combinations. As Bell and Newby (1971) have pinpointed, even though sixteen elements have been classified as unwieldy, it is an advance compared with ninety-four definitions. In spite of the fact that Hillery's conclusion indicates that there is a lack of agreement, beyond the fact that a community involves people, he also claims that there are certain areas of agreement to some extent. 'Of the 94 definitions, 69 are in accord that social interaction, area, and a common tie are commonly found in community life. ...slightly more than two-thirds of the definitions maintain that social interaction and area are to be considered in studying the community. If the concept of area is omitted from consideration, the importance of interaction and common ties appearing jointly only increases. One finds 73 of 94 definitions...-more than three-fourths- in which the community is considered a group of people in social

interaction having some ties or bonds in common... Thus, a majority of the definitions include the following as important elements of the community: area, common ties, and social interaction (in increasing importance for each separate element, respectively) (Hillery, 1955: 118).

A number of general conclusions may be drawn from the above discussions: First, although there seems to be considerable disagreement on the meaning of the concept of community, there has been a tendency for opinions to converge on the scope and definition of the term. Secondly, there is a consensus that area, common ties, and social interaction are basic elements of community. Thirdly, it is difficult to define the concept; its scope is very vague and ambiguous. Thus, it requires a particular working definition for each particular study to fulfil the requirements of particular research.

This section has attempted to examine the meaning and scope of the word community and give a general framework definition. The next section will develop a working definition to fulfil the purposes of this research.

### **Working Definition of Community**

The concept of community is impossible to describe without value judgements intruding (Bell and Newby 1971). As is indicated in the previous section, there are many definitions of community, each definition is guiding its own purpose within the context of an analytical system and each definition is developed by considering their utility with respect to the task at hand (Gottschalk, 1978).

It is generally agreed amongst social scientists that a necessary preliminary to any systematic study is the construction of a conceptual framework within which reality may be analysed (Lewis, 1979). As Minar and Greer (1969) have stated, a word used several different ways diminishes its usefulness for purposes of scientific communication. In addition, 'An understanding of what is meant by community is enhanced if one possesses the knowledge of the perspective from which its examination is approached (Arensberg and Kimball, 1965:1). Within pre-determined limits 'a person has a right to define an expression in any way he pleases, and it is idle to dispute his definition' (Ladd, 1959:280). On the other hand, if any social scientist

is to avoid undue ambiguity, they should refine the terms lacking in precision for their purposes (Stacey, 1969), although arriving at a definition and standardising the term by locating a specific example may close the door to genuine understanding (Scherer, 1972 quoting Kaplan, 1964).

It would now seem more profitable to consider some distinct streams or approaches to the definition of the concept of community for the purposes of this study rather than to pursue or attempt to indicate the definitional debate or necessities of particular definition for each study.

Based upon the discussion in the previous section and bearing in mind the goals of this study, the working definition of community for this research may be defined as follows: Community is an aggregation of individuals in different life cycles (Nelson, 1948; Ladd, 1959 and Mitchell, 1968) who occupied a relatively limited area of common earth (MacIver, 1931; MacIver and Page, 1949; Hillery, 1955; Arrensberg and Kimball, 1966; Mitchell, 1968 and Poplin, 1978) where they 'maintain their homes, earn their livings, rear their children, carry on most of their life activities' (Poplin, 1979:8), engage in common socio-economic, cultural, religious and political activities (Arrensberg and Kimball, 1966 and Mitchell, 1968), 'have a common feeling of belongingness, like-mindedness or fellowship' (Ladd, 1959:274), 'interact with each other and receive the greater part of their physiological, psychological and social needs' (Lewis, 1979:30), share the basic conditions of common life, and have intended to live whole their life within the community (MacIver and Page, 1949 and MacIver, 1931).

This definition is an amalgam of the definitions which were examined and cited in the previous section. When we analyse this proposed working definition in detail, it could be observed that it has for main dimensions that are demographic, communal, socio-political, and territorial.

The demographic dimension of the definition may indicate that community consists of a group of people (Wilson and Kolb, 1949) who are in different life cycles (Sanders, 1966). In other words, 'community is a local society' (Gottschalk, 1975:18) and is surrounded by other communities which have more or less similar features (Arrensberg and Kimball, 1966). That is to say, demographically a community is smaller than a society which is some times called a nation; a

community is a component part of the society and nation. More clearly, a community is an aggregation of individuals who live in a village, town or city. This demographic dimension seems to be in parallel with the nature of tourism growth which mostly concentrate in certain local areas such as villages and towns in a country.

The communal and socio-political dimension of the proposed definition may imply that the group of people or aggregation of individuals who shares the basic conditions of common life, engages in common socio-cultural, political, educational, economic and religious activities to achieve common interests. Thus, they have a common feeling of belongingness. Those individuals who do not share the basic conditions of common life, common feelings and do not receive the greater part of their psychological and social needs in the territory should not be accounted as members of the community, even though they share an area of common territory during some part of their life per year. For example, people who have second homes in a tourist destination and spend their part of their life there every year should not be seen as the members of the community since they do not share the basic condition of life. For more or less the same reasons people who own a tourism establishment, work or engage in the tourism industry in some ways, but who do not intend to live their life in the community should not be seen as genuine members of the community. This does not mean that they should be ignored during the decision making process for local tourism development. The argument suggests that tourism development should be formulated taking into consideration the views of the community and those of the developers.

Based upon the scope of the proposed working definition, we may suggest more a specific working definition for a tourist destination community as follows: *it is an area of common territory where the aggregation of individuals intend to live their whole life, rear their children, share the basic conditions of life, have almost no choice to live in an alternative territorial unit, and thus, have to live with whatever the outcomes may be of tourism development.*

In brief, a tourist destination community refers to a group of people who live in a geographical local area in a country, whose life is affected heavily by tourists and the tourism industry and who have to live with social, cultural, economic and environmental outcomes of tourism development.

In this study the main concern is not the community itself. As Arensberg and Kimball (1965:8) have stated that it is different to take 'the community as a field or a sample in which to study something else than the community itself'. This study concerns the community as a field in which the tourism development process will be examined with a special reference to community participation. In fact, community itself is far beyond the scope of this study. Community is a subject of sociologists and sociology in its own right.

Hence this section has attempted to develop a tentative working definition of community to guide this research. As this chapter's focus is on understanding community participation in general, it is worth giving an outline of the antecedents of participation.

### **The Antecedents of Community Participation**

Participation of a local community in the affairs governing its life dates back to the beginning of human society (Hollnsteiner, 1977). Midgley (1986b: 13) states that 'the idea of participation is an ancient one finding expression in the cultural traditions and practices of small preliterate societies and the writings of ancient sages and philosophers'.

Hardiman (1986) argues that the recently popularised concept of community involvement is not new. For example, in the 1920s and 1930s' doctors, like B.B. Waddy in Ghana, virtually treated river-blindness by training young men from affected villages to pursue treatment. Another example was those district officers, in the Punjab, who recognised the significance of involving village people, specially women, in increasing their level of living conditions. One of the district officers stressed that 'nothing could be effective unless the co-operation of village people was assured'. The approach of officials to village people was fraught with difficulties which may have only been eliminated by co-operating continuously with rural people over a long time. To know problems at first hand and gain their confidence are crucial alongside sufficient funds if there was to be any real progress (Hardiman, 1986 quoting Brayne, 1929).



The Bhore Committee in India recommended that the poor in rural areas should be reached by using comprehensive care with community based rather than hospital based services. The citizen should be prepared to take self-responsibility for his own health and the doctor should play his role as a social physician (Hardiman, 1986 quoting India, 1946).

Successful participating methods in increasing health standards were seen in China in the 1930s and 1940s. When China suffered from wide spread poverty, poor sanitation and rampant disease, there was almost no preventive medicine and medical care was provided by practitioners of traditional medicine. The Chinese Communist party launched a health policy that 'Health work should be conducted with mass participation that everyone in the society was to be encouraged to play an organised role in the protection of his own health and that of his neighbours' (Hardiman, 1986:55 quoting Sidel and Sidel, 1975:3).

The implementation of these participating policies has been impressive and a classic example for community involvement in affairs affecting its life. This policy was supported by educating people on the subject of the disease, with lectures, films, posters and radio talks. Everybody was involved in draining rivers and ditching and taking other steps to fight against the snails. The important lesson was it indicated what could be done by participating and co-operation of community and an understanding of the problem (Hardiman, 1986 quoting Horn, 1971). Midgley (1986b) argues that the origin of current community participation is based on three main historical antecedents. These are: western ideologies and political theories; the Third World community development movement of the 1950s and 1960s; and finally Western social work and community radicalism.

### **The Emergence of Community Participation**

As Midgley (1986a:4) states 'the notion of community participation is deeply ideological in that it reflects beliefs derived from social and political theories about how societies should be organised'. Its emergence as a new catchword is rooted in failures of these theories. On the other hand, Sewell and Coppock (1977) have claimed that involvement of public in development planning has two main

considerations. The first is philosophical and the second is pragmatic. The former is related to political theories of democracy that people have the right to be informed and consulted and convey their views on matters which affect them to decision-makers. In modern democratic government, elected representatives have, however, failed to represent grassroots and at least significant segments of community has commenced feeling of alienation towards governmental decision-making.

Pragmatic considerations are chiefly related to the failure of plans and the decision making process which could not determine public preferences correctly. Therefore, planners and politicians had subsequently difficulties in obtaining public support; either at the ballot box or after implementation (Sewell and Coppock, 1977). Numerous examples proofed in both the urban fields and in the development of natural resources particularly in urban redevelopment (for example when relocation disrupts social interrelationships or intensifies alienation, as in high-rise dwellings) the establishment of highway networks, and in water development projects, such as various reservoirs for urban water supply in the United Kingdom (Meyerson and Banfield, 1955; Dennis, 1972; Eversley, 1973 and Sewell and Coppock, 1977)

One proponent of community participation claims that community involvement has been considered and promoted as an element of development since the 1950s and early 1960s (de Kadt, 1982). Stone (1989) has argued that community participation approach has appeared in international development repeatedly though it has been named by different terms and woven into development process in different ways. Morgan (1993) and Foster (1982, cited by Stone, 1989) has stated that in the 1950s community participation was known as community development. Gow and Vansant (1983:427) have stressed that 'participation by no means a new idea...; it has existed under different names for the past 30 years. What is new is the increasing emphasis and -even faith - being placed in participation by host governments and international donors alike'.

The increase in demand for citizen involvement during the late 1960s and early 1970s mirrored in part a longer term movement toward a new public administration (Berry et al quoting Frederickson, 1971). The interest of citizen in participating in government decision making emerged due to the needs of government itself, and as a response to community action (Smith, 1981).

On the other hand, the concept of community participation has been a component of the political dynamics of the post-industrial era (Pierce et al, 1989). By some extent, the demand for direct community participation has emerged due to the absence of the affluence and security of the period following World War II (Inglehart, 1977).

As noted, the legacy of western ideology, the influence of community development, and western social work and community radicalism are the three historical antecedents which provided a source of inclination for modern community participation; but it also has emerged as a viable development approach as a direct consequence of the United Nations' (UN) popular participation programme (Midgley, 1986b).

UN expressed its thinking on the subject in its several publications. *Popular Participation in Development: Emerging Trends in Community Development*, published in 1971, is one of the main publication of the UN on community participation, which gives a description of the emergence of the idea concerning community development in the Third World. *Popular Participation in Decision Making for Development* (1975) established a formal and comprehensive definition for the concept. These two main publications and other related research of the UN stimulated research pursued by the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD), other bodies and individual researchers.

More considerable efforts and contributions were made by agencies such as UNICEF and the World Health Organisation (WHO) and especially in the adoption of the UNICEF/WHO Declaration on Primary Health Care at the Alma Ata Conference in 1977 (Midgley, 1986b). This declaration increased the concern about health policies in developing countries, most of which are in inappropriate to meet basic health needs of the still predominantly rural poor, through an intersectoral approach which makes basic health services available and accessible to them. This is repeatedly stressed as an essential aspect. Hence, community involvement has emerged as a central preoccupation in the health field (de Kadt, 1982).

Since 1970s the concept of community involvement was also accepted as an area of research by social scientists in housing and urban development. Particularly, the World Bank (WB) supported the idea in housing sectors in the Third World. In

1975 the Bank's Housing: Sector Policy Paper explained that squatter upgrading sites and services schemes are 'primary lending instrument for more equitable urban development (Midgley, 1986b:22 quoting WB, 1975:45). The Bank supported projects of this kind by lending US 1.3 billion dollars. As a result forty-one schemes have been established and another ninety project would be confirmed by 1983 (Midgley, 1986b quoting WB, 1980).

The overall result is that since the 1970s in many ways, participation has become an umbrella term for a supposedly new genre of development intervention. Not surprisingly, to propose a development strategy that is not participatory is now almost reactionary. More importantly, major aspects of development intervention, research, planning, implementation and control, have been reoriented so as to make them more participatory (Oakley, 1991). 'Where the targets of a plan are not fully realised, this is often attributed as much to inadequate public involvement as to a lack of labour or capital' (Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, 1970:31).

Although the historical antecedents and emergence of community participation as an essential aspect of participatory development strategy and decision making process have been discussed in brief, what the concept means has not been clarified yet. Thus, next section will focus on the definitional arguments of the term.

### **An Attempt to Clarify Confusion Between Similar Concepts**

Studies in the field of community participation in the development process, illustrate that there is a divergent idea on the concept of community participation (CP), which has created confusion and controversies among and between politicians, bureaucrats and academicians. There is also disagreement among and between national and international bodies on the meaning and scope of the concept 'community participation'.

Beyond this main definitional and conceptual divergence, there is also confusion between the concept of CP and similar concepts, such as popular participation, community involvement, public participation, citizen participation, etc. It may be helpful to attempt to reduce the confusion between these concepts.

Although the concepts of CP and popular participation seem to be different terms, it is very difficult to put a definite border between them. Perhaps, therefore there have not been many efforts to distinguish these concepts from each other. However, Midgley (1986b:23) may be the only scholar who has made an attempt to explain the differences between these two concepts. He states that popular participation 'is concerned with broad issues of social development and the creation of opportunities for the involvement of people in the political, economic and social life of a nation' and community participation 'connotes the direct involvement of ordinary people in local affairs'. Although Midgley has tried to distinguish these concepts, and his definitions of the concepts seem to be different from each other, it is not clear how they can be recognised in practical life and transferred into practice as different development strategies. Nevertheless, Midgley (1986) also accepted that CP and popular participation are not totally different from each other. He has stated that even though popular participation and CP may be distinguished, they are evidently inter-connected. Both concepts are brought about by similar ideals and show similar processes. In fact, many definitions of community participation originate from the United Nations resolutions about popular participation which were adopted in the early 1970s'.

United Nations (UN) (1981: 5) formulated one definition of this kind by appointing a group of experts to discuss community level action in popular participation. It defined popular participation as follows: 'Popular participation entails the creation of opportunities that enable all members of a community and the larger society to actively contribute to and influence the development process and to share equitably in the fruits of development'. Midgley (1986b) has considered the above UN's definition of popular participation in the scope of community participation. He has stated that while the definition of popular participation is suitable as an operational definition, the formulation of the concepts is typically broad and obtuse, and therefore it may raise many further questions. Also, the UN's definitional formulation of popular participation lacks specificity since it has not clarified the nature of the programmes required to promote participation.

UN (1975:4) defined popular participation in one of its main publications in this field. This definition is quoted as follows: 'In relation to development, popular participation as a process can be defined as active and meaningful involvement of the

masses of people at different level (a) in the decision-making process for the determination of societal goals and the allocation of resources to achieve them and (b) in the voluntary execution of resulting programmes and projects'. In the above definition, the term masses of the people may be considered in the scope of the working definition of the term community which was developed in the previous section of this study. It is stated that 'The decision-making situation determines what is meant by the term 'masses of the people'. The term refers to those directly affected by a decision and varies in coverage from decision to decision. For example, since matters of national development policy affect all members of the society, for participation to be truly 'popular', most of the people in the country would have to be involved in them. Other decisions have a lesser scope, as when a village decides to undertake a local self-help project. Here, the term 'masses would refer to most of the residents of the community' (UN, 1975:5). That is to say that when popular participation is practised at local level, it may be called community participation.

In brief conclusion, it may be stated that popular participation and community participation may have been used interchangeably in the related literature and practice. Although there may be certain differences in details, in this study popular participation will be employed and interpreted within the scope of community participation.

Community involvement is another concept which is used interchangeably with CP in the field of politics, sociology and development studies; they are hardly distinguished. One study has attempted to implicitly differentiate these two concepts from each other. It stated that

'More implicitly than explicitly, any participant in a development process will have an expectation, if not an objective, for the level on the ladder that their particular process will offer. ... the mere use of the word involvement in the title of this study meant that 'it is restricted' to give a place on the ladder or it 'minimises the community's role' (HMSO, 1994: 7).

According to HMSO (1994), community involvement may imply a lesser role, power and voice for the community in the development process of a project, program or plan than the term community participation may do. However, in this study, CP and community involvement will be considered as synonyms.

This study will also use the term citizen participation and public participation in relation to the development plan as synonyms of community participation since no

scholars have attempted to distinguish these terms from each other and there may be no point in doing so. In fact, it may be argued that meaning and scope of any kind of participation may fluctuate depending upon the aims of users, and the socio-cultural, political and economic conditions in which it is used.

### **Distinguishing Political Participation and Community Participation**

Before commencing the attempts at clarifying the meaning of community participation in the development process, it is necessary to state that community participation in development strategy is different from participation as a political act or civic duty.

In general, according to traditional democratic theory, participation is a political activity, civic duty and individual right. Indeed, it is an indicator of political well-being, and sine qua non of a democracy (Dowse and Hughes, 1986). However, in a number of democratic countries, voting only in a political election is no longer regarded as a satisfactory form of participation in public affairs. Political representation based on historic pattern is inadequate to meet the needs of fast-changing societies (Wilkins and Passett, 1971). Participation as the act of voting in the periodic election of representatives is a narrow and restrictive view of the role of community participation (Smith, 1984). Hence, common use of the term community participation does not cover the more conventional forms of democratic participation such as voting for elected officials, voting on referendum and other issues, running for and holding elected office, and the use of law suits (Cvetkovich and Earle, 1994). The central concept of participation in decision making and development planning goes far beyond the political right to vote in elections (Hapgood, 1969 and Smith, 1984). Kent (1981) has argued that meaningful participation should go beyond control over resources and institutions exercised through periodic election, because such control may only be nominal. Unless there are self-protecting and self-realising ways for the hitherto excluded, adult franchise and going to the polls may not mean much. Administration of the whole system may be operated in such a way that it may become a fact that the mass of the people do not have a real share in it, and in frustration then it may opt to not be actively involved.

Although participation as a civic duty and the political act of voting in periodic election are not totally irrelevant to community participation in the development process, it will not be predominantly considered in this study.

### **Difficulties in Defining Community Participation in the Development Process**

The aim of this section is not only to clarify the concept of community participation in the development process (CPDP) but also to illustrate how complex, vague and difficult to define, and how elusive it is to explain various dimensions of the term CPDP. In order to achieve these aims, several authors' arguments about the issue will be presented as though on a continuum in order to emphasise the conflicting range of interpretations, and divergent ideas on the meaning and scope of the concept. This section may demonstrate that how difficult it is to cover the concept community participation adequately within a single study.

Most scholars accept that the term community participation is elusive, ambiguous and vague (Godschalk, 1971; United Nations, 1975; United Nations, 1981; Law-Yone, 1982, Chetkov-Yanoov, 1986; Midgley, 1986; Oakley, 1991; Dudley, 1993; Morgan, 1993). It is stated that 'No clear consensus exists as to what is meant by community participation, with the diversity of definitions reflecting the ideological range of interpretations of development and different approaches to planning' (Moser, 1989: 81). While examining a whole range of interpretations of participation in development projects, Oakley (1991) has pointed out that the concept of participation does not permit universal definition since it is used so widely and its scope is so comprehensive, that this makes it impossible to encapsulate within one definitive term. Berry et al (1984: quoting Langton, 1978) agree upon the point that community participation is a broad term and is subject to many interpretations. Partridge (1970) is in line with the above statements. He argues that one of the most distressing elements in the discussion, particularly from the viewpoint of the participant, and the students of the subject, is the deficit of consensus on the definition of participation. Fagence (1977) has stated that this definitional nothingness may create lack of consensus that is the basic cause of the unsatisfactory state of



participation theory, and is contributory to the generally less than satisfactory state of the practice.

United Nations (UN) (1975) stated that the term community participation potentially includes a vast area of philosophy, policy considerations, programmes, and practical work. Using the concept in such diverse contexts as self-help, community development, particular institutional arrangements such as village councils and co-operatives, worker representation in industrial management, social mobilisation systems, socially equitable distribution of development benefits, full employment, political and social democracy, good citizenship, structural reform and popular revolution emphasises the importance attached to it but also tends to create confusion. Thus, it is impossible to do justice to the complexity of considerations bound up with the term community participation, which is as old as government itself, in one single document.

Several authors argue that community participation is multi-dimensional, and includes representation from many disciplines. That is to say that, 'community participation is not a simple matter of faith but a complex issue involving different ideological beliefs, political forces, administrative arrangements and varying perceptions of what is possible' (Midgley et al, 1986: ix). Naturally, they have pointed out this issue from different points of view. Green and Isley (1988: 160) have explained that the concept of participation itself contains several dimensions that can be briefly presented as questions: '(1) In what does the population participate? A range from decision-making to simply receiving benefits is presented. (2) Who participates? Is it just an elite group or is it here a broad range of people involved. (3) What is the context of participation?'. They have expressed that the answer to these questions can vary according to the agency administering the program, as well as the physical environment and the demographic, social, and economic characteristics of the community (Green and Isley, 1988). In order to underline the multi disciplinary dimensions of the concept, it is stated that a variety of disciplines such as sociology, political science, and social work have dealt with theories and models of the study of citizen participation (Olson, 1965; Spiegel, 1968; Pateman, 1970; Verba and Nie, 1972; Cole, 1974; Smith, 1980; Baber, 1984 and Florin and Wandersman, 1990). In other words, political scientists, sociologists, engineers, environmentalists, politicians,

bureaucrats, and journalist have contributed to a definition of community involvement - what is it, what it should be, and how it should be carried out (Schierow and Chesters, 1983). Not surprisingly, since community participation is multi-dimensional and multi-disciplinary, it should not be easy to define, explain and evaluate it.

Stiefel and Wolfe (1994: 17) have implied that there is lack of consensus on the concept CP. They have discussed that

The studies demonstrate the wide differences in rationalities between the social actors engaged in encounters: politician, technocrats and bureaucrats, military and police officers, national and local elites, employers, ideologists, religious leaders, academic figures in different disciplines, students, national and local leaders of popular organisations, the rank and file of these organisations, and the unorganised masses of the excluded. These actors often seem to be following scripts in separate, incompatible dramas, indifferent to or contemptuous of one another.

Indeed, community participation can take many forms. It is a tricky concept, not easy either to define or to accomplish and, like democracy, it creates socially desirable expectations which can not be met easily in real world (O'Riordan, 1977). It may be easy for policy makers to see as an evolving concept and popular to accept in theory, but troublesome to execute in practice and putting the idea into operation is not precisely comprehended (Coppock, 1977 and Askew, 1989). It can vary from minimal forms involving information exchange (surveys, handouts, questionnaires, and the like) to full forms of community control (Arnstein, 1971; Law-Yone, 1982: quoting Burke, 1969 and Willis, 1995). That may imply that community participation is not a monolithic term but consists of many different approaches (Pacione, 1988). As it was stated by one proponent of community participation in 1971, 'as a popular concept, citizen participation has come to be an umbrella term, encumbered by so many associations that its precision has been lost' (Godschalk, 1971:9).

Confusion and vagueness seem to predominate concerning the operational meaning of community participation (Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994) since the concept of community participation is subject to multiple definitions ( Lisk, 1985a; Morgan, 1993;) and may take divers forms (Oakley, 1991 and Willis, 1995), which range along a continuum. At one end, it can initiate participatory movement at the grassroots level without technocrats' sponsorship; at the other, professionals and politicians impose it by structuring the organisation (Morgan, 1993). That is to say that, it is impossible to

establish a universal definition of community participation in the development process (Cohen and Uphoff, 1980; Oakley and Marsden, 1984 and Oakley, 1991). More correctly, it may not be possible to encapsulate the concept of community participation within one single and definitive term (Lisk, 1985a and Oakley, 1991). It may be, therefore, that decision-makers, technocrats and other sponsors of such (participatory) initiatives are more concerned with implementation procedures than definitions.

In a broad sense, 'Each term is ambiguous, multivocal, and vaguely defined' (Morgan, 1993: 6 quoting Geertz, 1973:195); 'its meanings change depending on who is using it and what interests they are promoting' (Morgan, 1993: 6). Thus, there is disagreement among members of any discipline on the nature of the issues that they examine (Hillery, 1955). Since the concept of community participation is not an exception from these broad statements, as UN (1981: 5) has emphasised, the term CP 'can best be understood in the context of a specific country and its political and socio-economic system'. Therefore, the question of participation should not be approached 'in the terms of specific models, single suggestions or universal formats, but rather in terms of those values and rights which attempts to implement participation should emphasise' (Cahn, and Cahn, 1971: 39)

It may, now be recognised that 'For the traveller approaching the rocky road of citizen participation, there is no prescribed route, but the road signs and warnings are many and distinct' (Wilkins and Passett, 1971: 6). Therefore, the researcher will attempt to scrutinise some of the definitions of community participation, which may not only remove possible misunderstanding and conflicts but also guide the researcher to walk on the true path to achieve the pre-determined goals of this study.

### **Definitions of Community Participation in the Development Process**

As mentioned previously, we will review some of the definitions and interpretations of participation and community participation in the development process and present them as a continuum to clarify the concept and find an operational definition for this research. It may seem to be logical to put dictionary meanings of the concept participation in the beginning of this continuum. Santhanam

(1993) has stated that the origin of the term 'participation' is from the Latin word 'participare', which means 'taking part'. The Encyclopaedia of Psychology defines participation as: 'taking part or involvement in an activity, and 'greater involvement of persons in policy decision which affect them directly' (Eysenck et al, 1972). The Oxford English Dictionary defines it as 'a taking part (with others) in some action or matter'. The Collins English Dictionary sees participation as synonym of the word involvement and defines it as 'to take part in something'. Richardson (1983:8) states that 'to participate means to take part, to become involved, and there is still little more to it than that'. He claims that in the general area of social policy 'participation refers to the ways in which ordinary citizens can or do take part in the formulation or implementation of social policy decisions'. In a broad sense, Richardson's definition has no difference from the definitions of dictionaries. By mentioning 'the ways in which ordinary citizen can or do take part in formulation or implementation...', he seems to touch the broad issue of community participation in the development process but, as he states, it is not quite as simple as the above statements express, which quickly raise arguments about what 'taking part' really means. Does it necessitate involvement in the decision making process or only token consultation by which decisions get made? Richardson's and dictionaries' definitions do not highlight these issues. Nevertheless, as Santhanam (1993) claims, in the simplest sense, it refers to self-activity and is a consequence of collective action in relation to social, political and economic conditions.

One group of scholars approaches the concept of community participation as to take part in or to involve in the decision making and development process. For example, Berry et al (1984) have contended participation is giving an opportunity to take part in administrative policy making. Berry's definition is not clear where ordinary members of a community have influences over the decisions affecting them directly or not. To take part in administrative policy making does not necessarily mean to have influences over decisions.

Skelcher (1993 quoting Hambleton et al, 1989) states that community participation is about a relationship between a local public service agency and individuals or groups in a community. The concept implies a desire to avoid using traditional bureaucratic paternalism, according to which agencies believe that they are

close to the ideas of members of the community, and they alone know best what is good for people in the community. Although Skelcher (1993) has emphasised a crucial point 'moving away from traditional bureaucratic paternalism', it is not clear that what the new form of decision making process will be and how ordinary members of a community will be able to share the decisions affecting them.

Andrian (1960:17) approaches the concept from a democratic point of view. He claims that community participation is a social invention and part of democracy. Participation of ordinary citizen in promoting 'commonweal is very congenial to our conception of democracy in which superior wisdom is imputed to an enlightened citizenry'. Andrian's approach to the concept of community participation is normative. He does not give any clue how it would be shaped and by whom. But, as a normative statement, it can be considered to persuade bureaucrats, politicians and other elites who most possibly may raise question against the implementation of the concept of community participation as a development strategy.

Rothenbuhler (1991:163) claims that community participation can be measured by answers to the following questions: 'How often does one keeps up with the local news, how often one gets together with people who know what's going on locally, how often one has ideas for improving things locally, and how often one works to bring about changes in the community'. Rothenbuhler's argument seems to be vague and naive because without having any power to influence over decision-making and implementation of decisions are impossible for ordinary members of a community. It may be not important how knowledgeable (s)he is, how (s)he works hard to bring about changes in community. Being informed about local affairs and meeting with local governors may be only the first steps of community involvement in the development process, but this may not mean 'participation'.

Kaufman and Poulin (1994) refer to community participation as creating opportunities for members or a community to be involved in decision making and planning. They contend that 'participation leads to a greater sense of empowerment in addressing community problems, as well as greater ownership over the plans and activities that result from the participatory process'. Furthermore, they define the concept of community participation as 'a process in which individuals take part in decision making in the institutions, programs, and environments that affect them'

(Kaufman and Poulin, 1994: 359 quoting Heller, Price, Reinharz, Riger and Wandersman, 1984: 339). Although their definition seems to be comprehensive when it is examined, it may be noticed that it is very broad and vague. Involvement of ordinary citizens in decision making or planning does not provide any benefits if they do not have power to influence the decision making process. It may only help bureaucrats and elites to get information without paying any thing to information holders.

Rajakutty (1991) is in line with Kaufman and Poulin (1994) considers community participation as a voluntary involvement of people in development activities in their environment and 'self-determined change'. Rajakutty emphasises an important point by covering 'self-determined change' in his statement but it is still too vague for us to take into account his definition as a meaningful one. It goes without saying that Rajakutty (1991:39) refers to a community as 'all people who live in a specified area', which seems to be in parallel to our working definition of the concept community defined in previous section of this study.

Til (1984) may have defined the concept of community participation in a wider context than the above definitional arguments. Til has stated that 'By way of definition, citizen participation is that form of voluntary action in which individuals confront opportunities and responsibilities of citizenship. The opportunities for such participation include joining in the process of self-governance, responding to authoritative decisions that impact on one's life, and working co-operatively with others on issues of mutual concern. The responsibilities of the citizen role include devoting sufficient energy and thought to develop decisions that are in the common interest' (Til, 1984:311).

What is missing in Til's definitional argument about the term community participation is the share of power; devoting some of the authority of formal bodies to the hitherto excluded citizens. Citizens may be given the opportunity and responsibility to become involved in the decision making process of development planning, but without any authority to receive responsibility may spell some danger. Therefore, without delegating some power to ordinary citizens, providing opportunities for citizens to become involved in and giving responsibility for decision making can seem to be tokenism.

Smith (1984:253-4) has defined community participation as 'any action taken by an interested public (individual or group) to influence a decision, plan or policy beyond that of voting in elections'. He has contended that participation is a means to widen the base of a pluralistic system. Smith's definition implies that sharing power is a component of the concept of community participation, which is essential to influence a decision or planning process. He has also gone beyond the traditional mode of decision making by implying that community participation should go beyond voting in elections.

Askew (1989) has described the concept of community participation as the active involvement and control of members of a community over decision making process of local affairs. Askew et al (1986: 5) have stated that community participation is 'an educational and empowering process in which people, in partnership with those able to assist them, identify problems and needs and increasingly assume responsibility themselves to plan, manage, control and assess the collective actions that are proved necessary'. Askew's definition emphasises active involvement of members of community in planning and projects' activities, rather than passive receipt of information or services offered.

Wills (1995:212) has defined, by quoting Dwyer (1989:60), as 'a range of activities which involve people from various communities in identifying issues, participating in decisions about, planning for and managing and/or delivering health programs'. He has continued that 'In this sense community participation, as an ideal type, involves a shift of power, from those who have had major decision-making roles to those who traditionally have not had such a role'. As it can be seen from the above quotation, to Wills (1995), participation implies a shift of power from present power holder to the hitherto excluded, which is the cornerstone of the community participation argument. Wills's definition, at least at normative level, can contribute to developing a theoretical framework for this research.

Stone (1989: 207) defines community participation 'as designing development in such a way that intended beneficiaries are encouraged to take matters into their own hands, to participate in their own development through mobilising their own resources, defining their own needs, and making their own decisions about how to meet them'. Stone proposes community participation as a development strategy which

is based on community resources, needs and decisions. In a way, his definition implies community based or community oriented development policies which are determined by a community itself. Furthermore, in his definition community is the main actor of development. He may imply that the best for a community can only be determined by the community itself.

Miller (1979) has stated that meaningful participation necessitates a systematic local autonomy, through which communities bring to light the possibilities of exercising choice and thereby becoming capable of handling their own development. 'Genuine community participation will require new attitudes and behaviour among the staff of agencies that deal with the poor. It also may lead to new patterns of distributing power and controlling resources' (Gow and Vansant, 1983:427).

Gow and Vansant are in line with Stone (1989) and Wills (1995). They have also given a main role to community in the development processes. To them, bureaucrats and decision makers must develop new attitudes and behaviour in order to implement participatory development. Beyond this, new patterns of distribution of power and controlling resources are also proposed for participation of hitherto excluded people in rural development. Changing distribution of pattern of power and frame of control over resources may be pre-conditions of any participatory development strategy. Although it is not mentioned how it can be achieved, they suggest such a strategy can contribute to the efforts of participatory development.

Cvetkovich and Earle (1994: 163) has given a vague role to community in their definition. They have stated that 'The term public participation has come to mean direct involvement of individual citizens and citizen groups in the seeking of information about, decision making related to and the management planning regarding land issues'. Although they have mentioned direct involvement of individuals, they have not implied any thing about power sharing or a shift in power which is a main element in community participation.

HMSO has discussed that 'From one perspective, community involvement offers an opportunity to readjust the balance of power and reassert local community views against those of the developers or the local authority, or to redefine professionalism' (HMSO, 1994: 7 quoting Wates and Knevitt, 1987). HMSO's definition has touched three most important points in participatory planning and



development: 1. Readjusting balance of power, 2. Reasserting local community's role in development, and 3. Redefining professionalism. These three points can determine the conditions of successful participation. To consider these points may prevent manipulation of community in participation process.

Strauss (1963) has argued that, it is not important how participation is defined, participation is in effect a tool of removing or reducing power differences manifest in the operationalisation of participation in which communication among equals is frequently explicitly mentioned. It is clearly mentioned in Strauss's argument about participation that it is a means to share power.

Low (1991, quoting Tocqueville, no date) has approached the concept of community participation from a different angle. He has argued that participation is a powerful tool to educate the community in rights, laws and political good sense. Moreover, he has contended that participation as 'an instrument and, more broadly, a body of influence, which was capable of undermining the related evils of ignorance, indolence and class conflict (Low, 1991: 86, quoting Duncan, 1973: 250). It has been continued that 'since the leadership of society would inevitably be in the hands of an elite, it was necessary to ensure that its members were educated in the broadest sense and deeply valued individual liberty and democracy. The individual would, therefore, learn the politics of democracy by participating in local institutions and associations' (Low,1991: 86 quoting Mill, 1973). 'We do not learn to read or write, to ride or swim, by merely being told how to do it but by doing it, so it is only by practising popular government on a limited scale, that people will ever learn how to exercise it on a large scale' (Low,1991: 86 quoting Mill, 1973: 186). On the basis of Low's argument, it may be proposed that active and direct participation of local people in local affairs is an indispensable tool for public education. Without using this instrument, democracy and individual liberty may not be sustainable.

Burke's argument about community participation supports Low's statement. He claims that participation is an element of democratic heritage, and a tool to improve or perfect the democratic process. In the most simple sense, the ultimate voice in community decision-making should belong to citizens and citizens should share in decisions affecting their circumstance. Anything less is a violation of democratic traditions (Burke, 1968). Selznick (1994: 315) supports the argument

about participatory democracy by stating that '... democracy is impoverished when citizens can do no more than vote, obey and shut up. ...The people should have more say, more often, on more topics; ... they should play an active part in formulating and implementing policy'. Selznick has seen ordinary people in a community as active actors of the development process.

Although we have attempted to explain what participation is about, what it means and implies, it may seem that we have contributed to further confusion by giving such diverse definitions. But it is clear that it is impossible to define the concept of community participation in few lines of statements. Therefore, some scholars have approached a definition of community participation from multi-dimensional points of view. Some of these approaches will be given in the following sections in order to further clarify the concept of community participation.

### **Approach of the United Nations to the Definition of Participation in the Development Process**

In general, the United Nations (UN) has contributed to the concept of participation in development through its several publications which have played a pioneer role. Although some of the considerations of the UN on the issue may have been previously examined, it is thought that it would facilitate understanding the concept of participation if they are given in a chronological order. In this way, it will reflect the changing rationale for participatory development within the United Nations system. At one end of the continuum, the United Nations Economic and Social Council resolution 1929 (LVIII) proposed the concept of participation in development as follows: 'participation requires the voluntary and democratic involvement of people in (a) contributing to the development effort (b) sharing equitably in the benefits derived therefrom and (c) decision-making in respect of setting goals, formulating policies and planning and implementing economic and social development programmes' (Midgley, 1986b:25). Although the UN did not clearly mention distribution of some power hitherto excluded, the proposed resolution for the concept of community participation implies and requires a certain level of power sharing and transferring to have-not individuals.

In 1955 the UN identified community participation in the development process as synonymous with community development when it stated in broad and generalised terms: 'Community development is process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community with its active participation' (Moser, 1989:81).

The Declaration of Social Progress and Development (General Assembly resolution 2542 (XXIV) of 11 December 1969) states as its first principles (art.1): 'All people and all human beings ... should have the right to live in dignity and freedom and to enjoy the fruits of social progress and should, on their part, contribute to it'. It is continued to emphasise as its principle that 'The active participation of all elements of society, individually or through associations, in defining and in achieving the common goals of development with full respect for the fundamental freedoms embodied in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights' (UN, 1975:1).

It is also stated in the Declaration that as a basic means and methods for achieving social progress and development, attention must be given to: 'The adoption of measures to ensure the effective participation, as appropriate, of all the elements of society in the preparation and execution of national plans and programmes of economic and social development' (UN, 1975:1). Obviously the Declaration of Social Progress and Development in 1969 emphasised active participation of individuals in preparation and execution of development plans, through which society can contribute to and decide on its own dignity. Although active involvement of individuals in developmental activity is underlined, it is not clear that the involvement will be initiated by the community, government or international bodies. Moreover, the forms of participation are ambiguous. That is to say whether the active participation of the community will be direct or indirect is not clarified.

In 1979 the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD) determined the real objective of participation as '...to increase control over resources and regulative institutions in given situations, on the part of groups and movement of those hitherto excluded from such control (Moser, 1989: 82 quoting UNRISD, 1979:8).

Moser (1989) argued that underlying the UNRISD's definition requires inevitably sharing and transferring of power since social groups intentionally demand

to take the responsibility to control their own dignity and develop their living conditions. In this context, tension can take place between the state and the hitherto excluded groups; as central government tries to promote participation to reach centrally determined goals, the community may try to increase its control over the allocation of resources.

The United Nations has played a pioneer role to draw attention to this issue. It has been argued that necessary institutions must be established and strengthened for the mobilisation of popular participation in developing countries. A group of experts were appointed by the United Nations to deliberate community level action in popular participation. It was defined as 'The creation of opportunities to enable all members of a community and the larger society to actively contribute to and influence the development process and to share equitably in the fruits of development (United Nations, 1981: 5). This definition of community participation of the UN is in parallel with its previous definition. It also implies to delegate, share and transfer power to the people who are supposed to get benefit from related development.

Several common points may be derived from the UN's ideas on CP. First, the UN seems to accept CP as a development strategy, and is encouraging specially developing countries to promote participation as a development strategy. Second, through its publications and sponsoring of several projects to which CP was applied as a strategy, it has played a pioneer role in this field. Third, although most of the UN's definitions related to CP have not clearly mentioned the need to distribute or transfer some power of the present power holders to hitherto excluded people, they do require a certain level of power distribution to the people who are directly affected by the development process. Finally, it may be said that the UN has made continuous efforts to promote the concept of CP, particularly in developing countries.

### **Stiefel and Wolfe's Approach to Definition of Participation in Development Process**

Stiefel and Wolfe (1994) published a book titled 'A Voice for the Excluded Popular Participation in Development: Utopia or Necessity?'. In this book, they define participation as 'the organised efforts to increase control over resources and regulative

institutions in given social situations, on the part of groups and movements of those hitherto excluded from such control'. They stated that 'By specifying 'the organised efforts ... of groups and movements', the definition deliberately excluded broader interpretations of participation that might be legitimate for other purposes. After all, everyone 'participates' in society, whether as an effective actor or a passive victim. By specifying 'control', the definition aimed to rule out evasion of the central issue of power. It excluded certain technocratic or paternalistic approaches that aim to provide access to resources and institutions while withholding control. The reference to 'those hitherto excluded' aligned the inquiry with the interests of the disadvantaged, but naturally could not foresee the many forms and degrees of exclusion that the inquiry was to encounter, or the importance of the 'newly excluded' who were being deprived by economic and political mutations (change) of the measure of control they had previously achieved' (Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994:5).

Stiefel and Wolfe's definition is well structured. When this definition is examined, it may be said that participation is a bottom-up approach to the development process and in order to achieve a successful participatory development, the hitherto excluded from the development processes should be given or take sufficient power to control allocation of resources and regulative institutions. Although they have defined the concept of community participation in a well-structured framework, it is not mentioned how to exclude certain technocratic or paternalistic approaches to the development process. In other words, they have not clarified in detail how their proposed definition of participation can be implemented.

They have stated that UNRISD identified six 'dimensions' of participation, which showed different points of entry into the study of the question and from which to determine a research agenda to deal with implementation. It may be useful to explain these six dimensions in some detail.

1. **As 'encounter' between the hitherto excluded and those elements in the society that maintain or enforce exclusion.** The excluded groups confront the power holders of sets of social arrangements that determine patterns of access to resources, services, status and power, seeking a new deal. Those set of arrangements may take the form of tenancy, laws introduced to enforce or override custom, the fixing of food prices, existing school or health services, taxation, institutionalised

clentelism or corruption, institutionalised ethnic or religious discrimination, etc.' (Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994:6)

**2. As 'movements' and 'organisations' of would-be participants.** This view alludes to enhanced understanding of structure, and social context of the organised efforts emerging among the grassroots in the course of their encounters. This perspective pointed to a broad range of questions:

factors influencing capacity to maintain permanent organisational structures; leadership and member ability to choose and control leaders; class homogeneity or heterogeneity of the organised group; alliances between organised groupings of the excluded and religious organisations, non-governmental organisations, political parties, trade unions and other established 'macro-organisations of the poor'; concrete goals and demands making for group solidarity or the reverse; forms and tools of struggle, within or outside the limits of established legality; bureaucratisation of organised efforts following upon increases in their scope and permanence and resistance to such bureaucratisation (Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994:6-7).

The above quoted dimensions of community participation in the development process may indicate the most difficult perspective of the task, which do imply a real struggle of power between the hitherto excluded and supporters of enforcing the exclusion. Since the controls over regulative institutions, fiscal and monetary policies, education system and allocation of factor of productions determine pattern of power distribution, present power holders may not volunteer to delegate such control to the hitherto excluded. Therefore, it seems to be very difficult to achieve this kind of participation. But, it is not impossible. It requires hard political choices and well-organised grassroots efforts which force decision makers to establish all necessary laws and regulations to empower the hitherto excluded from present economic, political and social life. Since empowering hitherto excluded may reduce welfare of elites, at least in long term, the decision makers do need tremendous support from members of community

**3. As 'biography'; i.e. the individual participatory experience.** This approach refers to a participation that is linked with decision making, class consciousness, conscientisation, motivation and alienation which are functions of individuality. Therefore, individuals heavily affect decisions to involve in group action. This may only be explained by analysing the life experience of the individual. 'Individual consciousness must be seen as the crucible in which social forces can be

translated into human action, and the character of the crucible itself is moulded during a life time by those experiences accessible to the location the individual occupies in the particular society'. Biographies therefore offer an essential approach to the explanation of social conduct (Pearse and Stiefel, 1980 and Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994:7)

In brief, the third dimension of participation, to UNRISD, emphasises individual consciousness and experiences through which social forces are supposed to be translated in mass action or through which mass action will be shaped and directed.

**4. As 'programme' or 'project' proposed and executed by a government agency, voluntary organisation or international body.** According this view, participatory activity is initiated by a relatively privileged group or powerful elite who determine what ought to be done, can order certain human and financial resources and stimulate the involvement of a 'determined group' in the development process. (Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994). This kind of participation is seen as tokenism, inadequate and in some way misleading (Arnstein, 1971 and Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994).

**5. As 'component of national policy'.** Under this heading, three quite different perspectives were relevant to the inquiry.

The first is related to the state that consider community participation as a component of its current development policies. The main objective is to increase in the national product and expansion of public social services and infrastructural investment (Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994) In this perspective, participation is seen as a tool to implement national state's decisions.

'The second perspective concerned the long-debated questions of representative democracy and direct democracy' (Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994:8).

Thirdly, governments accept participatory development approach as an element of national development policy in a radically different form. Decision-makers aim at mobilising the masses in the name of development or to support the grassroots for achieving a revolutionary shifts in the distribution of power (Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994).

**6. 'Anti-participatory structure and ideologies'.** Finally, it is stated that participation of the poor in the development process necessitates taking into account the socio-economic structures that do not accept their struggle for a voice in the decision-making process, and ideologies that power holders desire. In this context, it

is assumed that societies as a social system create complex barriers to resist popular participation and maintain existing power monopolies and forms of exploitation, and even those institutions supposed to realise the participation of the many are vulnerable to the 'iron law of oligarchy' and thus liable to return into instruments of manipulation operated by the law (Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994)

Several conclusions can be derived from these six dimensions of community participation. First, these six dimensions show that community participation as a development strategy can take several forms. Thus, it may not be possible and appropriate to define community participation in one single format. Second, since it is very broad and its scope is very wide, its meaning can change, which make it open to misuse. Third, it may be said that in order to achieve a successful form of participation, forms and mode of community participation should be determined by taking socio-cultural, economic and political conditions into account. Finally, it may be stated that this approach to the concept of community participation may reflect almost all possible forms of participation in the real world.

### **Godschalk's Approach to definition of Community Participation**

He has argued that it may not be possible to give a precise definition of the term community participation since it has come to be an umbrella term and has lost its exactness. Therefore, he has reviewed some meanings of participation in an analytical framework. To quote this definitional review to some extent may be useful.

**Participation as citizen influence:** Verba (1967:55-57) has defined participation as 'referring to acts by those not formally empowered to make decisions... the acts being intended to influence the behaviour of those who have such decisional power'. It is added that 'In simpler terms, democratic participation refers to the processes by which citizens influence or control those who make major decisions affecting them' (Verba, 1967:54). Godschalk has stated that the major elements in Verba's definition are citizen actors who attempt to influence government officials to respond to them. The direction of this type of participation is from bottom up; from citizens to decision makers. Verba's underlying concept of political participation looks like a kind of democratic market mechanism. By using this mechanism, citizen



demands are informed to suppliers of government services. The challenge is to form the mechanism for the most effective communication. In this sense, 'Democracy, with its cultural rules of competition, becomes an 'invisible hand' governing political participation so that plural values may be influential' (Godschalk, 1971:13).

**Participation as citizen power:** Godschalk has borrowed the term 'participation as citizen power' from Arnstein (1969 and 1971) who seems to be one of the most important pioneer scholars in participatory studies. Since Arnstein's approach to participation will be examined separately, the term 'participation as citizen power' will not be scrutinised here. But, in brief, it may be said that, in this respect, 'participation is viewed as a battle between citizen groups and local government over control. Plans are basically expression of political positions' (Godschalk, 1971:15-6)

**Participation as organisational strategy:** This view is originally from Burke (1968: 288). To Burke,

'...citizen can be used as instruments for the attainment of specific ends. Citizen participation, in other words, is a strategy. But the ends are sometimes conflicting. In one case, citizen participation is advocated as an administrative technique to protect the stability or even the existence of an organisation; in another, it is viewed as an educational or therapeutic tool for changing attitudes; in still another case, it is proposed as a means for assisting an organisation to define its goals and objectives'.

The five strategies of participation from an organisational point of view outlined by Burke include:

**1. Education therapy,** implies that members of a community by working together learn how democracy is operated, how to overcome problems and to develop self-confidence;

**2. Behavioural change,** the objective is to change the attitudes of individuals in the community by changing group norms and by motivating group members to involve in the decision making process;

**3. Staff supplement,** the needs for staff is met by encouraging people to take part in the projects;

**4. Co-optation,** in which citizens or representatives of groups are involved in an organisation in order to turn away threats to the organisation;

**5. Community power,** in this strategy the target is not members of a community, but an established structure and participation take place in inter-

organisation. An organisation chooses conflict or confrontation as techniques to gain participation in decision-making within an established power structure.

**Participation as citizen-government exchange:** He has stated that in a broad and fundamental sense, participation is a process of exchange between citizens and government. It is argued that depending on the intention of the parties to the exchange, three types of exchange may take place. These are competition, conflict and collaboration. Competition is the form of exchange in which parties can individually get mutual benefits by accepting rules governing their interaction. Conflict is seen as a kind of exchange that lead parties to reduce each other's benefits, regardless of whether they gain individually. Collaboration is seen as a form of exchange through which parties can mutually gain benefits. In practice and also ideally, participatory planning requires the forms of exchange which will be citizen-government collaboration.

Godschalk (1971) has analysed the concept of community participation from various points of view. As can be seen from the above discussion , participation may take many forms, thus it may be pointless to establish a universal definition, but a destination specific definition may be useful.

### **Arnstein's Approach to Definition of Community Participation**

Arnstein (1969) defined citizen participation in her class oriented, radical definition as: '... a categorical term for citizen power. It is the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens, presently excluded from the political and economic processes, to be deliberately included in the future. It is the strategy by which the have-nots join in determining how information is shared, goals and policies are set, tax resources are allocated, programs are operated, and benefits like contracts and patronage are parcelled out. In short, it is the means by which they can induce significant social reform which enables them to share in the benefits of the affluent society (Arnstein, 1969: 216 and Arnstein, 1971: 71-2). In this definition of participation, the most important point is the degree of power distribution (Godschalk, 1971). Arnstein has approached this in terms of a ladder or typology of

citizen participation including eight levels, which are classified in turn among three categories relative to authentic citizen participation.

Starting from the bottom, these levels of participation are:

**Non-participation:** 1- Manipulation and 2- Therapy. These two rungs describe levels of 'nonparticipation' that have been contrived by some substitute for genuine participation. Their real objective is not to enable people to participate in the development process, but to enable power holders to 'educate' or 'cure' the participants.

**Tokenism:** Rungs 3 and 4 progress to levels of 'tokenism' that allow the hitherto excluded to hear and to have a voice: 3- Informing and 4- Consultation. When they are proffered by power holders as the total extent of participation, citizens may indeed hear and be heard. But under these conditions they lack the power to insure that their view will be heeded by the powerful. In this context, 'there is follow-through, no 'muscle', hence no assurance of changing the status quo. Rung 5- Placation, is simply a higher level tokenism because the groundrules allow have-nots to advise, but retain for the power holders the continued right to decide' (Arnstein, 1971: 73).

**Citizen Power:** Further up the ladder 'citizen can enter into a 6- Partnership that enables them to negotiate and engage in trade-offs with traditional power holders. At the topmost rungs, 7- Delegated Power and 8- Citizen Control, have-not citizens obtain the majority of decisions making seats, or full managerial power' (Arnstein, 1971:73)

Arnstein's (1971) approach to a definitional argument of community participation seems to be realistic. It reflects almost all possible forms of community participation in decision-making and the development process. In this sense, Stiefel and Wolfe's (1994) and Pearse and Stiefel's (1980) approach to definitional argument of community participation seems to be identical with Arnstein's approach. She emphasises an important point by stating 'citizen participation is a categorical term for citizen power'. This statement has a paramount importance since it does really reflect a range of possible power distribution to have-not individuals in community in real world.

In short, unlike many other attempts to pin down the elusive nature of community participation, Arnstein succeeds in establishing a definitional approach to the concept, which is analytical, comprehensive and realistic.

### **A Conclusive Statement for Definitions of the Concept of Community Participation**

On the basis of the definitional arguments and analysis of the concept of community participation, some conclusions or comment may be derived.

Firstly, it may be stated that experts have defined, explained and approached the term community participation to suit their studies to fulfil their pre-determined specific goals. This may be one of the reasons for emergence of divergent ideas on and approaches to the definitions of the concept.

Secondly, it may be claimed that, as most scholars have already stated, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to establish a universal valid definition of community participation (Burke, 1968; Cahn and Cahn, 1971; UN, 1981; Oakley and Marsden, 1984 and Santhanam, 1993). As is pointed out that 'even with a working definition it is impossible to identify participation as an actual social reality' (Oakley and Marsden, 1984: 19 quoting UNRISD, 1981:5). Rahman (1981:43), cited by Oakley and Marsden, 1984: 19, argues that, 'given its complex nature, participation can be explored but not contained in a formal definition'. That is to say that concept (participation) is multi-dimensional and is unable to be presented in any singular forum.

Third, the origin of difficulties in defining community participation may be due to the vagueness of the word 'community' as a sociological, political, geographical and cultural phenomenon and comprehensiveness of the concept of participation itself.

Fourth, as UN (1981:5) contends that meaning of community participation 'can vary considerably from one country to another and even within the same country. It can best be understood in the context of a specific country and its political and socio-economic system'. Therefore, every researcher should seek an approach to his/her own operational definition by taking into account socio-cultural, political, and economic conditions in a place where the research results are supposed to be applied

or evaluated. Furthermore, according to the nature of the sector of an economy, for which the participatory research or program is designed, the scope and meaning of the definition may change. Thus it may be further claimed that every participatory development activity should develop its own definition to clarify its scope of application. For example, form of participation in health care service, education and housing should be different from participation in rural development or in the tourism development process.

Research or project specific definition seems to be necessary since 'The nature of community participation ensures that it is a site of political contestation' (Willis, 1995:212) and meanings of each term may also vary according to the context in which it is used. Legge's statement has also proposed project or research specific definition of community participation. He says that 'There is a lively politics about the use of words; people in positions of power are able to project their preferred meanings as to what the words really mean' (Legge, 1993: 6 cited by Willis, 1995:212).

Fifth, community participation is about empowering the hitherto excluded. Its main concern is to get grassroots involved in the development process. Although the main concern is the same, ways of achieving this same main concern seems to be too many, each of which gives different levels of control over planning, decision making and allocation of resources.

Along with the above conclusive statements about definitions of community participation, it may be, in broad sense, stated that three main types of definition of the concept could be observed: 1) Community participation is seen as 'to take part', to be informed, to be consulted' and 'to involve in development process' without having any power to influence decisions. In this sense, community participation may be a tool for power holders to legitimate what they are doing. 2) Community participation is referred to participate actively and directly in the decision making process, and execution of development planning with some power to influence decision, allocation of resources, and to control legislative institutions. 3) Community participation is seen as a concept which cannot be defined in a single definition, thus it must be explained by approaching to it from different points of view. According to this view, form of community participation is determined by various conditions such as political, socio-cultural and economic structure of a place where the participatory planning approach

is intended to be implemented. This view reflects almost all possible forms of community participation, hence it is realistic.

As the definitional arguments about the concept of community participation in the previous sections may have implied, that there are many types of community participation. To examine some of them may contribute to an understanding of the concept of community participation, thus the next section will focus on types of community participation.

### **Typology of Community Participation**

Community participation may take very different forms, ranging between citizen power to manipulation (Arnstein, 1971 and Hughes, 1985). Evidently, not every kind of participant is appropriate for every kind of objectives (Chetkov-Yanoov, 1986). In the same line, every kind of participation is not befitting for every kind of purpose; matching of purpose with type of participation should not be suppressing, which may have caused types of community participation to emerge.

Although there were divergent ideas upon types of community participation, there has been a tendency for opinions to converge on the issue. Indeed, different experts have classified the same concept under the same scope but with different names. Certainly, it is possible to examine types of community participation under many headings. However, it has been preferred to classify it under three main headings like UN (1981) and Morgan (1993) have done. These are: 1) Spontaneous participation, 2) Induced participation, 3) Coercive participation (see Figure 2.1).

### **Spontaneous Participation**

Spontaneous participation is voluntary, base-up without external support. It represents an ideal mode of participation, as it mirrors a voluntary and autonomous activity on the part of the people to handle their problems without government's or other external agencies' help (UN, 1981). This type is also referred to in the developmental literature as informal (Sherraden, 1991), bottom-up (Wolfe, 1982 and Rajakutty, 1991), 'community supportive' (Morgan, 1993:5 quoting Werner, 1976),

social participation (Morgan, 1993: 5 quoting Muller, 1983), wide participation (Morgan, 1993 quoting Rifkin, Muller, and Bichmann, 1988), active participation (UN, 1975, Cheema, 1987 and Santhanam, 1993), authentic participation (Wolfe, 1982 and Midgley, 1986b) or self-planning (Wandersman, 1981). It may represent degree of community power in Arnstein's (1971) typology of community participation, which has been discussed in one of previous sections.

Although the above terms for spontaneous participation are used interchangeably, to explain some of them in further detail may help to manifest some other dimensions of this kind of participation.

**Active participation:** It takes place when its purpose and content clearly originate with people themselves. The people feel that they are acting as free agents rather than under any duress or pressure, or as a result of manipulation or deception (UN, 1975). It is assumed that the active involvement of the people on the basis of their free will in decision making can contribute more fully to the intended development (Cheema, 1987). In other words, it is 'the collective effort by the people concerned to pool their efforts and whatever other resources they decide to pool together, to attain the objectives they set for themselves' (Santhanam, 1993: 419 quoting ACC Task Force on Rural Development, 1978).

**Direct participation:** It involves physical interaction and face to face relationship between those persons in whom community has vested the authority to make decisions and the people affected by those decisions (UN, 1975 and Richardson, 1983). Direct participation in decision-making does not automatically imply membership of a decision-making body (Richardson, 1983). In other words, direct community participation does not necessarily mean to delegate decision making power to those people who will be affected by any decisions made

**Informal participation:** It is 'unofficial or unsanctioned'. It takes place in unstructured and unofficial day to day interactions between community development staffs and members of the local community or between local leaders and community development staff. That is to say that, informal community participation occurs outside the formally designated structure of participation. It takes many different forms and varies widely throughout communities. Thus, it is not easier to define and quantify it (Sherraden, 1991).

The concept of informal community participation originates from the workings of informal organisations, polities, and economies (Le Vine, 1989, cited by Sherraden, 1991). It has been argued that the informal realm runs semi-autonomously, and frequently in opposition to official and formal organisation (Sherraden, 1991 quoting Scott, 1985, de Soto, 1989, and Skalnik, 1989). Sherraden (1991) has argued that informal community participation affects implementation of local development programs, and, in addition, has significant effects on policy development.

Figure 2.1. Typology of Community Participation

Spontaneous participation	Induced participation	Coercive participation	UN, 1981
bottom-up UN, 1981, Midgley, 1986b, Rajakutty, 1991	top-down	top-down	
active UN, 1975, Cheema, 1987 and Santhanam, 1993)	passive UN, 1975 and Santhanam, 1993	passive	
direct UN, 1975	direct or indirect UN, 1975	direct or indirect	
informal	formal	formal	Sherraden, 1991
degrees of community power	degree of tokenism	non-participation	Arnstein, 1971
participation in whole process; decision-making, implementation, sharing benefit and evaluating	participation in implementation and sharing benefits	participation in implementation and sharing benefits	Cheema, 1987
creation of parameters and objectives and self-planning	choice between proposed alternatives, and feedback	no participation	Wandersman, 1981
coproduction	conflict	paternalism	Susskind and Elliot, 1984
authentic participation	pseudo-participation		Wolfe, 1982 and Midgley, 1986b

**Authentic participation:** It has been stated that the term authentic participation is ambitious. Few proponents in this field have recognised the formidable



difficulties in fully involving all members of the community in all aspects of development and equally few have become aware the practical problems of advocating full autonomy over local affairs (Midgley, 1986b). Authentic participation mirrors movements of the grass-root. It is not imposed from above; it is a demand of the community to be responsible for, and to decide its own affairs. It emphasises on distribution becoming a means of obtaining a larger share in the fruits of development and heightens the participant's awareness of their own capabilities to make choice and influence content and outcomes of development (Midgley, 1986b quoting UNRISD, 1980). It has been claimed that authentic participation necessitate profound social structural change and a massive redistribution of social-political and economic power (Pearse and Stiefel, 1980). Moreover, UN (1981:9) argued that 'the involvement of the poor will not only need a change in domestic political institutions but a change in the international economic order'.

Because, particularly in developing nations, the structure of social, economic and political institutions have been established by outsiders; that is international social and economic, and political organisations and a few relatively rich and superpower countries' governments. Indeed, these bodies play the role of the invisible hand. That is to say that they control socio-economic and political structure of developing nations through using the elites in those countries (Harrison 1988).

In brief, meaning of spontaneous participation can be mirrored by the amalgam of those terms which are used interchangeably. That is to say that spontaneous participation is a participation through which a local community can involve itself in the development process (decision-making, implementation, sharing benefits and evaluation) actively and directly by creating alternatives approaches to development in their local territory.

### **Induced Participation**

Toward the other end of the continuum, induced participation is 'sponsored, mandated and officially endorsed'. This type is the most common mode to be found in developing countries. Since , in many developing world, the Government has a central role to initiate participatory action and institutionalising it. This has been done

through such strategies as motivating and training local leaders to assume leadership roles, building self-management and co-operative organisation, and supporting civic and community bodies (UN, 1981).

Induced participation is also called formal (Sherraden, 1991), top-down (Morgan, 1993:5 quoting Werner, 1976, Rajakutty, 1991, Wolfe, 1982 quoting UNRISD, 1980) passive participation (UN, 1975, Santhanam, 1993) or pseudo-participation (Wolfe, 1982 quoting UNRISD, 1980 and Midgley, 1986 quoting UNRISD, 1980). To explain those terms which are used for induced participation may contribute to an understanding of the typology of participation in a wider sense.

**Passive participation:** 'The idea of passive participation involves the people in actions that have been thought out, designed and controlled by others (Santhanam, 1993: 419). Passive form of participation occurs where people only endorse decisions made for them rather than by them, or people merely involve in implementation of decisions about which they were not consulted. Thus, their participation is passive. That is to say that, in the case of passive participation, contribution of people to development is limited to their performing assigned tasks (UN, 1975).

**Indirect participation:** It refers to modes by which the community takes part in participatory activity, but not experiencing personal, and face to face interaction with official spokesman (Richardson, 1983). People's opinions are conveyed to those individuals in whom the community vests responsibility for making decisions through institutionalised and episodic channels of communication. At one extreme, demonstrations, boycotts and other forms of mass action and at the other extreme public opinion polls (which can be used to assess how the community feels about vital issues) or referenda are means of indirect participation. Another form of indirect participation takes place when people react to problem situations on an individual basis through writing letters, signing petitions, attending legislature and administrative hearings, or taking resource to judicial proceedings. In the centre of indirect participation are representative institutions, through that community is represented on a group basis via popularly elected legislatures, trade union and peasant union federations, interest groups and political parties (UN, 1975).

**Formal participation:** It is officially structured and sanctioned. Rules and content of participation are determined by government. Though formal community

participation activities have important impact on local program implementation, but it has only limited influence on policy design and development (Sherraden, 1991).

**Pseudo-participation:** It refers to a kind of participation of people in implementation or the ratification of decisions already taken by external bodies (Midgley, 1986b). The typical African co-operative whose statutes, internal regulations and modes of operation have been predetermined by government officers with whom people in local community do not agree is an example of pseudo-participation (Bugnicourt, 1982).

### **Coercive Participation**

At the extreme end is coerced participation which is compulsory, manipulated and contrived (UN, 1981). It is also named as community oppressive (Morgan, 1993: 5 quoting Werner, 1976) narrow participation (Morgan, 1993:5 quoting Rifkin, Muller and Bichmann, 1988).

For example, in Northwest Washington State participation in land management may represent induced and coercive participation. The Washington State legislature passed the Growth Management Act in 1990. The Act required public participation in the development of growth plans by the local jurisdictions. In response to the first requirement of the Act, Whatcom County, Washington drafted a temporary Critical Areas Ordinance, protecting wetlands and wildlife habitat and controlling development in flood and seismic hazard areas.

In 1992, before preparing the draft ordinance, county planners informally searched the views of developers, members of the real estate community, environmentalist, and others with interests and/or expertise in land management. After the plan was drafted, four citizen hearing were held. Despite a large number of citizens made presentations at the hearings objecting to or expressing concern about the ordinance as drafted, the Whatcom Country Council unanimously approved it on June 22, 1993. Several interests groups have taken action against the ordinance by signing petition and taking the case to the Washington State Supreme Court (Cvetkovich and Earle, 1994)

## **Some Critical Issues in the Typology of Community Participation**

As noted previously, community participation can take many forms (see figure 2.1). Although it is possible, at least in theory, to classify participation, it may not be possible to distinguish completely those many forms of participation from each other in practice. Thus figure 2.1 shows only different names of certain types of community participation in the developmental literature, rather than types of community participation in the real world. In brief, to a certain extent they may overlap each other. For example, UN (1981) has claimed that sometimes coercive forms of participation is indistinguishable in form from the induced type.

Nevertheless, it may be claimed that different socio-cultural, political and economic structures and conditions of different local areas have stimulated the emergence of types of community participation. Hence, to propose any forms of community participation as the best or better development strategy for any local territory without taking into consideration local conditions could lead to failure. As a result, we may claim that what is appropriate participation is appropriate only for local areas under certain local conditions at certain times. From this perspective community participation as a development strategy is said to be a dynamic process rather than a fixed prescription or static policy instrument. The natural sequence of the discussion in this paragraph may advance the argument that it is the class structure, pattern of power distribution, pattern of state and community relation which determine the form of participation which can be practised in a socio-political territorial unit.

As noted, spontaneous community participation refers to voluntary action of community to involve in decision-making, implementation and evaluation of their own affairs. Thus, it is a bottom-up approach through which the local community could create its own parameters, and determine its own objectives for its development. In this sense, as Suskind and Elliot (1984) have argued, it is a co-production in which residents can negotiate face to face with decision makers and claim a major stake in particular decisions.

The crucial point is how can this kind of participation be initiated, developed, implemented, and sustained by underclass people? Is it possible in the developing

world where most people may not have enough power to claim their basic rights from the state and where fruits of economic growth are so unevenly distributed that though some people live in luxury, most of them have difficulties to meet their basic needs? UN (1975:8) stated that 'induced participation is the most prevalent mode to be found in developing countries'. Although the statement of UN (1975) is as old as two decades, it seems that this argument is still valid for most parts of the developing world since socio-economic and political structure, and the international economic order have not been change much since then. Obstacles of community participation will be discussed in the next chapter of this study, hence it will not be discussed in any further detail here. But, it may be stated that the bottom-up approach to community participation has fundamental constraint in developing countries.

Coercive and induced participation both represent a top-down approach to community participation, whose aims, scope and outcomes are determined by central authorities or their local extensions. Thus, they seem to be a kind of tokenism to achieve objectives of elites. As UN (1975: 8) has claimed that coercive forms of participation, at least in the short term, 'yield immediate results; in the long run, popular participation that is forced and lacking in public support will turn out to be counter productive and erode citizen interest in becoming involved in development activities'.

Based upon the discussion and statement until this point, it may be argued that community participation as a means for development remains as a controversial issue. Thus, it requires careful attention from its proponents. Local conditions must be examined in detail to find possible obstacles to community participation and necessary remedial adjustments should be made accordingly.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter was an endeavour to bring about a some conceptual clarity regarding related concepts such as 'community' and 'community participation'. It examined definition of 'community', and then provided a working definition of community for the purpose of this study. After discussing the origin of community participation by analysing various definitions of the term, this section suggested that it

seem to be impossible to establish a universal definition. It was stated that even with a working definition it is difficult to identify 'community participation' as an actual social reality.

Due to its complex nature community participation can be explored, but not contained in a formal definition. Thus, this chapter also provided a brief account of approaches to defining of community participation, but avoided developing a definition of it. Moreover, based upon the overall discussion, typology of community participation was analysed, which suggested that community participation can take many forms.

As stated, this chapter aims at providing a conceptual framework for this study. The next chapter will be an attempt to examine community participation in the context of the tourism development process.

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**CHAPTER-3**  
**COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS**

**Introduction**

This chapter has four main aims. First, it will examine the arguments for community participation in the tourism development process. In order to achieve this aim, in general, developmental literature will be reviewed and a broad lists of arguments for the issue will be given. Then, emergence of participation of the community in the tourism development process as a modern concept in tourism will be briefly discussed based on the discussion in chapter two. After reviewing the literature on community participation in tourism, and borrowing some ideas from developmental studies on participatory strategy, seven main arguments, which are interdependent and interrelated, for participatory tourism development strategy will be discussed in detail. These seven main issues are: 1) community participation and implementation of tourism development plans; 2) community participation and developing tourism in a sustainable manner; 3) community participation and tourist satisfaction; 4) community participation and tourism professionals; 5) community participation and distribution of cost and benefits of tourism development; 6) community participation and satisfaction of local felt-need in tourist destination; 7) and the democratic process and community participation in tourism. Obviously, they are not completely exclusive, but when taken together they may make a strong argument for community participation.

The second aim is to identify possible barriers to a participatory tourism development strategy. Three main categories of barriers are determined. These are: 1- barriers at operational level; 2- structural barriers; 3- and cultural barriers. The third aim is to propose some strategies to promote community participation. Mainly, three kind of strategies are proposed. These are: 1- decentralisation of planning activities; 2- training for participation; and 3- strengthening the communication system. The fourth aim is to develop an overall critical approach to participatory tourism development strategy in relation to the discussion in the chapter. This chapter and

chapter two will provide the theoretical framework for examining the case of Urgup in Turkey.

### **Arguments for Community Participation**

There are different arguments for community participation in the development process amongst scholars and practitioners. It would be useful to state some of these arguments before discussing the issues in details in terms of tourism development.

White (1982: 20) has given nine different but interrelated and interdependent arguments to support the importance and necessities of community participation in the development process (CPDP). His arguments are not for a particular subject area, but they seem to be valid for many fields of research. These nine arguments are as follows: more will be accomplished; services can be provided at lower cost; participation has an intrinsic value for participants; catalyst for further development efforts; participation leads to a sense of responsibility for the project; participation guarantees that a felt need is involved; participation ensures things are done in the right way; use of indigenous knowledge and expertise; and freedom from dependence on professionals.

Indeed, Hollnsteiner (1977) had raised arguments in favour of CPDP before White's publication, and they overlap more or less White's arguments. Hollnsteiner (1977: 13) had contended that involving people in the decisions that affect their own lives is significant for several reasons: 'a sense of responsibility through direct involvement, rectification of planners' misconceptions and general increase in community's self-reliance'.

Hollnsteiner (1977) has argued that reasons for people participation in formulating the kinds of development and communities in which they will live goes beyond a simple reference to traditional ideological debate about the participatory development approach. Furthermore these arguments may show that participation as a development strategy is not an end itself. Hollnsteiner (1977) and White (1982) have implied that community participation is an instrumental end which is aimed at achieving the ultimate goal of the community. The ultimate goal is 'development' which has found its better meaning in Todaro's definition:

'Development must be conceived of as a multidimensional process involving major change in social structures, popular attitudes, and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality, and the eradication of absolute poverty. Development in its essence, must represent the whole gamut of change by which an entire social system, tuned to the diverse basic needs and desires of individuals and social groups within that system, moves away from a condition of life widely perceived as unsatisfactory and toward a situation or condition of life regarded as materially and spiritually better' (1989: 89).

Boaden et al (1982) have approached the issue from a public administration point of views. They have argued that there are four main reasons which have made community participation necessary to be considered as an alternative strategy at local government level. These reasons are: functional fragmentation of public administration; centralisation of local government; professionalisation of service provision; and the increasing remoteness of government from people.

Boaden et al (1982) have argued these issues by considering the conditions in the United Kingdom. Thus, they may not be equally valid reasons for other countries. In other words, it may be stated that the reasons for CPDP may change according to socio-cultural and political features, and level of economic development of community, sub-national area and country. Although these arguments have been studied with a special reference to health, education, rural development and transportation, there seems to be lack of study of these issues in the tourism literature. Thus in the following sections, arguments for community participation with a special reference to tourism development in a developing country such as Turkey will be examined based on related literature.

### **Emergence of Community Participation in the Tourism Development Process**

As discussed in chapter two, the infrastructures of community participation are the legacy of western ideology, the influence of community development programs in developing countries, and western social work and community radicalism. Indeed, these historical antecedents provided a source of inclination for community participation as a modern concept in housing, transportation, education, health, etc. Midgley (1986b) has claimed that community participation has emerged as

a viable development approach as a direct consequence of the UN's participatory development programs.

These three historical antecedents of community participation may also be seen as a source of aspiration for CPTDP (community participation in the tourism development process) as well. Since community participation has been previously used as a development strategy in other areas of social, political and economic life, those experiences have become the modern sources of inclination for community participation in the tourism development process. Indeed, the emergence of community participation as a current popular issue in tourism may have different explanations which could stem from features of the tourism industry. These will be examined in the next sections. Before discussing the reasons for CPTDP in detail, it may be useful to quote some scholars who have already, implicitly or explicitly, examined the issues by giving catch words employed by them.

### **A Chronological Account of Studies in Participatory Tourism Development Approach**

Murphy (1983 and 1985) seems to be a pioneer scholar on community participation in the tourism development process. But, before the publication of Murphy's 'Tourism: A Community Approach', in 1979 authors of 'Tourism The Good, Bad and Ugly' have stated that 'the people who must live with planning decisions should be involved in their formulation' (Rosenow and Pulsipher, 1979: 81). de Kadt (1979: 23) has argued that 'The people who enjoy or suffer, the main impacts of tourism are those who live in the communities in the tourist destination areas', thus community's interests must be formulated and defended. Valle and Regt (1979) have noted that in Ixtapa-Zihaatanejo, the Community Development team sponsored certain types of courses to educate local people to take advantage of tourism development. In 1983 Getz has contended that 'successful tourism development depends on strong community support' (p. 87). In same year, D'Amore (1983) and Murphy (1983) has claimed that destination community is an important component of the tourism product. In 1985 Murphy has stated that 'the industry uses the community

as a resource, sell it as a product, and in the process affects the lives of everyone' (p. 165).

Haywood (1988: 117) has claimed that for desired guest-host relationships '... a participatory approach to tourism planning is of the utmost importance'. In the same year, Lea (1988) has suggested that community involvement should be a necessary ingredient in developing tourism destinations and increasing the quality of tourism's benefits to national development. Ritchie (1988: 199) has stressed that '... a reasonable degree of consensus is needed for long term success' of tourist destination. Murphy (1988) has emphasised that community driven development is essential. Blank (1989: 4) has claimed that 'communities are the destination of most travellers...it is in communities that tourism happens. Because of this, tourism industry development and management must be brought effectively to bear in communities'. Keogh (1990: 450) has noted that the outcome of numerous tourism impact and resident attitude studies in host communities 'has been a call for increased public participation and, in particular, a more community-oriented approach to tourism planning'.

Inskeep (1991) has approached to community participation in the TDP from implementation and humanistic (as a right to have a voice shaping their future community) point of views, and has called for the maximum involvement of the local community to maximise socio-economic benefits of tourism for the community. George Washington University's International Institute of Tourism Studies (1991: 9) has stated that, as its assembly report of 'Policy Issues for the 1990's', 'Resident responsive tourism is the watchword for tomorrow: community demands for active participation in the setting of the tourism agenda and its priorities for tourism development and management cannot be ignored'. Murphy (1992) has argued that the community oriented tourism development requires to find a way of creating more workable partnerships between the tourism industry and local communities and develop facilities both for host and guest. Mathieson and Wall (1992) have stated same argument like Keogh (1990) and they have noted that 'the public now demand that their concerns be incorporated into the decisions-making process. ... there has been little public involvement in tourism planning. This explains the neglect of this topic in the literature on tourism' (p. 181).



Ritchie (1993: 379) has contended that as part of 'metamorphosis of the democratic process ... the residents of communities and regions affected by tourism are demanding to be involved in the decisions affecting their development'. Prentice (1993: 218) has stated that 'community involvement in tourism development has become an ideology of tourism planning'. Woodley (1993: 137) has argued that 'a community-based approach to tourism development is a prerequisite to sustainability'. Inskeep (1994: 8) is in line with Woodley; 'An important aspect of sustainable development is emphasising community-based tourism'. Willams and Gill (1994: 184) have approached the issue from establishing a social carrying capacity point of view. They have claimed that 'community involvement in establishing desirable conditions is perhaps the single most important element of growth management' in tourist destinations. Pearce (1994) has stated that community involvement represents a techniques of limiting negative social impacts. Ryan and Montgomery (1994: 369) has stated that '.. communities need only to be educated about the benefits of tourism, and that their involvement in good visitor management techniques will actually solve problem'. Simmons (1994: 99) has argued that involvement of the community in tourism development process is vital 'if any region wishes to deliver tourism experiences which ensure both visitor satisfaction and ongoing benefits for the residents of destination areas'.

Hall (1994) has claimed that '... satisfying local needs it may also be possible to satisfy the needs of the tourist', which is one of the key components of the notion of community participation. Jamal and Getz (1995) have seen community-based planning as a strategy for sustainable tourism development. Taylor (1995: 187) has stated that community is part of, perhaps essential to, the hospitality atmosphere. He has noted that '... the recognition of the need to involve the community is widely accepted'.

Brohman (1996) has advocated community participation in tourism development process as if it is a panacea for problems of tourism in Third World. He has contended that community participation in the TDP will achieve more equal distribution of the benefits, discourage undemocratic decision making and will meet the needs of the local community in better way.

Based upon the brief chronological account of studies on the participatory tourism development approach, it may be possible to make several conclusions.

First, the above statements suggest that there is no consensus amongst scholars on using the words to conceptualise the participatory approach as a development strategy in tourism. Clearly, they have used different words such as community involvement, community-based, community-responsive, community participation, community driven, community-oriented and community collaboration to explain the same development strategy. Second, this disagreement may show that there should be different mechanisms to practice community participation as a development strategy. Third, it may not be useful to give a broad definition of community participation since forms of participation can change according to various factors in tourist destinations. Fourth, these statements about participatory tourism development seem to be normative and even some of them speculative since there may not be sufficient evidence for validate them particularly in tourist destinations in a developing country such as Turkey. Moreover, it may not be possible to test their validity in the short term as it will require repetitive research and relatively large research expense.

### **Arguments and Reasons for Community Participation in the TDP**

Arguments for the participatory development approach are not very clear and there seems to be few systematic studies which examined the issues. By bearing these difficulties in mind, in the following sub-sections arguments and reasons for the participatory tourism development approach will be examined.

### **Community Participation and Implementation of Tourism Development Plan**

The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (1980) established an inventory of 1619 assorted tourism plans in 1980. WTO survey concluded that 'only 66.5 per cent, or more than half of the projects or plans have been implemented'. There is an obvious fact that 43.5 per cent of the plans were observed as unimplementable. There are various reasons for unimplemented plans, which can vary according to features of

each community, region and nation. But, when the evolution of tourism development planning and tourism literature are examined, it may be noticed that there seems to be a missing ingredient in tourism development plans. This missing ingredient may be 'community participation'. Most tourism development plans have been prepared by central authorities who may not be aware of conditions under which the plans will be implemented at local levels by their regional or/and local extensions. Thus, planning and developing with local authorities and communities rather than for them, may help central bodies to know what local resources are available for tourism development in their locality. Murphy (1983: 188) has stated that 'the lack of sufficient consultation and planning at the local level has certainly contributed the delay and demise of many projects and policies proposed by central planning agencies'. Moreover, it has been claimed that without the citizenry support of the public, implementing even the best laid plans will be very difficult (Harsseel, 1994). In other words, 'successful tourism development depends on strong community support' (Getz, 1983: 87).

Inskip (1991) has argued that community participation in the planning process and plan implementation is important due to the fact that tourism development takes place in existing and well established socio-cultural, political, economic and administrative environments. For some forms of alternative and special interest tourism, socio-cultural and environmental considerations are particularly sensitive, and participation of the local community in planning and implementation is necessary to ensure that the tourism development benefits the local community and is not disruptive to the local community.

Inskip's arguments may be valid for many tourist destinations. But, there seems to be a problematic issue; if level of development is so low in a host community how can members of the host community be educated or persuaded for developing some forms of alternative and special interest tourism which are mostly related to the tourists' professional interests? Additionally, it may be more difficult to persuade some indigenous community in underdeveloped areas of the world that tourists are coming for some special reasons since such reasons may not be so special for that community. In other words, special interest tourism may not be easily accepted by host communities. For example, visiting for aspects of nature such as flora, fauna, geology and national parks, traditional ways of life, history, archaeology, dance and music may

not be understandable to traditional communities. Moreover, personally challenging and some times dangerous activities related to special interest tourism such as safaris in remote areas, trekking and hiking, mountain climbing, river rafting, and white water boating through river rapids might be seen as unacceptable things by local people, thus they may not behave hospitably and support these kind of tourism activities.

Moreover, Buck (1984) has claimed that community participation will permit the development of implementable policies; the assumption being that if communities believe they have had a say in a fair and open process of policy and plan development then they may be willing to accept the outcome of that process. Moreover, Broadbent (1988: 139) has proposed community participation as an essential element in making comprehensive plans and to ensure the feasibility of them. It has also been claimed that 'In future if the bureaucracy just makes the plan as if the citizens did not exist, it will be hard to get citizen understanding and co-operation'. Plumlee et al (1985) have supported these arguments. They have stated that community must be involved in formulation of the plan; including determination of the planning goals, and to develop community support that will ultimately lead to acceptance and implementation of the plan.

### **Community Participation and Developing Tourism in a Sustainable Manner**

Taylor (1995) has noted that since the publication of Murphy's *Tourism: A Community Approach*, the concept of community participation in tourism development process has become a central issue in the debate on sustainability. It has been contended that

'An important aspect of sustainable development is emphasising community-based tourism. This approach to tourism focuses on community involvement in the planning and development process, and developing the types of tourism which generate benefits to local communities. It applies techniques to ensure that most of the benefits of tourism development accrue to local residents and not to outsiders. Maximising benefits to local residents typically results in tourism being better accepted by them and their actively supporting conservation of local resources' (Inskip, 1994: 8).

McIntyre et al have claimed that 'The more that community residents benefits from tourism, the more they will be motivated to protect the area's natural

environment and cultural heritage and support tourism activities' (1993: 28). Additionally, D'Amore (1983) has argued that the limits of local tolerance to tourism can be increased through participation of locals in tourism development process, thus social carrying capacity can be increased as well, which is defined as 'that point in the growth of tourism where local residents perceive, on balance, an unacceptable level of social disbenefits from tourist development' (Cooke, 1982: 23 and d' Amore, 1983: 144). That is to say that 'communities have a certain capacity to absorb tourists. Growth beyond this capacity or threshold may result in negative social or environmental impacts and diminishing returns on tourism investments' (Allen et al, 1988: 16-17). It has also been contended that involvement of local community may be a tool to maintain unique lifestyle, fulfil residents' aspirations and prevent alteration of qualities of a given area to suit tourist expectations. Thus, visitors' satisfaction can also be increased since visitors seek for a place which is a unique and different from their home land and from their own communities (D' Amore 1983).

Community participation may be more needed by developing countries than developed countries since, as claimed by most scholars, democratic activities of people in developing countries are marginalised compared with developed countries. In relation to tourism development, in developing countries tourism has become a priority sector in public policy due to the fact that it has considerable economic impact on the Third World economies. Thus, perhaps, Jenkins (1980: 27) argues that: 'Tourism in developed countries can be regarded as a mainly social activity with economic consequences: in developing countries it is largely an economic activity with social consequences'. As Third World's governments have given paramount importance to tourism in public policy, alienation of community from this major sector of economy may mean alienation of people from economic, socio-cultural and even from political life in some local areas where tourism has become main sources of income and dominant social activity.

Moreover, most tourist destinations were undeveloped rural areas before tourism has taken place which may imply that historically local communities in tourist destinations are alienated from socio-economic and political life. They are thus poorly placed to exercise the participatory control over their resources that sustainability apparently demands. On the other hand, it has been stated that no matter what our

substantive knowledge on a particular subject, and no matter how we develop our capabilities in information handling, operation research, and prediction, if there is no evidence to develop community's capacity for improved decision-making within the framework of the democratic process, there is the real possibility that large investment in planning techniques will have been in vain (Fagence, 1977 quoting Bolan, 1967). Community participation may help the tourism industry to contribute to national development in a better way in the long term if local people have a voice in the decision making process. That is to say that participatory approach can be an instrument to sustain contribution of tourism to economic growth and development at local and national level. Additionally, participatory development strategy can be considered as a tool to improve the community's capacity for making decisions within the democratic process.

### **Community Participation and Tourist Satisfaction**

Tourism development may not be sustainable itself without a sufficient number of satisfied tourists. Briefly, 'if the visitor does not feel that a place is worth a visit then it will disappear from the tourist map (Cooper, 1993: 77). Since the destination community is accepted and promoted as an important component of the tourism product, there should be no doubt that tourist's satisfaction will be affected by the quality of the host community's hospitality that depends upon the willingness of the community to support tourism. This may be heavily determined by how much benefit they receive from tourism in their locality. D'Amore (1983: 143) has stated that 'Another component of supply of tourism resources is the attitudes and behaviour of the hosts, since these qualities form a significant part of the tourist experience'. Another advocate of participatory tourism development has argued that 'while all scales of planning are important for tourism development, planning at the community level is vital if any region wishes to deliver tourism experience which ensure both visitor satisfaction and ongoing benefits for the residents of destinations areas' (Simmons, 1994: 99).

Taylor (1995: 488) has noted that a 'friendly community' is desirable for all kinds of inward investment but for the tourist destination it is the stuff of advertising'.

The problem is that no promise of hospitality, the opportunity of sharing the private life of local communities has no legitimisation. As Wood (1994) has argued what is purchased by tourists except some specific items such as bed and breakfast 'remains largely undefined'. Indeed, the undefined part may be the most important component of the tourist product. Tourists can buy another breakfast and can change their beds or hotels, but they cannot change the destination because most of them have very limited time and money for a given year. Moreover, dissatisfaction from a holiday may mean dissatisfaction for a whole year since tourists perceive holidays as a felt-need and panacea to get rid of job stress. Participatory development strategy may be a means to increase tangibility of intangible tourism products and improve tourist satisfaction by creating a reasonable consensus between tourism development and the host community, which may motivate local people to be more hospitable. In other words, participation of local residents in tourism development planning may create a sense that it is their own decision to develop tourism in the current shape.

### **Community Participation and Tourism Professionals**

It has been noted that 'The tendency of professional self-interests to produce bureaucracy is by now a set-piece of sociology' (Tillotson, 1994: 512). Thus, reordering priorities within the planning and economic development professions may be necessary. Planning for people is now old fashioned, and planning with people should be considered (Robinson and Shaw, 1990 quoting Thornley, 1990). Moreover, Hollnsteiner (1977) has stated that reason for people's participation is the re-education it gives architects, planners, and administrators directly involved in the project. By showing them another perspective on the matter under study, low income groups can give their middle and upper class counterparts new insights into the ways of their clientele. The product of years of technical training, the specialist has probably lost his capacity to empathise with lower income people's view points. Midgley (1987: 10) is in line with the above arguments. He has noted that the 'elite specialists' professional education engenders an attitude of 'knowing best'. But, by failing to involve the ordinary people, these 'developers' impose external solutions and foster

paternalism; they also frequently make mistakes that are monumentally costly and wasteful'.

Boaden et al (1982: 15) have stated that 'People's participation thus rectifies planning errors by making it possible for clients to point out to technicians-managers what will work and what will not. It is a wise listener who takes these points seriously and (evaluate) plans and programmes accordingly'. Moreover what an Australian Aboriginal Woman said seems to be relevant to the issue; 'If you have come to help me; you can go home again. But if you see my struggle as part of your own survival; then perhaps we can work together' (Colchester, 1994: 69 quoting ANGOC, 1989: 4).

With the emergence of tourism as an economic phenomena in a developing country such as Turkey, tourism planners have led tourism development to maximise economic benefits by attracting maximum numbers of tourists and building physical superstructure. It may be said that tourism development plans have been prepared for tourism by central government *with a perception that as if local community does not exist*. As a result, community involvement is a missing ingredient. This may be due to the fact that 'Tourism planners are generally persons with qualifications in urban and regional planning, urban design, or landscape architecture who have evolved a specialisation in tourism and resort planning through experience' (Inskeep, 1988: 370). It may be therefore Inskeep (1988): 370) states that

'The planners or the government should involve the residents in the decision making process of developing tourism and give them sufficient opportunities to receive its benefits through employment at all levels, easy access to tourist facilities and attractions, and equity ownership of facilities and services... Planners should develop tourism gradually so that residents have sufficient time to understand and adapt to it, and the scale of tourism should remain at a level that allows the society to cope with it'.

In other words, 'Central to this community-driven tourism planning is an explicit recognition that experts cannot judge the perceptions, preferences or priorities of host communities. Murphy argues instead for the direct participation of local communities in tourism planning and development' (Pearce et al 1996: 10-11).



## **Community Participation and Distribution of Cost and Benefits of Tourism Development**

Smith and Eadington (1992: 9) have argued that the current style of tourism development has already created 'winners' and 'losers' among local people. Furthermore, many of the 'winners' in Third World resort communities are outsiders who then may be viewed 'as exploiters of the native population and rapists of the land. The International Institute of Tourism Studies (1991:9) has reported that 'There is a need to recognise that tourism must benefit the local community and that there must be broad-based participation in tourism development decisions at the community level'. Tsartas (1992) and Brohman (1996) have raised similar arguments. They have stated that local residents have received very limited and unfair benefits although they have to live with possible impacts of tourism development such as overcrowding, conflicts over resources use, rising prostitution and other crime, the collapse of social control, the loss of cultural identity, acceleration of inflation, etc.

Taylor (1995: 488) are in line with the statements about distribution of costs and benefits of tourism development. He has stated that

'... tourism entrepreneurs within a community may not actually be part of that community. They may be 'off-comers', strangers who import qualities which do not and cannot stem from the group itself, or they may be in some ways marginal, perhaps better equipped to profit from tourist enterprises'.

On the other hand, in some tourist destinations, environmental and socio-cultural costs of tourism development have outweighed the economic benefits of tourism (Brohman, 1996), with which the local community has to live. The following statements about environmental and social costs of tourism may give some evidence.

'Having ruined their own environment, having either used up or destroyed all that is natural people from the advanced consumer societies are compelled to look for natural wildlife, cleaner air, lush greenery and golden beaches elsewhere. In others words, they look for other environments to consume. Thus armed with their bags, tourists proceed to consume the environment in countries of the Third World-the last 'unspoiled corner of earth" (Brohman, 1996: 58-9 quoting Hong, 1985: 12).

'We don't want tourism. We don't want you. We don't want to be degraded as servants and dancers. This is cultural prostitution. I don't want to see a single one of you in Hawaii. There are no innocent tourists' (Pfaflin 1987: 577).

As can be noticed, the above quotations may imply that international tourism is perceived negatively by local people in some tourist destinations. Moreover, the quotations may reflect that international tourists have been seen as explosive, lavish, hedonistic and foreign with lack of cross-cultural understanding and communication. These indications are supported by Din (1989) and Dogan (1989).

Mansfield (1992) and Brohman (1996) have argued that many countries in the Third World need an alternative approach to tourism development, which may both spread its costs and benefits equitably and which would be more sensitive to its socio-cultural impacts. Moreover, a large proportion of local people should benefit from tourism rather than merely bearing the burden of its costs (Brohman, 1996). Murphy (1985), Keogh (1990), Simmons (1994) and Brohman (1996) have suggested that community-based tourism development seems to be an approach to be used as an alternative tourism development strategy, which may give a better opportunities to host communities who seem not to benefit from a tourism industry which is driven by market force.

Tourism development diversifies previously homogenous communities, and the diversified community exhibit different responses to touristic development (Dogan, 1989). Indeed, tourism does not only diversify the community, it may also change the power structure in a tourist destination at the expense of indigenous people who may be excluded from tourism development. As Hall and Jenkins (1994: 77) have stated, 'Awareness of the political dimensions of tourism, and more particularly the uneven allocation of power in a society or a community, should caution us about the representativeness of outcomes of tourism planning exercises'. Furthermore, in some developing countries such as Turkey, particularly at the beginning of tourism development, the domain of bargaining became quickly and narrowly focused upon certain material reciprocities. Entrepreneurs seek an abatement of property tax and seek a development bonus. The rounds of negotiation continue without regard for long term consequences, distributional inequities and externalities. For example, Emek (1991) and Tosun (1998) have claimed that the

Turkish tourism industry received generous incentives during the 1980s, which may be partly due to pressures of private entrepreneurs on decision-makers. As Sezer and Harrison (1994) have claimed, tourism development has created a get rich mentality in Turkey. The end product may be that local people increasingly come to feel alienated, and 'resident consider that tourists are catered to ahead of local needs; that infrastructure and facilities are not available to locals' (D'Amore, 1983: 151).

### **Community Participation and Satisfaction of Local Felt-Need in Tourist Destinations**

It is important that tourism development patterns reflect the needs and desire of local communities (Inskeep, 1994). It is stated that many projects failed since the real needs of the community were not taken into account (Bradley and Karanadasa, 1989). Thus, projects should be fitted to people's needs, rather than vice versa. While local people do need better hospitals, schools, houses and food, it may be naïve to develop tourism by stating that it will contribute to these felt needs. For example, Long (1991:210) has stated that in Santa Cruz, a tourist destination in Mexico,

'Local infrastructure was in some aspects deficient and stores could not maintain adequate supplies and groceries for the burgeoning populace. Public transportation was inadequate; buses had sporadic schedules and taxis were usually full. Resident complained that a visit to the public clinic took an entire day, as there were insufficient facilities and staff for the demand. Medical services in the area had improved according to most of the respondents, but many were still dissatisfied with the services available. Many said they sought out private doctors in the town of Pochutla, an hour's bus ride away'. (Moreover), 'The original residents of Santa Cruz did not have cars and had to walk the kilometre over the hill separating Santa Cruz and La Crucecita to visit people, go to work, seek out services or go to the stores that were divided between the communities. As they walked over the steep hill, cars and trucks raced by, forcing the pedestrians into the drainage ditch along the side of the road. The local's use of roads did not appear to have been considered in road design, as no sidewalks were installed'

Community participation in the tourism development process may be considered as a tool to evaluate local people's needs.

## **Democratic Process and Community Participation**

The more the community participate in the tourism development process, the more feed back and input in various forms flows towards official bodies, which may decrease the gap between community and decision-makers. Communication between community and decision-makers during participatory development strategy is not only from down to up, it is also from up to down; it is a two way communication. Thus, it may increase awareness of the community about and interests in local issues, which may strengthen the democratisation process, that is badly needed in developing countries. As Wruth has emphasised 'A popular government, without popular information, or the means of acquiring it, is but a Prologue to a Farce or a Tragedy; or perhaps both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance: And a people who mean to be their own Governors, must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives' (1992: 293 quoting Madison, James, 1910: 103). Participatory strategy may be a tool to gain that knowledge which may arm the community to challenge élites' interests in tourist destinations.

Macpherson (no date), cited in Rose and Hanmer (1975: 33), has implied that 'variant democracy is very limited, in that it regards the citizen only as a 'consumer' and not as a 'doer". In this regard, it is inadequate and unfair to package community's values, beliefs and culture and market them in international tourist markets without giving them opportunities to decide the scale and form of that product. This kind of approach to tourism development is undemocratic. Thus, 'assessing the community's regional hopes, aspirations, and values requires reasonably high-quality and diverse public input if the views of those who value public involvement in the planning process as a desirable part of democracy are accepted' (Syme and Macpherson, 1991: 1780 quoting Baber, 1984; Gran, 1983). Moreover, 'appropriate policy in a democracy is determined through a process of political debate' (Davidoff, 1965: 332). Community involvement in the policy planning process and decision making is a paramount component of the political debate.

It was observed that there is a trend from centralisation to decentralisation. And the political power has moved away from central government to states, cities, town and neighbourhoods. This trend has given an opportunity to local people to deal

with their own problem (Naisbitt, 1984). It can be argued that the community approach to development is ushered in by the decentralisation trend that is the result of a real democratisation process and that community involvement encourages democratic government. Davidoff (1965) stated that if democratic urban government is encouraged by the planning process then citizens participation must be guided and supported in such a process.

Democratic theories has always considered participatory democracy as a societal value, which advocate extensive direct participation in decision making by as many members of the system as possible. It has been believed that self-determination by ordinary citizens permits the high potential capacity of human beings to reach rational and effective decision-making (Fong, 1986). If community participation is accepted as a tourism development strategy, local people may articulate and realise their own interests and promote the stability and efficacy of tourist destination and social institutions in tourist destination.

In the Third World Countries, 'Although the poorest groups are in the majority, they are the least influential and seldom able to express their views. Their powerlessness is often conveniently interpreted as passivity and indifference but the real problem is lack of opportunity for their direct involvement'. Also, state development programmes tend to favour elite groups (Midgley, 1986c: 9). If tourism as a cross-cultural and international socio-economic activity, and one of the biggest industries in the world does not desire to support this undemocratic development, local communities should be given opportunities to determine the scale and types of tourism development which may otherwise threaten their simple way of life by accelerating the process of modernisation and social change with which they may not cope. As Midgley (1986b) has contended, by organising local people and making them aware of their situation, community participation provides a mechanism for the mobilisation of the masses and a collective means of redress.

Brohman (1996: 61) has stated that the tourism development process should lead to the participation of various groups from social classes that represent the diverse interests of the broader community. 'This would not only discourage undemocratic, top-down decision making, but also provide opportunities for communities to use their own resources and popular creativity to find locally

appropriate methods of tourism development'. On the other hand, since planning has a time dimension, planning by the public authority within a community can become very difficult because of changes caused by elections. 'This lends further support to the need to involve residents and other key stakeholders into flexible and dynamic planning process that can sustain the changing administration and adjust to other forces impacting on the tourism system' (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 199).

### **Barriers to Community Participation in Tourism Development Process**

There seems to be an agreement amongst scholars that in spite of insistence on community participation in the development process, it has been observed that the performance of participatory development strategy is not encouraging and authentic participation seldom occurs (Hollnsteiner, 1977, United Nations, 1981, Hollnsteiner, 1982, Law-Yone, 1982, Oakley and Marsden, 1984, Nkunika, 1987 and Anderson et al, 1994). Though agreement on the limited success of community participation has emerged, there seems to be no consensus on what causes the emergence of the unsatisfactory output.

Commentators have tried to explain the causes of the lack of participation and, more tangibly, the obstacles which hinder its implementation, but 'Inevitably such explanations reflect the ideological paradigm employed by the commentator' (Oakley and Marsden, 1984: 29). That is to say that there are considerable comments on the obstacles to participation. Therefore, it seems little point in reproducing them at some length here, thus we shall limit this section to reviewing the major obstacles. Although such obstacles are not mutually exclusive, theoretically we will classify them in three main different groups.

### **Barriers at Operational Level**

It has been argued that 'to view participation as a means suggests a set of obstacles usually associated with the operational procedures of the task undertaken' (Oakley and Marsden, 1984: 29). These are centralisation of planning activities, lack of co-ordination and lack of information.

**Centralisation of the Tourism Planning Process:** To clarify centralisation as an obstacle to community participation, it may be worth quoting UN (1981: 15 ) at some length:

'In virtually all developing countries, the planning apparatus has become highly centralised. The planing office, not uncommonly, is lodged in the office of the national chief political executive, who may even have a direct role in its operations, by and large, the operations of national planning agencies are not decentralised and resist efforts to bring about such a devolution in management and functions. The effect of this is to restrict the influence of community-level groups on the planning process, and implementing plans. Under these circumstances, centralisation has stifled popular participation in planning. It has increased the vertical distance between planners and the broad mass of the population.

It may be added that the UN's argument is not for a specific sector of an economy. It is raised in general terms. However, it may be valid for tourism as well; since tourism has become an important industry for the economies of developing countries, and central authorities in these countries have paid careful attention to gain maximum economic benefits from the industry. Hence, planning and management of tourism have centralised in a way that can contribute to achieving pre-determined government objectives. This kind of centralisation may make it difficult for the grass-roots in tourist destinations to convey their comments and ideas on style of tourism development in their locality to decision makers.

**Lack of Co-ordination:** 'The lack of co-ordination and cohesion within the highly fragmented tourism industry is a well-known problem' to tourism professionals (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 186). It is obvious that '...No one business or government establishment can operate in isolation' (Gunn, 1988: 272). Development of co-ordination mechanism among the formal bodies, between the public and the private sector, and among private enterprises is not a easy task, but it is essential for the highly fragmented tourism industry (Inskip, 1991). However, in tourist destinations of a developing country, this may be a missing ingredient of tourism development process. Community participation as a development strategy in tourism requires proper and intensive co-ordination between and amongst agencies and communities since participatory tourism development strategy will invite more actors to play role in tourism development process, and thus increase the interaction amongst agencies. The

presence of lack of co-ordination may not activate potential opportunities for community to involve in tourism development process and, thus, may lead a participatory strategy to fail or to be ineffective.

**Lack of Information:** Development process can only go as far as available data allow. In most developing countries, information is lacking and even the collected and analysed data has not been disseminated to the citizens in ways that are comprehensible to them. Thus, the general public is in need of information which may allow them to participate in a more rational manner. The increase in knowledge gaps between centralised authorities and the community in a tourist destination may make it difficult for the community to participate in tourism development since without valid information community participation may not be effective or may be meaningless. One of the research result indicates that most residents are not well-informed about the tourism development plans. Thus, low public involvement should be expected. It is claimed that greater awareness and interest among members of the local community may be achieved if meaningful and comprehensible information contained in the reports and plans is disseminated (Keogh, 1990).

### **Structural Barriers to Community Participation**

Barriers which are more associated with institutional, power structure, legislative and the economic system are named as structural barriers. Oakley and Marsden (1984) have argued that when participation is seen as an end, structural obstacles become apparent. Structural barriers to community participation may be examined under eight main sub-heading. These are:

**Attitudes of Professionals:** Some professionals claim that planning and development efforts are 'value-free' or a politically neutral exercise. Hence, participation of the community into the development process can only serve to politicise it and remove its professional base. Although some of professionals tend to become sensitive to the need for some form of participation if only ensuring information or consulting the community as to their preferences, they often accuse the poor of a present-oriented mentality which makes it impossible for them to think beyond current needs and problems (UN, 1981).



Wolfe (1982) has argued that the main tension between technocracy and participation stems from the confidence of the technocrat that his/her professional qualifications find the 'One Right Answer' to development problems. On the other hand, UN (1981) argues that the introduction of the layman into the development process and administrative system is perceived to undermine the professional basis. Suetens (1981) is in line; the officers of the technical service, who formulated the draft, can usually provide technical quality in their work. That is to say that the possibility of other and better alternatives being prepared by amateurs is seen as unrealistic. Frideres et al, (1982) have stated that it is not understandable and reasonable for professional groups to allow the lay person (with no expertise in the technical component of the development and perhaps a vested interest against the proponent) to involve in the decisions making process, which might cost them more time and money.

**Lack of Expertise:** Inskip (1988: 370) has stated that

'The services of tourism planners for projects in both the public and private sectors, are currently in demand within most planners' home countries and internationally- particularly in newly-developing tourism countries and regions that still lack expertise in tourism planning even though they may have qualified urban and regional planners'.

Inskip (1988) argues that with the recent growth of tourism world-wide, tourism planning has become a specialised area and it has developed its own specific techniques, principles, and models while drawing on general planning methodology. He states that 'much research and experimentation are still required for the refinement of tourism planning, especially in analysis and control of socio-economic and environmental impacts and concepts of new development forms of tourism'. He also notes that all facets of tourism planning needs to be studied and the field offers many opportunities and challenges. Moreover he suggests that 'The planning profession can respond to that need by adopting suitable educational and research programs on tourism planning...' (1988: 371). But the problematic issue may be that adopting an appropriate educational and research programs on tourism planning may not be possible for a developing country such as Turkey since it also requires expertise and relatively large budget. In this regard, service of foreign experts seems to be necessary.

**Unwillingness of Politicians and Their Appointees:** Brindley et al (1989: 176) have stated that 'There is not political will at central government level for participatory planning'. This may be one of the main barriers to community participation in the TDP. In general, as Jenkins (1992) has implied, central authorities have promoted tourism by solely accepting the economic case for tourism development, which may mean that they ignore long term consequence of tourism for local people. Furthermore by winning election and becoming in power for certain time intervals, politicians and their appointees seem to have claimed that they are entitled to take all necessary decisions in the name of those who elected them without further participation requirements during their terms of office (Suetens, 1981). Moreover, there is a view inherently in much community participation thinking that the state is oppressive and hostile to authentic development. By referencing to totalitarian regimes in the Third World, it has been argued that the state is not only disinterested in development, but also 'Rigorously suppress the effort of progressive elements to bring about meaningful changes' (Midgley, 1987: 11). In other words, government of developing countries deal irrationally with the grass-roots who seek to improve their welfare (Hollnsteiner, 1977). That is to say that many forms of state intervention in socio-economic life seem to be manipulative and antithetical. Third World politicians seem to be far beyond the realisation of development ideals, particularly the participatory development strategy (Bugnicourt, 1982).

On the other hand, politicians and their appointees have seen grassroots movements 'as nothing other than resident's egotism, narrow personal and local interests' (Broadbent, 1988: 133). Moreover, there is also 'bureaucratic jealousies' among official authorities. For example, a ministry of tourism would not tolerate any other department trespassing on what it regards as its territory (see Gowand and Vansant, 1983). Ultimately, this may create lack of co-ordination amongst agencies, which may hinder community participation.

**Elite Domination:** Broadbent (1988) has argued that the state must serve the interest of the dominant social class and its political representatives. Consequently, the stimulus towards community participation provide little more than a symbolic sham intended to defuse discontent. From this point of view, many important decisions occur out of the community eye, emerging as non-decisions.

On the other hand, foreign domination of the Third World tourism industry resulted in the loss of control over resources which may increase the adverse impact of tourism development. Members of a local community usually find themselves caught up in a 'globally integrated system of resources over which they cannot exercise control'. Decision-makers at central level and elitist bodies who are exogenous to communities in tourist destinations target to control local communities and their resources upon which they depend. Decisions affecting their daily life, future and many local matters are normally made without considering these local people, rather they are made 'according to the narrow interests of those that control the tourism industry' (Brohman, 1996: 55). The struggle between elites and local people to control resources has been ignored by local governments. Since more and more regions are developed for mass tourism, adoption of political economic policies that effect a balance between local ownership and external ownership of resources and control over those resources as well as between tourism and other sectors of the economy becomes a crucial need (Brohman, 1996: 55 quoting Oliver-Smith et al, 1989). Thus if communities in tourist destinations are not empowered in a real sense, as Bradley and Karunadasa (1989) have stated, involvement may be restricted to elites in the community, which often result in their interests being considered rather than the interests of the community. In other words, domain of elites in participatory decision-making may enhance their own status.

**Lack of Appropriate Legal System:** Participatory tourism development strategy may bring the habitually unorganised into the policy-making process. Creating these opportunities for those who are poorly organised may do little to negate the influence of the interest groups already active in the tourist destination and tourism policy area (see Berry et al, 1984). Thus, a legal structure which can defend community interests and ensure community's participatory rights in tourism development may be needed to increase the effectiveness of participatory development strategy. Moreover, legal structure in many developing countries do not encourage local people to participate in their local affairs, rather the legislative structure puts a distance between grass-root and formal authorities, and it is difficult to understand how it is operated from a layman point of view. Unless the community's

participatory right is taken under legal protection, the grass-roots in tourist destinations may always face to the risk of corruption and manipulation.

**Lack of Trained Human Resources:** Formulation and implementation of community participation in tourist destination areas may require expertise. This is often scarce , expensive, and thus not attainable. On the other hand, there are lack of trained residents in the hospitality and international tourism management in many tourist destination of developing countries. It may be stated that 'Without a trained local work force, the industry can only function by importing staff, in which case the principle of ensuring local benefits from tourism is thwarted' (Woodley, 1993: 143). Thus, for active participation of local people in tourism, training is an essential element. But, this training must be outfitted to the needs of the community. A study on training needs in tourism/hospitality industry in the Northwest Territories showed that training must occur at the local level, otherwise residents would not be interested in participating (Woodley, 1993). Additionally, low literacy rate may necessitate to replace traditional training manuals and written materials to be effective (Woodley, 1993 quoting University of Guelph, 1990).

**Relatively High Cost of Community Participation:** It has been contended that community participation requires considerable time, money and skills to organise and sustain participation (Paul, 1987 and Thomas, 1990). In other words, participation of members of community can demand significant time and effort of professionals to complete projects (Runyan and Wu, 1979). That is to say that 'it is more time consuming and may lead to conflicting objectives amongst the local aims' (Inskeep, 1994: 10). Since it may raise expectations in the community eye, which may not be easy to meet. Therefore this time consuming and complex process of participatory development strategy may lead to delays in the decision-making process (Ventris, 1985), which may burden the developers with high loan interest (Fogg, 1981). This may also disappoint those who expect a quick return from investment (Paul, 1987). Moreover, providing benefits for the local people may mean foregoing more general benefits. Thus it is accused of only taking account of the short term local interests and excluding wider national interests. Consequently, potential commercial developers, essentially outside interests, may be the main loser (Brindley

et al, 1989). Thus they may increase pressure and create speculation to prevent or manipulate participatory tourism development strategy.

The pressures of resources constraints in the public sector and contradictory investment criteria in the private sector seem to be main challenge for a participatory tourism development strategy. To overcome these problems may be the real test for this kind of development approach (see Brindley et al, 1989). Thus, most state agencies may resist this kind of reforms which demand them always to follow elaborate, costly procedures intended to increase community involvement (Ethridge, 1982). Moreover, it may not be accepted by local authorities since their representatives role may be questioned through moves towards citizens empowerment in addition to being expensive in terms of resource implication (Anderson et al, 1994).

**Lack of Financial Resources:** Woodley (1993: 145) has touched upon the issue particularly from the view point of financing tourism development at community level.

'One of the most significant determinants of control in the tourism industry is ownership and investment. In most peripheral communities financing for tourism development is not available and must come from outside interests. Whether funds originate from private interests or government, the loss of control which stems from outside investment is difficult to overcome. In spite of efforts to encourage community participation, if residents do not own the tourism infrastructure, control over growth and style of development is difficult to achieve'

The Woodley's argument mirrors one of the main problems which a participatory tourism development approach faces in many tourist destinations in developing countries. This problem should be seriously considered. Without addressing this problem, any participatory tourism development approach might represent tokenism.

### **Cultural Barriers**

Opponents of community participation usually claim that poor people have limited capacity to handle development effectively, and they have low interest and awareness to participate in local affairs. There are considerable gaps between host

communities and tourists, and professionalists and local people. These three factors may be discussed as cultural barriers to community participation.

**Limited Capacity of the Poor:** It has been stated that the grass-roots have limited capacity to handle the things which directly affect them. Thus, they have a general resistance to change (UN, 1981, Oakley and Marsden, 1984 and Oakley, 1991). Moreover, it is argued that 'depending on their motives, power holders can hire poor people or co-opt them, to placate them or to utilise the have-nots' special skills and insights' (Arnstein, 1971: 74).

In this regard, to quote UN (1981: 22) at some length may clarify further this point.

'The masses of the people in developing countries are absorbed by the daily challenged of survival, which makes it difficult for them to become closely involved in issues of public concern. Lack of education, a high incidence of health problems and widespread poverty tend to perpetuate this situation; and, true interests than is normally attributed to it, it is dependent on government administrators who are all too often insensitive to its true needs or insufficiently attuned to its interests. This dependence is intensified by the lack of effective community organisations that can be instrumental in defining and advancing the collective interests of the poor. In the absence of corrective measures, popular participation in administration, under these circumstances, is likely to be manipulative in nature'

UN seems to have touched on a significant point which exists in tourist destinations of the developing countries. Host communities usually and widely have limited or no access to services of a welfare state. Many governments in developing nations have focused on serving organised groups such as civil servant and employed workers in modern sectors of the economy. People in rural areas living by farming have not been given enough opportunities to use basic welfare services such as hospitals and schools. Logically, and according to Maslow's need hierarchy, they are motivated to meet their basic needs and felt-needs by forgetting wider socio-political issues which indeed prevent them from satisfying their those needs in more efficient ways.

**Apathy and Low Level of Awareness in Local Community:** The perception of low level of interest in and awareness about socio-cultural, economic and political issues amongst the grassroots is generally accepted. There seems to be several reasons for this arguments. 1- Hollnsteiner (1977) has argued that for years,

indeed centuries in some cases, the grass-root have been excluded from the affairs which have effected them, and have rendered them apathetic about taking a hand in matters beyond their immediate family domain. Miller and Rein (1975: 7) have argued that apathy among the poor effectively stop them demanding that the institutions which serve them accommodate their needs. The output is that their 'plight worsens and their capacity for effective action is further weakened. A vicious cycle of poverty reinforces a vicious cycle of bureaucratic dysfunction'.

2- it is claimed that 'Citizens tend to participate only when strongly motivated to do so, and most of the time they are not motivated' (Rosener, 1982: 344). This may arise from the belief that their idea will not be considered, which does not motivate them to express an interest. And indeed, many poor people often act with a fear of making objections which could be used against them at a later date (Suetens, 1981).

3- Anderson et al (1994) have contended that the community does not know any pattern of active participation and participation itself, thus it is a rather daunting prospect. They certainly have knowledge, beliefs and ideas, but may find expressing them difficult or believe that there is no point as involvement is not seen to have any positive output. Many people thus have an apathetic attitude and in the end only members of elites groups or the very confident may participate in local affairs. Brohman (1996) has touched upon the issue with a special references to local people in tourist destinations. He has contended that current style of tourism development has increased alienation amongst local populations. If this is true, it may be argued that it is this kind of alienation which may force local people to be apathetic which cause low level of awareness about potential and current costs and benefits of tourism development. Ultimately, alienation of local people may have stopped them having sufficient knowledge about the nature of tourism development in their locality. According to Simmons (1994), the potentially poor knowledge of tourism amongst local people make necessary considerable efforts to persuade the general public to participate in the tourism development process.

Simmons has argued that 'there is evidence of a need for greater public awareness about tourism, its benefits and its costs, how the industry is structured, about its current contribution to a community's welfare, and about how tourism might evolve'. McIntyre et al (1993: 28) have supported the above argument. They have

noted that though the community usually tries to gain benefits from tourism, they may not have 'a realistic understanding of what is involved in achieving this development and what are the impacts of tourism'. Jamal and Getz (1995) has noted that lack of awareness is one of the factors which acts as a barrier to effective communication at community level tourism development.

**Other Cultural Barriers:** It has been argued that the nature of tourism seems to create barriers to participation by local people since tourism is a cross-cultural industry and that the culture of residents in destination areas often differs from the culture of visiting tourists. Guests may visit the host community with expectations of a certain kind and quality of service and facilities though residents of the host community are not familiar with these expectations. Moreover in many tourist destinations a lack of tourism planners has resulted in planners with a different cultural background being brought in to lead the process. This may create communication barriers and low credibility since there exists cultural differences between planners and hosts. Sometimes, there is a language difference between planners and residents, which also create barriers to effective participation (Woodley, 1993)

The critical point is how these barriers can be removed or re-shaped. This is a challenge for proponents of a participatory tourism development strategy. In the following section this issue will be considered. As there is limited study of this issue, the task is difficult and risky, but it should be considered.

### **Strategies for Promoting Community Participation**

There is no definite prescription to remove the barriers to community participation and to develop a effective participatory model which involves a set of fixed rules. However, UN (1981 and 1975) has recommended strategies to deal with the barriers to community participation and promote the practice of it. The recommendations of UN will be examined in the context of this study.

**Decentralisation of Planning Activities:** Decentralisation 'is used to refer to the delegation, or devolution, of a greater degree of decision making authority to lower levels of administration or government' (Burns et al, 1994: 6), which is claimed as the heart of any attempt to stimulate effective community participation (UN, 1981



and Gow and Vansant, 1983). It has been argued that government planning machinery must be more accessible to the population at large. This implies that part of the planning mechanism with its personnel and functions must be transferred to lower levels of political and administrative authorities. It is assumed that planners at the community level can be more responsive to the preferences of the people, who are now better able to make a direct impact on the planning process. This may go a long way towards helping to establish participation as an important principle in planning (UN, 1981).

**Training for Participation:** It has been proposed that training of technocrats and local people or local leaders may increase effectiveness of community participation in the development and planning process (Hollnsteiner, 1977). Introducing courses in schools of planning on the uses of community participation in planning can help planners work with people in a constructive manner (UN, 1981). On the other hand, establishing training courses and conducting workshops and seminars on the subject, with participation of community leaders may help community leader become familiar with the issues of planning. 'The aim is not to make local leaders into planners, but to educate them to work with planners in ways that will permit them to become effective spokesmen of their constituents' (UN, 1981: 17). Training of local leaders in the rudiments of tourism planning, concepts and practices of development, collection, dissemination and uses of data, and techniques of community organisation may promote participation in tourism development process (see UN, 1981).

**Strengthening Communications Systems:** It has been argued that communication systems should provide a two-way information flow amongst professionals, communities and decision-makers to increase effective community participation. This kind of information flow may ensure that professionals and decision-makers are familiar with the community's preferences and the local people are made aware of the opportunities, as well as disadvantages of a particular development program (Gow and Vansant, 1983). Thus, issues related to tourism should be encouraged to appear on local newspapers, periodicals, radio and television station and other media of mass communication. Particularly, educational documentary related to tourism should be put on the air on local radio and television.

This kind of program should be supported by entrepreneurs in tourism sector, central government and local authorities.

Information may serve a process role in facilitating local involvement in decisions and action. In other words, information can be regarded as a necessary ingredient in building local involvement. Thus, it may also supply the necessary feedback information for adapting tourism development initiatives to local conditions. Local leaders or steering committee or task force established for tourism development on behalf community should know what data are already available and the extent to which they are used in decision-making (see Gow and Vansant, 1983). It has been claimed that 'simple is optimal' in regarding of communication and information flow system. Thus, existing communication system should be used though it may be relatively informal and unstructured, and its outward manifestations difficult to discern. Despite its lack of rigour and sophistication, present available information and communication system can be incorporated into a local tourism development program and used to provide implementors with a basis for sensible decisions (see Gow and Vansant, 1983). Additionally, information system should not only make information available to local population and local leaders on what tourism development has to offer, it should also determine the information needs of the local population and their representatives.

### **Community Participation in the Tourism Development: A Critique**

Although arguments for, emergence of, barriers to and strategies for community participation in tourism were considered and discussed to certain extent, critiques of these main issues have not been fully given for theoretical reasons. They are discussed as pertinent pointers below.

### **Arguments for the Community Participation: A Critique**

In relation to arguments for participatory tourism development it may be said that all of the arguments given in favour of participatory tourism development strategy may not be found equally valid from every point of view. Some may be

thought to apply in some localities and others in different ones, but they are not in general mutually exclusive, and taken together may make a sensible argument. Based upon the arguments for community participation in tourism development discussed in this chapter, critiques of those arguments may be given as follows.

**Community participation and implementation of a tourism development plan:** Although Getz (1983) and Harssel (1994) have proposed a community approach to tourism in relation to facilitating implementation of tourism development plans, they have not given satisfactory evidence and have not developed a model to show this relationship. Buck (1984), Plumlee et al (1985) and Broadbent (1988) have advocated a participatory strategy in relation to the implementation of development programs in the same manner with these scholars in tourism.

Based upon the discussion related to this issue, several points can be raised as conclusions. 1- Without considering budgetary and technical constraints, and the public administration system, community participation may not make any contribution to the implementation of plans. 2- Community participation alone cannot secure community support for implementation of a tourism development plan. It may only strengthen community support for certain forms of tourism development which are desired by host communities. On the other hand, conflicts between central government and local communities may arise, and opposition to tourism development may emerge as a political protest if locally desired forms of tourism are not supported by central government. However, participation of a community may integrate an appropriate type and scale of tourism into local conditions and thus it may facilitate implementation of the plan. 3- Not all forms of community approach will facilitate implementation of tourism development plans. Thus it is difficult to discuss the relationship between participatory tourism development strategy and implementation of the development plans in a definite manner without further research and evidence. However, it can be considered as an additional factor to prepare implementable tourism development plans.

**Community participation and sustainable tourism development:** When the arguments for the relationship between community participation and sustainable tourism development is analysed it can be noticed that contribution of community involvement to developing tourism in a sustainable manner depends upon certain

assumptions and conditions, some of which may not be possible to fulfil. For example, Inskeep's (1994) argument depends upon involvement of the community in the development process in a real sense; developing the types of tourism which generate benefits to local communities; benefits that accrue to local residents and not to outsiders and maximisation of benefits to local residents, which is supposed to lead local residents to accept tourism development in a better manner and actively support the conservation of local tourism resources. McIntyre et al have contended protection of cultural and national resources by local communities based on similar assumptions. Woodley (1993: 146) has argued that implementation of community-based tourism development, which is assumed to contribute to developing tourism in a sustainable manner, depends upon eradication of certain barriers. Such barriers include 'a lack of interest or awareness of tourism on the part of local residents; a lack of trained human resources to ensure local economic benefit from tourism; cultural barriers between hosts and guests and between planners and residents and a lack of investment capital within the community'. As can be seen, these barriers will be difficult to overcome. The participatory approach alone cannot achieve sustainable tourism development if dominant socio-economic and political conditions are not appropriate.

On the other hand, it has been claimed that community participation raises fundamental question about democratic policies. Arguably, such participation improves community efficiency, subjects developmental policy to societal scrutiny and protects the community from incompetence and corruption (Wruth, 1992). Protection of the community from incompetence and corruption may be necessary to achieve a sustainable development in developing countries. Moreover, a participatory development strategy may not necessarily be an appropriate means for this purpose under every circumstance.

Although carrying capacity of tourist destination has been debated by several scholars such as Pearce (1989), Inskeep (1994) and Smith (1994), non of them has developed a systematic method to establish it. This should not be surprising since determination of social carrying capacity involves subtle social variables whose complex interactions are difficult to determine or to take into account. Inskeep (1994: 63) has stated that the establishment of carrying capacity is often not easy or precise. Its calculation largely depends on assumptions that are made. It may also alter over

time. 'However, it remains a very useful technique in guiding planning for a sustainable level of development'. Indeed, the relationships amongst community participation, sustainability and establishing carrying capacity seem to be so complex that it may be not easy to give a definite statement. Though D'Amore (1983) has claimed that involvement of local people can increase limits of tolerance, this depends upon forms of participation, implementation of the output of participation, and the conditions under which tourism development takes place.

**Community participation and tourism professionals:** Although it has been claimed that involvement of the community will show another perspective to professionals and give insights (Hollnsteiner, 1977) and rectifies planning errors (Boaden et al, 1982), it has not been explained how this will work. For example, if level of development in a locality is very low; if local people are imprisoned by their basic needs and lack of knowledge of tourism how can these people show another dimension to planners and rectify planning errors? On the other hand even if the tourism planners draft a sound tourism development plan incorporating community interests if it does not serve the decision makers' interests, that plan may not be acceptable. Hence, in some senses tourism development plan should be political as well as developmental if it is to be implemented.

The participatory development approach may create opportunities for professionals to observe community life. Thus it may give opportunities to the professionals to empathise with local conditions under which tourism development will take place. Participatory tourism development can play a catalytic role between tourism professionals and local community. Its effective employment may depend upon the ability of the local community to communicate its views to the professionals and willingness of decision-makers to consider them.

**Community participation and distribution of benefits of tourism:** Although it has been argued that local people have not gained sufficient benefits from tourism, rather outsiders may be equipped to profit from tourism (Smith and Eadington, 1992, Taylor, 1995 and Brohman, 1996) and community based tourism development has been seen as an alternative strategy to generate more benefits to local communities (International Institute of Tourism Studies, 1991, Inskip, 1994, Brohman, 1996), there seems to be no evidence in practice that how the community

involvement has increased share of local people from tourism development. Moreover, any proper policy guidelines have not been given to achieve it, and difficulties of implementing such an alternative tourism development policy have not been considered. However, this does not mean that those scholars who have proposed community-based tourism development to improve distribution of benefits of tourism in a more desirable way have behaved in a naive manner. The normative and, to some extent, speculative statement may have emerged due to the fact that participatory tourism study is relatively new and has not been systematically considered and studied by those scholars who have both the theoretical knowledge of tourism and practical field experiences.

In conclusion, it may be argued that participatory development it may increase opportunities for local people to become familiar with the tourism industry. However, to increase the local share from tourism development may be determined by many factors, e.g. such as the ability of local community to use opportunities, availability of capital at local level to invest in the tourism industry, incentives given for tourism, the level and structure of tourism development. Additionally, it also depend upon the will of central government to promote a participatory tourism development strategy to increase the local share in tourism. That is to say that wealth distribution in any sector of an economy, such as tourism, is not directly related with development approaches and is not under the control of professionals groups. Though they can influence it, most decisions are determined by the current pattern of socio-political and economic domains in the society. As de Kadt (1979b: 45) states that '... if the forces making for inequality are left a free rein in their society and if policies aimed at the eradication of poverty are not vigorously pursued, promoting a greater equality of the benefits of this industry cannot be solely achieved by changing the approach to development.

**Democratisation process and community participation:** Although direct involvement of the community in the development process is defended to encourage democratic government, it is not definite that involvement of the community can be achieved in such a way that contributes to the democratisation process. In this regard, the level of education and consciousness of the community may determine the form and way of democratisation. For example, present power holders can use community

participation in a manipulative way to sustain their interests in the community, which may reinforce existing obstacles to community involvement and democratic activities.

### **Barriers to the Community Participation: A Critique**

Based upon the discussion on the barriers to community participation in tourism development process, several conclusions can be derived and several points can be raised as critical issues.

First, the barriers which have been considered in this chapter may not be all the possible obstacles to participatory tourism development. There may be other constraints that are not noted in this study. Second, they may not be only specific to participatory tourism development strategy. They may also be valid for participatory development approach in general. Moreover some of them may be *seen as common* problems of development in developing countries. That is to say that they may be an extension of the prevailing social, political and economic structure that exist in a developing country. As de Kadt (1979b: 45) has strongly contended that 'To the extent that problems in any sector, such as tourism, reflect the existing socio-economic situation, the development of the sector is likely to reinforce the position of the more powerful classes, confirming existing social patterns...'. In this respect, it may be naive to suppose that a participatory tourism development policy will change the existing structure of a local tourism industry in a developing country without changing dominant socio-economic and political structure of that locality. Moreover, it may be equally unrealistic to claim that participatory tourism development policy can be considered without any opposition. As Oakley and Marsden (1984) have argued that the current dominant paradigm of development thinking has such a power influence on development practice that it seriously constrains consideration of radical alternatives.

Third, all of these barriers may not exist in every local tourist destination. Some of them may appear as major barriers to participatory tourism development, some of them may not appear as constraints at all. But, as UN (1981) has argued that community participation in development planning cannot become much of a reality unless strategies are developed to tackle the constraints.

Fourth, it may be difficult to avoid stating that overriding barriers to meaningful participation at community level in tourism development lies with the prevailing social, political and economic structure of developing countries. Oakley and Marsden (1984) have stated that it is folly to ignore this fact. Thus it may be unrealistic to give prescriptions by which the barriers to community participation may be removed without existing socio-cultural structures being changed.

### **Strategies for Promoting Community Participation: A Critique**

The proposed strategies for promoting community participation may not be effective in every tourists destination. These strategies are not specific to tourism. Indeed, they were proposed by particularly UN (1981) for a participatory development approach in general. *For example, although decentralisation is advocated to facilitate community involvement at local level, it may not be an effective instrument. The ability of local authorities to use delegated power, ability of local leaders to organise the community, ability of overall community to reach consensus, hold local leaders accountable and choose capable leaders and to protect communal interest may be considered as factors which may determine whether decentralisation will be an effective instrument. Moreover administrative demands of decentralised management may overwhelm available resources. As de Kadt (1979b) pointed out, the ability of local authorities to impose the laws and regulations are limited and directed by important interest groups outside the community.*

What Blair (1978: 72 cited in Gow and Vansant, 1983: 438) said 20 years ago still seems to be valid for a developing country such Turkey in relation to decentralisation policy to increase community participation;

'There must be control from the top, yet there must be also flexibility at the bottom, and the two needs are fundamentally contradictory. If there is too much autonomy from control, ...development goes astray, with the benefits going to the rich. And if there is too much emphasis on supervision from the above in administering government programmes, ... development also goes astray, with the benefits again going to the rich. Finding the right mix of supervision and autonomy is probably the most difficult bureaucratic problem...'



In conclusion, decentralisation is not a panacea for the administration problem of the participatory tourism development strategy and tourism in general. Not every form of decentralisation will work under every condition.

Training is also proposed as an instruments for effective community participation, but it may not be a practical tool for this purpose. There may be two main reasons for this. First, any training programme require a proper place, special training instruments such as video, books and other educational material prepared according to features of audience. Second, training local leaders in participatory tourism development requires professionals who have specialised on both tourism development and in participatory development strategy. To find these kinds of professionals may not be easy. Moreover, a proper training programme may require a considerable amount of expense which may not be affordable to every community or local authority. Additionally, Simmons (1994) has contended that successful community participation and its maintenance require retention of the local ownership of tourism resources and facilities. *To achieve this outcome may not be easy since the local community may lack of financial resources to invest in the tourism industry.*

### **Deficits in Participatory Tourism Development Studies**

The literature review of participatory tourism development approaches and developmental studies suggest that there are several shortcomings. First, there is a lack of theory on participatory tourism development approach. As mentioned earlier, the chronological account of participatory studies in tourism suggests that there seems to be a conceptual vacuum. This may be basic cause of the unsatisfactory state of participation theory in tourism development. Additionally, the current sate of participatory tourism studies may imply that there is a need to draw lessons from other disciplines to improve the theoretical framework of, and develop implementable models for a participatory tourism development approach. Second, lack of a theoretical framework and implementable model does make it more difficult to accept the participatory development approach in tourism. Third, it may be stated that most studies have advocated community involvement in tourism as a panacea for the main problems of tourism development without considering constraints of the approach.

Moreover, these studies do not suggest a systematic process to follow for implementation. Fourth, community participation in tourism has mainly been studied with special references to developed countries. This development approach may have limited application for developing countries. Therefore, it may be problematic to anticipate what difficulties exist to implement this approach in developing countries and there is not enough evidence of how useful it is and will be.

### **Conclusive Statements and Discussion**

Based upon the overall discussions in this chapter it is possible to give some statements as conclusions and propositions.

1- No single tourism development approach possesses all the instruments to create a healthy tourism industry.

2- It may be stated that there is not a single appropriate form of community participation in the tourism development process. Indeed, community participation may take many forms according to features of communities, local authorities, degree of willingness of central government for implementing such approach, etc..

According to Arnstein (1971), there are eight different levels of participation in development and public administration programs. It varies from manipulation (non-participation) to community control (community obtains the majority of decision-making seats). According to UN (1981), there are three types of community participation; spontaneous, induced, and coercive community participation. Although spontaneous participation or citizen control are advocated as real form of participation, total community control or over-empowering the community may not be desirable even if it is possible. There may be several reasons for this. First, over-empowering the community may limit professionals from preparing tourism development plans based on their expertise. Second, reaching consensus may be more difficult since members of the host community will have a right to debate local issues without necessarily considering regional and national issues. Third, if consciousness level of the community is low, members of the community can be directed and exploited by dominant elites. So elites may legalise what they are doing and what they want to do. On the other hand, participation of the community in the manipulative

form is not desirable since it will not give a real opportunity to the community to express and convey its critical views and opinions to decision-makers. Finally, community participation in the form of 'co-production' and partnership may lead to preparation of realistic and unbiased tourism development plans. This form of participation may enable the community to negotiate and engage in trade-offs with traditional power holders. But final product of participatory tourism development may depend upon the sincerity of the actors, their ability to play their roles and the condition under which they perform their roles. What is emphasised is that a cautionary approach is needed.

3- Local people should be acknowledged why tourists visit their territory. Moreover, the potential and actual costs and benefits of tourism development should be conveyed to local people in a comprehensible manner. Incentives given for tourism industry, tourists numbers, bed capacities, features of tourism demand, difficulties of operating a tourism business, importance of tourism in local and national economy should be explained. This may help local people develop logical attitudes towards tourism and tourists.

4- Involvement of every member of the community in the tourism development process is an ideal situation, but this form of the involvement seldom happens (Harsel, 1994). It is not possible to create the opportunity for every resident to participate in a planning and decision making process. Most of the community decision makers do not have enough time to allot to all the 'nitty gritty' details (Rosenow and Pulsipher, 1979). It was argued that communities in tourist destination are said to consist of small groups of people. Participation of small groups can achieve so much and in some destinations 'it may be one determined person' (Murphy, 1988: 98). This statement supports the past researches which has recorded that involvement in public affairs is not a 'mass movement but rather the involvement and commitment of a few' (, 1988: 98 quoting O'Riordan, 1978).

5- If a local community is seen as inadequate to organise a participatory tourism development strategy, as de Kadt (1979) has argued, community interests should be formulated and defended by those representatives who have intimate knowledge about local facts and have an urge to see that local community's needs and

wishes are met. This might reflect a weak and passive form of participatory tourism development strategy.

6- It may be argued that every local tourist destination has unequal potential opportunities and challenges for a participatory tourism development strategy. However, this does not mean that community is not an important element of the tourism industry. As Valle and Regt (1979) defended, local authority must be prepared and educated to take complete advantage of the development of tourism, and a participatory development approach should be gradually implemented.

7- It may be stated that developing and implementing an effective participatory tourism development strategy is not an easy task and there is no single blueprint and a set of fixed rules for this purpose. Any intervention must be adapted to the specific environment in which it is to be practised.

### **Relevance of Community Participation in the TDP to Turkey**

In order to examine the relevance of community participation in tourism development to Turkey, it may be useful to look at the potential for participation and barriers to participation.

**Potential for Community Participation:** Existence of a democratic multi-party parliamentary system; democratic public administration structure; and a sense of community in many tourist destinations in the country may be seen as the potential infrastructure to employ a participatory tourism development strategy in Turkey.

A multi-party parliamentary political system may be one of the pre-requisites for participatory development strategy. The democratic political system gives opportunities to communities to create pressure on local and central decision-makers to involve local people in their affairs and respond to their needs.

Turkish society has put pressure on political parties to become more responsive and sensitive to their needs. As a result of this pressure, the political parties tend to establish policies to meet public's needs. Turkish society by its experience can distinguish what is good and what is bad for itself. In this regard, it may be argued that in tourist destinations host communities may react if its priorities are ignored. Moreover, it may be further argued that the high participation rate in

elections may imply that Turkish society has a considerable interest in its affairs. This may be considered as potential for a participatory tourism development strategy.

The existence of a local public administration system has organisational potential to handle involvement of the community in the tourism development process. With regard to the local administration there are General Council of Province, Municipality Council, Special Provincial Administration, Neighbourhood Council, Elderly Council (Village Council). Members of municipal, neighbourhood and elderly councils, and members of general council of province are elected directly by public and any Turkish citizen who is over 24 years old can be elected as a member of these councils (Adalet Bakanligi, 1994).

In brief, the existence of democratic local administration units can be utilised to support a participatory tourism development strategy. In addition to these democratic local administration units, other *local formal and informal organisations* such as head of local police station, town or province tourism manager, museum manager, culture manager, district education manager, local hotel-motel association, etc. seem to be potential organisational support units to organise a participatory tourism development strategy. In conclusion, it may be said that there are enough formal and informal local organisations to develop a participatory tourism development strategy in Turkey if they are given an opportunity to do so.

The existence of a sense of community and strong traditional relationship in Turkish society may be seen as source of motivation to participate in local affairs. The strong extended family is one of the most important elements to carry on traditional relationships and sense of community, which was stated as the Turkish economy's secret weapons by The Economist (1996). This may be seen as another potential resource for participatory development strategy since it facilitates communal decision-making.

### **Reasons for Participatory Tourism Development Strategy in Turkey**

There may be several reasons for implementation of a participatory tourism development strategy in Turkey at local level. These may be stated as follows:

1- Possible conflicts between host and guest, and between local people and seasonal workers in the tourism industry: Most of the studies' conclusions on impact of tourism development are that economic impacts of tourism were perceived as mostly positive while the socio-cultural, legal and environmental impacts in many cases were stated as negative and in some cases as neutral (Pizam et al, 1994). Moreover Liu et al (1986: 18) have argued that 'While all the benefits of tourism, there is increasing evidence that tourism negatively impacts the lives of people in the host community. Its development is usually justified on the basis of economic benefit and challenged on the grounds of social, cultural, or environmental destruction'. Reisinger (1994) has contended that the consequences of social contact of tourists and hosts largely depend upon cultural backgrounds of hosts and tourists, and the conditions under which they interact with each other. Tajfel and Dawson (1965) stated that social contact between individuals from different cultural background may result in negative attitudes and perceptions. According to Reisinger (1994 quoting Pearce, 1982b), social contact between host and tourists whose cultural backgrounds are not same may create a negative experience.

Inskeep and Kallenberger (1992) have stated that tourism development attracted unskilled migrants from elsewhere to touristic regions in Turkey, which has generated some stress on local housing and community services that has not yet completely solved. Morrison and Selman's (1991: 125) research in a small tourism destination in Turkey showed that 'the host community becomes heavily outnumbered by incoming business operators and seasonal workers leading to a shift in the political power base of the industry and alteration of local culture and morals'.

Thus 'For a tourism based economy to sustain itself in local communities, the residents must be willing partners in the process. Their attitudes toward tourism and perceptions of its impact on community life must be continually assessed' (Allen et al 1988: 16). In other words, it is important to ensure that the type of tourism developed fits into the host region. If particular attention is not given to this aspect, any tourism development may be threatened and therefore may not be sustainable in the longer term.

It has been argued that involvement of residents in local development decisions making seems to influence the level of support and attitude toward tourism

and tourists (Lankford and Howard, 1994 quoting Cooke, 1982). It has been further argued that 'When residents are involved with various community activities (self-assessed community involvement), they appear to be favourable toward community change and development' (Lankford and Howard, 1994: 125 quoting Napier and Wright, 1974; Doudy, 1977; Rosentraub and Thompson, 1981; Allen and Gibson, 1987). Furthermore, Ayers and Potter (1989 cited in Lankford and Howard, 1994: 135) have argued that 'the more attentive leaders are to residents' concerns, the more support they are likely to receive for community development efforts'. Educational programs, public meetings, and workshops may be employed at the local level to help residents understand the tourism industry and its impacts. Tourism entrepreneurs and public officials must be aware of its impacts and establish comprehensive efforts to maintain public services, preserve the environment, and create opportunities for public involvement where a sense of camaraderie (friendly intercourse) and *citizen control* can be maintained, even in light of increasing tourism activity (Allen et al, 1988).

In this regard, Lankford and Howard (1994: 136) argued that

local governments and tourism promoters should pay particular attention to the finding that if people feel they have access to the planning/public review process and that their concerns are being considered, they will support tourism, extensive efforts should be made to identify ways to involve the local resident in the continuing planning and design of their community. If it is merited, surveys, town hall meeting, public forums, and lecture series by government and industry officials will help to alleviate concern and create an acceptable level of tourism development.

2- Alienation of local people from socio-economic life: The Morrison and Selman's (1991: 125) research showed that 'host community alienated from tourism as its adverse impacts become apparent, particularly those affecting the culture and well-being of villagers such as debts and water pollution'. The Turkish case indicated that 'whilst tourism may be desirable to the economy of a country, it is not necessarily beneficial to the host community (Morrison and Selman, 1991: 126). For this reasons, 'Some governments are now starting to realise that the welfare of the public should be considered along with the needs of tourists and investors' (Crandall, 1987: 373). It is implied that this can be achieved via involving host community in the tourism development process (Lankford and Howard, 1994).

3-Protection of cultural and historical heritage for sustainability of tourism: 'Planning lags behind change, as it often does in Turkey, and change brings the destruction of much of the country's rich historical heritage' (The Economist, 1996:3). In other words, Turkey has tried to use every possible means to accelerate the industrialisation process at the expense of the historical and cultural heritage. Tourism development may be an excellent example for this case. Of course, '...it is not tourism itself which contains the virus which attacks the environment, but rather the methods adopted to develop tourism in the absence of proper assumption of responsibilities by the public authorities and where short term considerations of economic profitability are the sole development objective' (WTO, 1983: 12). In this regard, participation of community in tourism may bring relatively small scale development and slow down the development process, and thus it may help to preserve fragile historical and cultural heritage.

As The Economist (1996: 13) has reported, 'Even if they are operating in the official economy, Turkish businessmen specialise in getting round the rules. A journalist visiting the managing director of one of Turkey's largest companies found him poring over the building regulations. He had just begun to build a new factory by a lake, and to his surprise had been ordered to stop. The factory, he had been told, was on a registered archaeological site, and no study of the potential pollution impact on the lake had been carried out. 'I must study the regulations carefully', he said, 'there must be a way round them. In Turkey there always is'.

There is a need for tightening rule and regulation to protect cultural and historical heritage, this may be done via getting a local community involved in the decision making process, and creating opportunity for the public to control the development process. Indeed this may be more than a need since although 'the state is strong, most recent Turkish governments have been weak' (The Economist, 1996: 3) to operate rule and regulate to protect public interests.

4- Socio-economic and political instability: Domestic politics in Turkey seem to be unstable, which has brought wider economic and social instability. Since the last election in 1995 a permanent and reliable government could not be established. As in other industries, tourism has been effected negatively by the political instability. Due to the existence of weak governmental, some interest groups have violated rules and regulations to sustain their interests at the expense of society and the next



generations. Ministry of Tourism (1993) reported that between 1963 and 1993 23 ministers were appointed to this position. Average span of duty of every Minister of Tourism was one year and three months which was too short to achieve something particularly at national level. Sezer and Harrison (1994:82) stated that 'the historical position of the Turkish state with respect to tourism has been fairly inconsistent', which may be ushered in by appointment of too many ministers in very short time. As is widely known, high personnel turnover rate increases the cost of production. As Ozkan 's (1992) research indicated that most of the Ministers of Tourism had unrelated backgrounds. When they were appointed, they did not know how to operate the sector. Since they replaced the personnel at their Ministry when they took the position, they commenced learning how to manage tourism from their unskilled and unqualified employees. Brother et al (1994) pointed out that the change in government gave birth to something of a political hiatus and re-ordering of priorities, change in policies and personnel. These unstable policies has caused uncertainty.

In short, it may be said that Turkey does not have a long term tourism policy, hence, the political sustainability of tourism is at risk. On the other hand , if there is no long term tourism policy, it will be very difficult to speak about sustainable tourism development. Indeed, under this given climate of uncertainty, it seems to be impossible to sustain sound tourism development in Turkey.

In conclusion, since Turkish society has not much trust its decision-makers, the society must learn how to deal with its own affairs. As one of the mayors said, The Ministry of Tourism is an obstacle to tourism development, rather than a facilitator in Turkey (Suyolcu, 1991). Thus local residents should learn how deal with different interests groups including central government to protect their community and long term interests before it becomes too late for them to preserve their current level of welfare. Demanding to participate in their local affairs seems to be an additional away to achieve this. Participatory tourism development strategy is not only needed by local residents, it may also be needed by tourism entrepreneurs and central government if central government and the entrepreneurs want to sustain tourism as a source of hard currency earning and a profitable industry in the long run. That is to say that collaboration with local people seems be necessary for sustainability of tourism development.

5- Satisfaction of public's needs: In many tourist destinations level of development was very low before tourism development took place. Thus there was already inadequate roads, power and water shortages, inadequate swage system, lack of proper hospitals and schools. When tourism started to develop rapidly in 1982, those problems have become severe. Due to pressures from the business class and the incentives regulation for tourism, local authorities primarily supported hotel, motel, restaurant and other tourism related establishments. As a result, some of the existing local problems have been accelerated, which has heavily effected local people's welfare. For example, power cuts has been extended, water shortage become more severe, health services have become less accessible to local people and medical doctors have started to give priority to tourists, the business class and rich vacationers are buying second homes or renting homes. Furthermore some of the medical doctors have given up the jobs *in public hospital and opened a full time clinic or found a job in a large hotel with better payment.*

On the other hand, beaches become over-crowded and polluted. Local people were not allowed to enter some beaches on which hotels have been built. Long (1991: 210) has stated that 'They (the indigenous people of Santa Cruz in Mexico) have been moved off their beach front properties to observe resort construction as well as luxury homes coming in for the leisured wealthy'. A similar situation exists in some coastal tourist destinations in Turkey. Moreover, since town planning is not well developed, many tourist destinations have been poorly developed. Thus shopping centres becomes over-crowded and shop-owners prefer tourists since there is a possibility to overcharge or it is simply fun for a local uneducated shop-owner to talk with tourists. This can be best observed on the local market place (bazaar) which are opened on particular days of the week fixed by local council when sellers in an outdoor market try to market their products.

In this context, State Planning Organisation (1995: 144) has recently reported that

'Due to local services being performed by the central administration to a large extent, and local administrations are not able to participate in planning services regarding meeting requirements of a local nature and solving their own problems, priorities of public needs are not being determined so an effective programming within the direction of public preferences is not being undertaken. Therefore Arrangements shall be

made to ensure public participation and supervision in decision making and implementation procedures of local administrations’.

### **Barriers to Community Participation in Turkey**

It may be stated that the barriers to participatory tourism development strategy are not so different from those barriers that were discussed in one of the previous section of this chapter. They may be listed in relation to Turkey as follows: 1- lack of skilled human resources at local level to organise participatory tourism development and to become entrepreneurs in the tourism industry; 2- lack of local financial resources to invest in the tourism industry and to finance a participatory tourism development strategy; 3- centralisation of planning activities; 4- remoteness of official bodies from the public due to a communication gap and the ignorance of the grassroots; 5- lack of co-ordination between public bodies; 6- inadequate public's knowledge of tourism; 7- lack of political will at central level to initiate participatory measures; and 8- lack of cross-cultural understanding of local community.

Decentralisation, public awareness programmes, establishing laws to ensure public participation, providing new sources of finance for local governments, appointing professional officials for responsible posts at executive bodies of local authorities and getting consultant services from universities may be suggested to remove or reduce those barriers' negative impacts. But before analysing socio-cultural, economic and political structures at local levels, it may be unrealistic to claim the effectiveness of these measures without further research.

### **Conclusion**

This chapter was an attempt to examine the arguments and reasons for community participation in the tourism development process. It analysed the emergence of and gave a chronological account of participatory tourism studies. It has tried to give a theoretical synthesis regarding the participatory development approach to tourism.

The synthesis suggests that there is a need for a cautionary approach. There is no guarantee that any participatory tourism development strategy will work better. Basically, it is the local conditions that determine the effectiveness of the strategy. Thus according to local socio-economic and political structures, levels or forms of community involvement should be determined. Moreover, the review of the issues considering community involvement as a tourism development tool shows that the community approach to tourism is neither 'manna from heaven' nor a curse. Additionally, it suggests that participatory tourism development should not be considered as an alternative tourism development approach alone, rather it should be utilised as an additional and complementary tool. It also suggests that there are certain barriers to a participatory tourism development strategy, and thus it should be considered within the limits of those barriers. It is in the context of this chapter that the case study of Urgup will examine the opportunities and challenges of participatory tourism development strategies by considering the local and national conditions. The next chapter gives a general profile of Turkey, its economy, public administration system, international tourism development, and the role international tourism in the Turkish economy.

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## CHAPTER - 4

### AN OVERVIEW OF TURKEY

#### **Introduction**

This chapter consists of four main sections. Section one gives a picture of Turkey in various perspectives such as physical and socio-political geography, history, and culture. The second section examines the public administration system which seems to have a very important role in any emergence and implementation of a participatory development approach.

Section three elaborates the inherited economic and social structures from the Ottoman State and goes on to analyse stages of economic development and structure in the new Republic of Turkey by considering major policies practised since her establishment in 1923. Section four aims at analysing tourism development in Turkey.

#### **Physical and Socio-political Geography**

The Republic of Turkey lies in the western end of the Asian and the south-eastern end of the European Continents. The territory of Turkey encompasses an area of 780, 576 square km (320, 169 square miles). With a total coastline of 8400 km. Turkey is located between latitudes  $42^{\circ}$  and  $36^{\circ}$  N and  $25^{\circ} 40'$  and  $44^{\circ} 48'E$  longitudes (see figure 4.1).

The geographic and geopolitical positions of Turkey have engendered remarkable socio-cultural, economic and political impacts upon her development. Turkey is the only state that links the Middle-East states to Europe. She was pursuing membership of the European Community in the 1980s and belongs to the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO). Turkey's unique geographic location generates advantages and disadvantages for her own development including the tourism industry. For example, Turkey is relatively at a greater distance from the main tourist generating countries, but she is also relatively unknown and has potential to offer tourists.

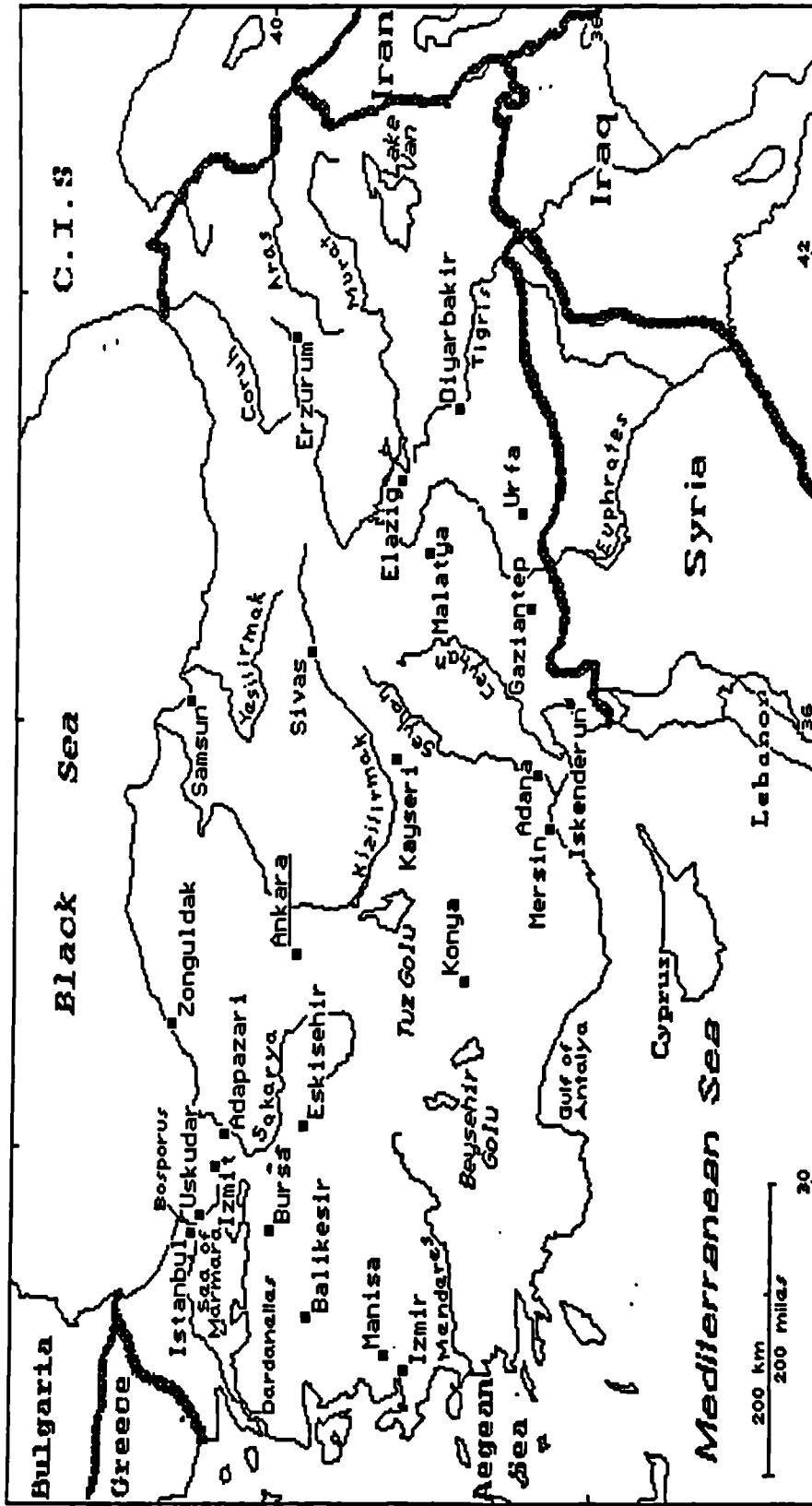


Figure 4.1: Map of Turkey

**Climate:** Seven geographic region of Turkey have four different climates. The Aegean and Mediterranean coasts have a Mediterranean climate with hot, dry summer and mild and rainy winters. The Black Sea Coast receives warm and mild winter, warm summer and a fair amount of rainfall throughout the year. The High North Eastern plateau have fairly warm summers but severe winters. The Semi-arid Interior and South-East have cold, moist winters and hot and dry summer.

**Population:** The last census, taken on 21 October 1990, indicates that the population of Turkey is 60.8 million. The republic's population is increasing at an average annual rate of 2.4 per cent (State Institute of Statistics (SIS), 1997).

## **History**

The origin of the Turks comes from middle Asia. After living for centuries in middle Asia, the Turks moved to the ancient region of Anatolia in the 11th century A. D.. The first Empire founded by Turks in Anatolia was the Seljuq Empire in the 11th century, which was followed by the Ottoman Empire about four centuries later. Briefly, the Republic of Turkey has a very long history dating back to the Seljuq and Ottoman Empires. Actually, her foundation started with the World War I. After the World War I and the Salvation War, Turkey was declared as a republic, on 29 October 1923.

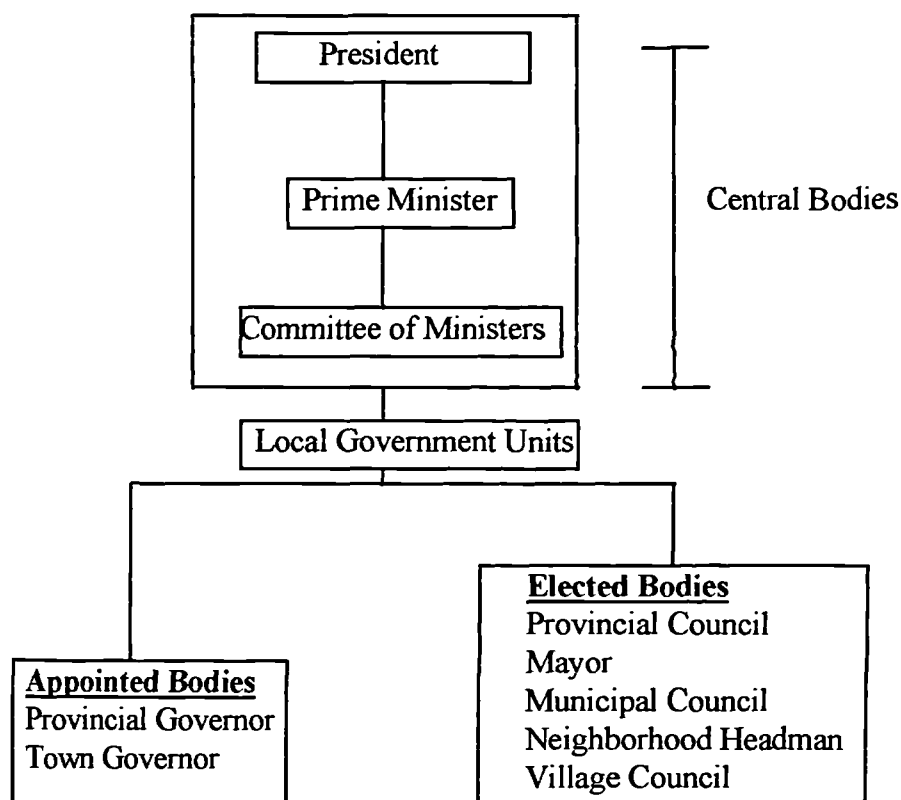
## **Culture**

Turkey is supposed to be a country whose roots are in Asia and whose head is in Europe. Turkey has a cultural heritage which is composed of language, folklore, social life style, etc. A sufficient night life in the urban areas can be easily found like in Western Europe. Active interest in sports has been promoted through the education system (Price Waterhouse, 1990). The Turks have become similar to the Europeans in life style, consumption habits, etc.

## An Overview of Public Administration System in Turkey

The republic's political structure is based upon a democratic multi-party parliamentary system. Turkey is a parliamentary, civil, liberal and secular republic, which is determined by the present Constitution formed in 1982. In brief, the public administration system in Turkey can be broken into two main group in general; central government and local administration (see figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2: Public Administration Structure in Turkey



### Central Government

Central authorities are composed of the President, the Prime Minister, the Council of Ministers, and some associated organisations such as the National Security Council, the constitutional court, the court of justice and the court of appeals, etc. In other words, the central authorities can be examined under three groups.

## **The Legislature**

The power to legislate is vested in the Turkish Grand National Assembly (TGNA). It performs this function on behalf the Turkish nation. This power may not be delegated. The members of TGNA are elected by popular election for five years. The number of seats in the parliaments is 550. The voting age was reduced to 18 in 1991.

## **The Executive**

According to the 1982 Constitution, the exercise of the executive power is vested in and is used by the President and the Council of Ministers.

**The President** is Head of State. He represents the Republic of Turkey and the unity of the Turkish Nation. He is elected for a period of seven years either from among the members of the TGNA or from among those who are Turkish citizens of over 40 years of age and eligible to be elected as a member of parliament, and from among persons who have completed standard education. The President oversees the workings of the Constitution and ensures that the organs of the state function in an orderly and harmonious manner. The President cannot be a member of any political party (Gozubuyuk, 1996).

**The Council of Ministers** is composed of the Prime Minister and ministers, who are politically accountable to the Legislature. The Prime Minister is selected by the President. The ministers are selected by the Prime Minister, but appointed by the President. The Prime Minister must be a member of Parliament whilst the ministers are not required to be deputies.

TGNA has the power to cause the government to fall by vote of no-confidence. Moreover, it is mandatory for the government to receive a vote of confidence of the TGNA to apply the government programme.

**The Prime Minister** is responsible for assuring that the Council functions in a harmonious manner as well as for co-ordination between the Ministries. Each Minister has to be accountable to the Prime Minister. The President may dismiss Ministers

upon the proposal of the Prime Minister (Directorate General of Press and Information, 1993).

### **The Judiciary**

Judicial power is exercised by independent courts functioning on behalf of the Turkish Nation. Judges are independent in discharging their duties and rule on the basis of the provisions of the Constitution.

### **Local Public Administration in Turkey**

Turkey as a unitary state contains a network of local agents consisting of centrally appointed officials who are closely related to locally elected bodies. In this context, Harper (1987: 15) argues that ‘the unitary state is the system that power is devolved to subordinated area units, but central authority always retains the sovereignty and the right to determine the degree of autonomy that is enjoyed by these units’.

Article 127 of the 1982 Constitution defines local administrations as public corporate entities created to meet the common needs of the people living in provinces, municipalities and villages, whose organs of general decisions are elected by these people. According to this article, the three types of local administration operating in Turkey consist of municipalities, provincial local governments and villages, which are based on the principles of centralisation (Keles, 1994).

### **Municipal Administration**

In Turkey, towns and cities are administrated by a ‘communal’ entity called municipality (belediye)’ (Soysal, 1967). Municipal administration comprises an assembly, a council, and a mayor. Population is the only criteria to determine the administrative status of a local territory as a municipality or village. Any geographical unit on which more than 2000 people live has a right to be a municipal unit



**The Municipal Assembly** (belediye meclisi) is elected by popular vote. It varies in size with the population and approves the annual budget of the municipality, plans, projects related to public works and city planning and determines fees and tariffs of various sorts (Tortop, 1994).

**The Municipal Council** (standing committee, belediye encumeni) consists of the mayor, the heads of the municipal departments and members elected by the municipal assembly from among its own members. But, the number of the elected members of this council cannot exceed half the number of appointed members. It can act on behalf of the municipal assembly when it is not in session. 'Its composition enables it to become an organ of decision for the daily operations of the municipality' (Soysal, 1967: 20).

**The Mayor** is the chief executive and representative of the municipality. He is popularly elected for a term of five years by simple majority. The mayor has the right of objection to the decisions of the municipal assembly. This objection goes to the highest local representatives of the central government.

### **The Provincial Public Administration**

Provincial local government is composed of the governor, provincial general assembly and provincial council.

**The Governor** represents the political government in power, each ministries of the central government and the state simultaneously. He has the power to control every public organisation with the exceptions of justice, municipality and military organisations. He is appointed by the President based upon the proposal of the Interior Minister and approval of the Council of Ministries. There is no specific criteria for this public post (Gozubuyuk, 1996). He is the head of provincial local government and its chief executive.

**The Provincial General Assembly** consists of members elected for a term of four years. Meeting every year for forty days under the governor, it approves the provincial budget and makes decisions regarding the institutional services of the province (Keles, 1994).

**The Standing Provincial Council** is composed of five members elected for a term of one year by the provincial general assembly from among its own members and chaired by the appointed governor. The members must come from different county (kasaba) or district (bucak) of the province. It reviews and approves fiscal matters, informs the provincial general assembly of the state of affairs of the organisation and submits to the mayor, upon his request, its views related to local government operation. It can act on behalf of the provincial assembly when it is not in session (Keles, 1994).

### **County Administration**

A county is smaller than a province and bigger than a village. County administration is composed of a governor and county council (ilce yonetim kurulu). Every county belongs to a province. Thus, county administration is under the management of the provincial governor. To be a county governor requires specific criteria determined by law. The county council is composed of head of agents of the central government such as director of county education, head of police officers, director of agriculture and villages affairs, head of county gendarmerie force, director of fiscal affairs, director of bureaucratic affairs, etc. The head of the county council is the county governor (Gozubuyuk, 1996).

### **Village Administration**

A village is the smallest socio-political, economic, geographical and administrative unit with a population of less than 2000, and it has common property such as a school, mosque and pasture. It is a public corporate entity composed of the villages assembly, villages headman (muhtar) and the Council of Elders. Villagers over 18 years old are members of the village assembly, who elect the village headman and the members of the Council of Elders for a term of five years (Adalet Bakanligi, 1994 and Keles, 1994).

**The Elderly Council** consists of four to six permanent and four to six reserve members, in line with the village population. The imam (prayer leader) and the village

school teacher (natural members) are also on the council, which is an interesting point that indicates the extent of centralist control relates to the natural members, appointed by the central government, of the villages council (Koker, 1995). The village headman represents the central administration and supervises the planning and operation of village projects and services.

### **A Critique of the Public Administration System in Turkey**

The public administration system can be criticised from a few points of view. First, Turkey historically has a powerful bureaucracy at the centre of the state. The central government has not wanted to delegate its power to the local agents or bodies in a real sense. Ersoy (1992: 327) implies that the Republic could not establish the local government structure as a separate corporate entity. He argues that ‘the early republican years witnessed the intensification of the centralised system in administration, in contrast to the liberal approach observed in the economy’.

With the coup d’etat of 1960, and subsequent adoption of the 1961 Constitution, a single stage majority system was introduced for the election of mayors. Politically more powerful mayors, who obtained their authority directly from the people, were targeted. The 1961 Constitution also introduced the principle that the control of acquisition or loss of status by an elected organ would be exercised only by the courts. Although a relative improvement was achieved, this period also witnessed a strong subordination of local government units under the tutelage of the centre (Ersoy, 1992 quoting Aktan, 1971). However, the 1982 Constitution seems to have partially deteriorated the centre-local government relationship. In the present Constitution, the Ministry of Interior Affairs is authorised to remove from power local government organs and their members who are under legal probation on matters relating to their functions, until a final decision is reached by the courts.

In brief, historically, Turkey has a strong central government that has practised administrative tutelage on local government. This tutelage practise of the central government has precluded an emergence of responsive, effective and autonomous institutions at the local level. Ultimately, this has ushered in non-participation or pseudo-participation of local people in their own affairs. In this context, what Koker

(1995: 51) states seems to be credible. 'Local government and politics in Turkey have been under the tutelary control of the central state. Contrary to the Western republican tradition of autonomous local self-government, local politics in Turkey were created by and for the central state'.

Second, in general the public administration system in Turkey seems to be too bureaucratic to respond to public needs effectively and efficiently. As a two stage survey sponsored by the International Republican Institute (IRI) illustrated, an overwhelming majority of the urban settlers are very dissatisfied with the political stalemate and blame the political parties for being out of touch with the needs and expectations of the people; and they are also largely dissatisfied with the service delivery system by the municipalities and overwhelmingly express feelings of being left out of the political process. Furthermore, about 80 % of the respondents stated that political party leaders are not resolving the country's problems effectively (IRI, 1995b). In this context, a scholar of politics in Turkey states that 'there is no reason to believe the situation should be any better at that administration level' (Carkoglu, 1997:89)

Third, appointed bodies or persons in local governments seem to have much influence on the public administration system. For example, the municipal council , most of whose members are appointed, and provincial governor appointed by the President based on the proposal of the Interior Affairs Minister and approval of the Council of Ministers have much more opportunities to exercise power on public administration system than their elected counterparts.

Fourth, local government seem to be financially dependent on the central government. Moreover, Ersoy (1992: 336) argues that the most important structural problem is that 'no relationship has been established between the functions and responsibilities of municipalities and their income structures. It is our belief that one of the most important aspects of the problem is persistently ignored'.

Fifth, the public administration system has experienced numerous economic and political models which were applied from etatism with single party governments to the liberal policies of multi-party system in a 74 years period. Thus, the relationship has been of a centralistic, authoritarian and paternalistic nature, although modifications, according to the implemented model, were practised. That is to say,

local governments were never permitted to develop independent policies free from the strict control of the central government (Ersoy, 1992 and Koker, 1995).

The weakness of the public administration system in the country should be taken into account while formulating strategies for tourism development and management. Formulation of a participatory tourism development approach as a development and management tool should be considered within the limits of the public administration system.

### **An Overview of the Turkish Economy**

In a very broad term, the Turkish economy could be broken into three main periods: (1) economic legacy of the Ottoman State, (2) the Turkish economy before 1980 and (3) the Turkish economy after 1980.

#### **Economic Legacy of the Ottoman Empire**

Before the 17th century the Ottoman Empire had a relatively strong socio-economic system, but the Empire had not commenced industrial initiatives when the West had started the industrial revolution taking place since the mid-eighteenth century. The Ottoman Empire played its role in the World capitalist system as provider of food and raw materials and as an open market for European manufactured goods (Avcioglu, 1968; Cem, 1970 and Yeraimus, 1975). As Kepenek (1990) indicated, agricultural production accounted for 47 % , industry 12 % , and services 28 % comprised the Gross National Product (GNP) of the Empire in 1913. On the other hand, the industrial and commercial sectors of the economy were under the control of minority groups (State Institute of Statistics, 1973).

Capitalism came to the Empire first as a market, then as a place for investment. That is to say, capitalism first invested in the Empire so as to improve the infrastructure such as railway network, ports, water works, electricity grids, etc. By improving these infrastructure they aimed at marketing of the commodities produced by the West (Luxemburg, 1951). In order to import expensive industrial goods, the Empire had to borrow substantial amounts of money. In brief, the new Republic of

Turkey in 1923 inherited a country with a substantial amount of debt, with almost no industry and with very limited infrastructure.

### **Turkish Economy Before 1980**

The Turkish economy before 1980 can be examined at four main sub-stages such as between 1923 and 1929 period, the period of Etatism (1930-1939), the war period and the economy in the post war period.

**Between 1923 and 1929 Period:** The policies followed between the establishment of the Republic in 1923 and the Great Depression of 1930 indicates that agriculture was seen as the main channel for integration into the world economy (Keyder, 1981). Measures taken to commercialise agriculture in the 1920s secured the big landlords against any land reform and contributed to the impoverishment of the small peasantry while benefiting big landowners (Tokin, 1934 and Silier, 1981). In the 1920s a number of measures were also taken so as to develop industrial sectors and the activities of foreign capital was facilitated via law and regulations (Ozgun, 1975 and Kucuk, 1971).

Monopolies were originated as a tool to develop capitalism in the Republic. The state was in a position, via inherited monopolies from the Empire and other monopolies established by the Republic, of distributing wealth and it performed the role unevenly (Karaosmanoglu, 1968). The Turkish leading cadres were willing to accept and work in collaboration with foreign capital. They were against direct colonialism, but they were in favour of strengthening the ties between imperialism and Turkey (Okcun, 1971 and Timur, 1971).

**The Economy in the Period of Etatism (1930-1939):** The Great Depression in the 1930s deeply influenced the Turkish economy and many other countries' economies as well. The economy was heavily dependent upon exports of agricultural products whose prices decreased dramatically (Herslag, 1968). The Great Depressions indicated that industrialisation was inevitable; or at least that imported industrial goods should have been produced in the country; an import substitution policy for industrialisation should have taken place.

Since capital accumulation in the industrial sector did not exist and an industrial bourgeoisie did not emerge, the state played the role of the industrial bourgeoisie. The capital accumulation in industry took place via the state due to the absence of an industrial bourgeoisie, which was called Etatism. The founder of the Republic, Ataturk, strongly supported Etatism. He believed that it was the only system for the development of the Turkish economy. According to Ataturk, Etatism is a

'system peculiar to Turkey which has evolved from the principle of the private activity of the individual, but places on the state the responsibility for the national economy, with consideration of the needs of a great nation and a large economy... He also added that, since things have to be done quickly, it must be a system different from liberalism (Hershlag, 1988: 5)'

Turkey succeeded in some significant industrial development during the 1930s through Etatism. Some industrial factories were established and an import substitution policy was introduced for foreign trade.

**The Economy During The War:** During the World War II period (1940-1945), Turkey was kept in a state of mobilisation. Much income was spent on the military and a significant part of the working population were taken for the army, which affected the economy considerably. Generally, the level of productivity of the economy fell since some of the working population were held in the army and imported production inputs were reduced (Boratav, 1974)

**The Economy in the Post War Period:** After the Second World War, the world economy was rebuilt under the dominance of the United States of America who appeared as a hegemonic power. Turkey was included in the European Recovery program, known as the Marshal Plan (Kofas, 1989). Implication of the Marshal plan in 1947 in Turkey made her become a part of the 'free world'. Turkey was seen as eligible for grant and aids under the precondition of military dependence and economic liberalisation (Alipouraghtageh, 1991).

During the mid 1950s, Turkey was forced to struggle its best for economic liberalism while political liberalism remained as it was (Eroglu, 1987). Turkey left Etatism and central planning in the mid 1950s and attracted the influx of foreign capital and interest (Hershlag, 1988). The international pressures, particularly

American foreign policy, directed Turkey to accept the role of being an open market for finished industrial goods and suppliers of agricultural goods and raw materials based upon world division of labour (Margulies and Yildizoglu, 1987).

'In the early 1950s the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (or World Bank) placed two major conditions which had to be met if Turkey expected to draw any funds from the bank: 1- State investments in industry had to be substantially reduced, and 2- Turkey should seek to finance its development largely through external sources (i.e., through foreign loans and private foreign investments). The Bank also counselled Turkey to expand agricultural production... and not make any investments in heavy industry' (Berberoğlu, 1982: 81)

Thornburg's 1950 report is in line with the above quotation and is an example of USA intervention in Turkish policy making in 1950.

'Thornburg noted that Turkey was an agricultural country and should be content with simple agricultural equipment and that Turkey did not need an artificial fertiliser factory. The Karabük Iron and Steel Plant should be liquidated, and the government should take measures to encourage foreign capital to invest in Turkey (Aydin, 1986: 41 quoting Thornburg et al, 1949: 94)

The above quotation clearly indicates the international pressures on Turkey via the United States of America (USA). Meanwhile, the USA gave substantial amounts of credit to Turkey to be spent on agricultural mechanisation and state enterprises in infrastructure (Tayanç, 1973). Liberalisation was the dominant policy in the Turkish economy during 1950-1954. Turkey increased her national income by exporting grain to the USA and Canada who were stocking grain due to the Korean War. After the end of the War, they commenced marketing their grain. Owing to the above facts, the Turkish economy came into crisis after 1955 (Gulalp, 1983).

Decreasing exports and increasing imports pushed Turkey into a foreign currency shortage and constant balance of payment deficits, which caused it to abolish the liberalisation of foreign trade policy. Consequently custom duties and import quotas took place. In other words, Turkey decided on following import substitution industrialisation (ISI), which was supported by international organisations such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and International Bank of Re-construction and Development (IBRD) (Dogan, 1980).



Turkey practised import substitution industrialisation during the first half of the 1970s, relying on the existence of a large domestic market. When the domestic market reached saturation point, the limitation of domestic market oriented industrialisation appeared. ISI policies also ignored the traditional sector of the economy whose contribution to foreign exchange earning was significant. Consequently, constant deficits of balance of payments, saturation of economic growth rate and other macro economic problems created an economic crisis in Turkey. Terrorism, urban violence and labour unrest exacerbated the economic crisis and added to the social conflicts, which ushered in the military coupe on 12th September 1980.

### **The Turkish Economy After 1980: Export-Oriented Industrialisation**

In order to overcome the economic crisis, an export-promotion economy was seen as the only solution. Therefore, export-oriented industries took the priority in the Measures of 25th January 1980. After getting approval of the IMF and OECD, these Measures were introduced (Aydin, 1986). However, the Economic Stabilisation Measurements were not practised immediately due to the social and political crisis in the country. The military intervention on 12th September, 1980, ensured an institutional framework to practise the radical economic Measurements.

Market forces had been seen as the most important tools to improve the structure of the economy. The 25th January Economic Stabilisation Measurements had three main goals: 1- Minimising the scope and rising the effectiveness of the government intervention in the economy. 2- Narrowing budget deficits and decreasing inflation, 3- Dealing with unsustainable balance of payments deficits. In order to achieve these goals a number of policy combinations were used. The main policy instruments were monetary, fiscal and income policy, which would also have encouraged export-oriented growth.

The export-oriented growth policies were part of the stabilisation and structural reform program. As a result, Turkey increased its exports through export encouragement measurements. The shift from import-substitution to export oriented industrial policies also brought a considerable reduction in nominal protection rates,

changes in the structure of effective protection and reallocation of resources from sheltered to exposed sector.

Briefly, structural adjustment in the short run was very difficult. In the medium term, it was required to make significant investments in infrastructure and productive capacity. Inadequate domestic savings, strong population growth (over 2 per cent per annum), high unemployment (about 16 per cent) made it more difficult to improve economic structure and to achieve desired goals.

However, the structural changes which have occurred in industrial output and in the productivity of factor inputs during the past decade indicated that the 1980 stabilisation and structural reform programme has been very effective. Trade liberalisation policies have been accepted as a part of the structural reform programme and it had supported export-oriented growth. Foreign trade liberalisation was one of the principles of the 1980 economic stabilisation and reform programme, which have led to a reduction of nominal rates of protection. Although further trade liberalisation efforts took place in 1989 and 1990, more efforts are necessary to reduce the protection rates which will lead to keeping up the required momentum for adjustment in industry (OECD, 1991). In order to achieve export-oriented growth, fiscal and monetary policies were restructured. Multiple exchange rates policy has been accepted and generous fiscal and financial incentives has been given for export industries including the tourism sector.

Privatisation is another important part of the 1980 economic stabilisation and the structural adjustment efforts, which was initiated in 1984. OECD (1992a) reported that privatisation in Turkey has not been an easy and simple process. There are many obstacles and constrains on the road of privatisation. In addition to the permanent political constraints, changing aim, insufficient consultation with management and employees, and the narrowness of domestic capital markets are the main factors which have hampered the process of privatisation (OECD, 1992a). Despite of all efforts, not so much progress has been made to restructure and to change the status of the State Economic Enterprises (SEEs), and privatisation has been slow (OECD, 1993).

Although almost all governments have made tremendous effort to restructure the economy and solve the main macro economic problems, there is very little sign

that they have been successful. Main economic indicators illustrate that the inflation rate and unemployment are still very high, deficits on the current account in the balance of payment is wide, foreign debt is increasing and distribution of income is worsening.

### **Some Socio-economic Indicators of Turkey: Current Shape of the Economy**

**Sectoral composition of GDP:** Table 4.1 indicates that the Turkish economy has been shaped and restructured when compared the share of the sectors in the composition of GNP since 1968. Agricultural production constituted 39.8 % of GNP in 1968 while the agricultural share was only 14.8 % in 1995. During the last four decades the agricultural sector has gradually lost its importance in the economy and industrial and service sectors have increased their shares in the composition of the GNP. For example, in 1968 industrial production in the economy was 16.7 % of GNP and services sectors' share was 43.6 %. In 1995 industrial production in the economy was 25.5 % of and services share was 59.7 % of GNP.

**Table 4.1 Sectoral Shares in GNP in the Selected Years in the Turkish Economy \* (%)**

SECTORS	1968	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995
SERVICES	43.6	50.6	56.2	58.4	58.4	59.7
INDUSTRY	16.7	16.7	18.3	21.9	24.8	25.5
AGRICULTURE	39.8	32.7	25.5	19.7	16.8	14.8

Source: Derived From State Institute of Statistics (SIS) (1997); \* at current price

**Employment and unemployment:** Although sectoral composition of GNP seems to have changed in favour of industry and the service sectors, the sectoral distribution of employment does not reflect the change in sectoral composition of GNP. According to OECD (1996) and SIS (1997), 44.8 % of manpower work in agriculture, 22.8 % in industry and 33 % in service sector in 1994. Whereas only 6 % of manpower work in agriculture in 1994 in the OECD area generally.

On the other hand, the unemployment rate is quite high; for example, in 1990 the rate was 7.9 %, in 1992 it was 7.8 % and in 1994 it was 8.2 %. The unemployment rate is 5 % in Netherlands, 5.2 % in Norway, 8.9 % in France, 6.4 in Greece and 5.9 % in United Kingdom in 1990 (International Labour Office, 1992).

When the rate of unemployment in Turkey is compared with these countries rates, it seems to be satisfactory. But, OECD (1993) stated that individuals with short working hours and/or low incomes are not included in the number of unemployment workforce, therefore, the unemployment rate seems to be low in Turkey. It is argued that when underemployed is added to the unemployment rate, the rate could be about 16 % for 1991.

The unemployment and underemployment rates were both 8.2 % in 1994. The incidence of long term unemployment -with 44 % of unemployed being without a job one year or more - is among the highest in the OECD area (OECD, 1996a). OECD Economic Survey of Turkey (1996: 62, 63, 65) has given a very clear picture of employment and unemployment situation in Turkey. It states that:

a significant portion of the population lives in moderate to extreme poverty. About 60-70 % of Turkey's population lives in rural areas or in squatter settlements (quoting Bulutay, 1995). Many of these people work in low-productivity jobs at correspondingly low wages. Employment is frequently precarious (hazardous) and often does not allow workers to build up human capital. In this respect, Turkey's labour market problems are related more closely to those of the **'working poor'** than **'poverty exclusion'**. Turkey does not have a large mass of unemployed who, because of restrictive labour market policies, are unable to bid themselves into a job. ... because the public social safety net in Turkey is still rudimentary (primitive, undeveloped), workers face strong incentives to generate some sort of income and they are often very resourceful in doing this.

It is also argued in the OECD economic survey for Turkey that more than 80 % of the unemployed lived in urban areas; 50 % of the unemployed were in the 15-24 age group and more than 50 % of the job-seekers had only primary school education. Moreover, the number of first time job seekers is relatively high and 54 % of 15-24 age group is unemployed. Males have a high share in the unemployment ratio that mirrors the low female participation rates (OECD, 1993). To sum up, overemployment in the public sector, inaccurate statistics and substantial amount of hidden unemployment underestimate the rate of unemployment and raise doubt on the actual unemployment rate. Therefore, OECD (1993) suggests that it may not be meaningful to compare Turkish unemployment rates with other OECD members' unemployment figures.

As a result, it may be said that the unemployment in Turkey is one of the serious macro economic problems, which will be more serious due to the increasing growth rate of population which has averaged about 2.5 % since 1950 while annual employment growth for the economy as whole has averaged 1.8 % over the same period (OECD, 1996). Population growth rate is very high in Turkey when it is compared with some other group of countries. For example, it is estimated that the population growth rate would be 0.5 % in OECD members countries and high income economies between 1989 and 2000 while it would be 1.9 % in Turkey during same time period. It was also estimated that population of 15-64 age group would be 67.6 million in 2025 in Turkey, which could put more pressure on scarce resources of the country (The World Bank, 1992)

**Growth rate of GDP:** The Turkish economy has experienced a relatively high growth rate of GDP during last four decades. According to the World Bank (1992), the growth rates of GDP was 6.2 % in 1965-1980 period and 5.1 % in 1980-1990 period. In the same periods, low-income economies had respectively average 4.9 % and 6.1 %, middle-income economies had 6.3 % and 2.5 %, lower-middle income economies had 5.5 % and 2.6 %, upper-middle income economies had 7.0 % and 2.4 %, high income economies and OECD members had 3.7 % and 3.1 % growth rate of GDP (International Monetary Fund , 1994).

However, the Turkish economy had experienced a very low growth rate (0.3 %) in 1991 and a negative growth rate (- 6.1 %) in 1994 due the economic crisis in the economy, but it recovered rapidly and accomplished a very high growth rate (8 %) in 1995 (SIS, 1997). But high inflation accompanied the relatively high growth rate of GNP. Consumer prices inflation has hit a peak of 130 % in January 1995, and it was stated as 106 % in wholesale prices in June 1996 (OECD, 1996). When the inflation rate of the Turkish economy (66.69%) is compared with the inflation rates of industrial countries (2.9%), developing countries (46.2%), European Union (3.8%), etc., it is obvious that the Turkish economy has experienced quite high inflation rates (International Monetary Fund, 1994) which has caused some socio-economic problems, such as uneven distribution of income, high interest rate, etc.

**The Balance of payment and outstanding external debt:** The current account of the Balance of Payment has chronic deficits which were - US\$ 936 million

in 1982, - US\$ 806 million in 1987, -US\$ 874 million in 1992, - US\$ 6433 million in 1993 and - US\$ 2339 million in 1995 (Sonmez, 1992; SPO, 1994a, OECD, 1996). The increase in the deficit of the current account balance of payment is another serious problem for the Turkish economy.

Turkey has a large amount of outstanding external debt which has gradually increased since 1980. When some of the debt indicators are examined, it may be said that outstanding external debt and its interest payment will be a serious problem for the Turkish economy and the debt may be at risk.

The OECD (1996a) reported that the economic situation in Turkey remains difficult. Macroeconomic imbalances have worsened and financial market uncertainty remains pronounced. Fiscal policy has been expansionary and monetary policy is accommodating an ongoing inflation of some 80 %. The Public Sector Borrowing Requirement (PSBR) is estimated to have risen sharply in 1996 to around 10 % of GDP.

**Some social basic indicators:** Some social basic indicators about Turkey reveals that she has a long road to walk in order to be evaluated as a industrialised or developed country. The GNP per capita was US \$1630 in 1990 in Turkey, which was higher than only low-income economies' and lower middle-income economies' GNP per capita are respectively US \$350 and US \$1530 in 1990. Life expectancy at birth was 67 in Turkey in 1990 while it was 77 in OECD members countries and high income economies, and was 68 in upper-middle income economies in 1990. Adult illiteracy rate, 19 % , was quite high in Turkey in 1990 when it is compared with the OECD members', high income economies' and upper-middle income economies' adult illiteracy rate, which were respectively 4%, 4% and 16 % (The World Bank, 1992)

The quality of health services is relatively low in Turkey. For example, there are 1390 persons per physician and 1030 person per nursing person. In low-income economies there were 5800 persons per physician and 1050 persons per nursing person, but in upper-middle income economies and in high income economies and in OECD members countries these number were more satisfactory in 1984. On the other hand, infant mortality rate was 60 at per 1000 live births, which was quite high when it is compared with OECD members', high income and upper middle income economies' infant mortality rates which were respectively 8, 8 and 45 at per 1000 live

births in 1990. Daily calorie supply (per capita) was 3236 in Turkey in 1989, which was lower than daily calorie supply (per capita) of the OECD members (3409) and high-income economies (3417), but it was higher than daily calorie supply (per capita) of low (2406), middle (2860), lower-middle (2768) and upper-middle (2987) income economies. Primary pupils-teacher ratio as an indicator of social well-being was 30 in Turkey in 1989, which was only lower than the ratio of low-income economies was 38 (The World Bank, 1992).

In addition to these basic indicators, the living standards indicators may give additional ideas about the degree of development of Turkey. When some living standards indicators in Turkey are compared with some industrialised countries', it shows that Turkey is really a country which is in the rank of lower-middle income economies. For example, there is only 0.9 doctor per 1000 inhabitants in Turkey, while this figures are 2.2 in Canada, 3.2 in Germany and 1.5 in U. K in 1992. Passenger cars per 1000 inhabitants was 29 in Turkey in 1990, while it was 469 in Canada, 480 in Germany, 307 in Spain and 361 in UK in 1990 (OECD, 1996).

The next sections will overview Turkish tourism development by emphasising the contribution of tourism to the economy and the shortcomings of the tourism development approach in Turkey.

## **An Overview of Turkish Tourism Development**

This section consists of three sub-sections. In section one, growth in Turkish tourism in terms of value, volume and physical investment will be given. In section two, the importance of tourism in the Turkish economy will be examined in a comparative manner and in absolute terms. In section three, a brief analysis of approaches to tourism development will be given.

### **Growth in Turkish Tourism**

Statistical data indicates that there has been a rapid growth in Turkish tourism in terms of volume and value particularly since 1982. As can be seen from Table 4.2, tourists arrivals were 200 000 in 1963 and it reached 1,341,500 tourists in 1973,

which is a 570 % increase in a ten years period. Between 1974 and 1984 international tourist arrivals increased 90 % in the second ten years period after 1963. The increase in international arrivals accelerated between 1982 and 1996, which was 519 %. Similar growth trends have also been observed in bed capacity and tourism revenues. For example, between 1970 and 1982 the number of accommodation establishments increased 94 %; between 1982 and 1992 by 145 %. The bed capacity between 1970-1982 and 1983-1992 increased respectively 11.9% and 233.5 %. In brief, after enacting the 1982 Tourism Encouragement Law, the number of establishments and bed capacity increased drastically 228 % and 383 % respectively between 1982 and 1996. (see Table 4.3). It was estimated that there will be 600 000 registered beds in 1999.

Table 4.2 Tourist Arrivals and Receipts in Turkey, 1963-1996

YEARS	NO. OF ARRIVALS ('000)	*RECEIPTS (MILLION US\$)	YEARS	NO. OF ARRIVALS ('000)	*RECEIPTS (MILLION US\$)
1963	200.0	7.7	1983	1,625.7	411.1
1970	724.2	51.6	1984	2,117.0	840.0
1971	926.0	62.9	1985	2,614.9	1,482.0
1972	1,034.9	103.7	1986	2,391.0	1,215.0
1973	1,341.5	171.5	1987	2,855.5	1,721.1
1974	1,110.2	193.7	1988	4,172.7	2,355.3
1975	1,540.9	200.9	1989	4,459.1	2,556.5
1976	1,675.8	180.5	1990	5,389.3	3,225.0
1977	1,661.4	204.9	1991	5,517.3	2,654.0
1978	1,644.1	230.4	1992	7,076.0	3,639.0
1979	1,523.6	280.7	1993	6,500.6	3,900
1980	1,288.0	326.7	1994	6,670.6	4,321.0
1981	1,405.3	381.3	1995	7,726.8	4,957.0
1982	1,391.7	370.3	1996	8,614.0	5,962.1

Source: Ministry of Tourism (1993a and 1997a) and SPO (1994a).

\* In current prices.



Table 4.3 Growth of Tourism Operation Licensed Accommodation in Turkey, 1970-1996

YEARS	NO. OF ESTAB- LISHMENTS	NO. OF BEDS	YEARS	NO. OF ESTAB- LISHMENTS	NO. OF BEDS
1970	292	28,354	1983	611	65,934
1971	337	32,114	1984	642	68,266
1972	363	34,628	1985	689	85,995
1973	388	38,528	1986	731	92,129
1974	400	40,895	1987	834	106,214
1975	421	44,957	1988	957	122,306
1976	439	47,307	1989	1,102	146,086
1977	446	50,379	1990	1,260	173,227
1978	473	52,385	1991	1,404	200,678
1979	494	53,956	1992	1,498	219,940
1980	511	56,044	1993	1,581	235,238
1981	529	58,242	1994	1,729	265,136
1982	569	62,372	1995	1,793	286,463
			1996	1,866	301,524

Source : Ministry of Tourism (1993b and 1997b).

Tourism revenues were 7.7 million US\$ in 1963 and US\$ 5962.1 million in 1996. Tourism revenues increased 1510 % between 1982 and 1996. But, when Turkey's international tourism receipts and arrivals are compared with her main competitors, it seems that Turkey's international tourist receipts are relatively small. For example, international tourist receipts were US \$ 19447.1 millions in Spain and US \$ 22030.9 millions in Italy in 1993 while this figure was US \$ 4040.4 millions in Turkey. The foreign tourist arrivals in Italy and Spain were 49909.7 thousand and 46263.4 thousand respectively while this figure was 6500.6 thousand in Turkey in 1993 (OECD, 1995).

The above brief comparison may indicate that Turkey's tourist receipts and arrivals have not reached a satisfactory level. Moreover, although tourism has rapidly grown in terms of volume and value, in real terms tourism has not grown much in terms of value in Turkey. For example, OECD's (1992b) report indicated that the international tourism receipts of Turkey decreased in 1988, 1989 and 1990. Nevertheless, it was observed that Turkey has experienced a rapid growth in international tourists arrivals, revenues and bed capacity. But when they are compared with other Mediterranean destination, growth in Turkish tourism is not satisfactory as a new comer (EIU, 1993). The growth of Turkish tourism will be examined further in

the next section of this chapter via discussing contributions of tourism development to the Turkish economy in a comparative perspective.

### **Importance of Tourism in the Turkish Economy**

It is not an easy task to determine and explain the importance and role of tourism in an economy since the scope of the tourism industry is not clearly defined and there is not a reliable method to assess the tourism revenue and tourism expenses (Sezer and Harrison, 1994). Despite these difficulties, statistical data illustrates that tourism has developed rapidly since World War II. Eadington and Redman (1991) argued that tourism has been realised in many countries and regions as a major source of job creation, income and foreign currency generation and therefore has become a dominant sector.

Turkey as a developing country does need foreign currency, diversification of economic activities for job creation, increasing government revenue, etc. As previously noted, chronic current account deficits, high rates of unemployment, and inflation, deficits in the government budget and foreign debts are main problems of the Turkish economy. Particularly, since the 1980s, Turkish governments have generously supported the tourism industry in the hope of decreasing some of the negative effects of the noted macro economic problems. The following sections will examine the role of tourism in the Turkish economy by giving a comparative picture.

### **As an Invisible Export in the Turkish Economy**

As mentioned in this chapter, the current account as an item in the balance of payment has large deficits which seems to be a chronic problem for the Turkish economy. Therefore, Turkey badly needs foreign currency to decrease the deficits on the current account and to finance imports which are obligatory for economic and social development and also to help in repaying the outstanding external debts and their interest. If the current account deficits and the need for foreign currency for industrialisation are taken into account and external outstanding debt indicators are examined, it will be clear that sources of foreign currency earning may be a part of the

panacea for some of the problems of Turkish economy. This section will try to evaluate whether tourism earnings are part of the panacea or not.

When tourism receipts were compared with exports of commodities, tourism receipts are only smaller than miscellaneous manufactured articles and manufactured good classified chiefly by material, and it was larger than any other values of exported commodities (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4 Exports by Commodities and Tourism Receipts

	1994 (US\$ Million)
Food and live animals	3298
Beverages and tobacco	471
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	605
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	246
Animal and vegetable oils, fats and waxes	182
Chemicals and related products, n.e.s	730
Manufactured goods classified chiefly by material	5684
Machinery and transport equipment	1720
Miscellaneous manufactured articles	5160
Commodities and transactions not classified elsewhere	9
<b>Total</b>	<b>18105</b>
<b>Tourism Receipts</b>	<b>4321</b>

Source: Derived from OECD (1996).

The share of tourism receipts in the export earnings is another important yardstick to illustrate the place of tourism as a source of foreign currency earnings in an economy. As Table 4.5 shows that the share of tourism receipts in exports has gradually increased since 1963. While the share was 2.1 percent in 1963, it was 25.8 percent in 1996, which was a twelve fold increase in 33 years. Sezer and Harrison (1994) noticed that international tourism receipts of Turkey increased more rapidly than most of the major tourism destination countries' tourism receipts. However, this unexpected increase in international tourism receipts in Turkey does not mean that the tourism revenues has reached a satisfactory level, which will be discussed further in the following sections

Table 4.5 Share of Tourism Receipts in the Export Earnings and Tourism Expenditure in the Import Expenses(000 000 \$)

Years	Tourism Receipts (Million \$)	Exports	%Share of the Tourism Receipts in Export Earnings	Imports	%Share of Tourism Exp. in Import Expenses
1963	7.7	368.0	2.1	688.0	3.0
1965	13.8	464.0	3.0	572.0	4.2
1970	51.6	588.0	8.8	948.0	5.0
1975	200.9	1 401.1	14.3	4 738.7	3.3
1980	326.7	2 910.1	11.2	7 909.4	1.5
1985	1 482.0	7 958.0	18.6	11 343.4	2.9
1986	1 215.0	7 456.7	16.3	11 104.8	2.8
1987	1 721.1	10 190.0	16.9	14 158.0	3.2
1988	2 355.3	11 662.1	20.2	14 335.0	2.5
1989	2 556.5	11 625.0	22.0	15 792.0	3.6
1990	3 225.0	12 960.0	24.9	22 302.0	2.3
1991	2 654.0	13 593.0	19.5	21 047.0	2.8
1992	3 639.0	14 715.0	24.7	22 872.0	3.4
1993	3 900.0	15 345.0	25.8	29 428.0	3.2
1994	4 321.0	18 106.0	23.9	23 270.0	3.7
1995	4 957.0	21 636.0	22.9	35 709.0	2.6
1996	5 962.1	23 082.1	25.8	42 463.8	3.0

Source: Ministry of Tourism (1993a, 1997a) and SPO (1994a)

Workers remittances and foreign investment are another source of foreign currency flow for the Turkish economy and balance of payments. Comparing international tourism receipts with the above two items may indicate more clearly the importance of tourism as a source of foreign currency earning. Table 4.6 illustrates that international tourism receipts are more important as a source of foreign currency to balance of payment and the economy than workers remittances. In other words, the average ratio of tourism receipts to worker remittances is 1.3 between 1990 and 1996. This implies that the contribution of tourism receipts to the economy is larger than worker remittances. The ratio of tourism receipts to foreign investment is always bigger than one which implies that tourism receipts are larger and more important to the economy and balance of payment than foreign investment.

Table 4.6 Tourism Receipts and Capital Movements in Turkey

	1990	1991	1992	1993	*1994	*1995	*1996
a-Tourism receipts	3308	2654	3640	3959	4321	4957	5650
b-Workers remittance	3325	2901	3074	2919	2627	3327	3542
c-Foreign investment	1784.0	1909.0	1295.3				
a/b	0.99	0.91	1.18	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.6
a/c	1.85	1.39	2.81				

Source: Derived from SPO (1993a); \*The Istanbul Chamber of Commerce (1997)

If Turkey's share of 'Travel' account receipts in exports of goods and services is compared with the main competitors of Turkish tourism, the picture may be more obvious. As can be seen from Table 4.7 share of 'Travel' account receipts in Exports of goods and services in the Turkish economy was smaller than the share of 'Travel' account receipts in exports of goods and services in the economy of Greece, Portugal and Spain, which are seen as the main competitors to Turkish tourism. This may indicate that tourism receipts are important for the Turkish economy, but their values are much smaller than its main competitors.

Table 4.7 Share of 'Travel' Account Receipts in Exports of Goods and Services in Turkey with the Competitors of Turkish Tourism

	1984	1985	1986	1988	1989	1993
Greece	17.9	20.1	23.1	21.1	17.7	23.4
Italy	8.3	8.1	7.7	7.3	6.4	8.6
Portugal	13.4	14.2	15.6	16.2	15.5	15.5
Spain	21.1	21.1	25.9	24.9	22.5	19.9
Turkey	5.6	9.6	8.8	13.1	13.5	14.4

Source: OECD (1988, 1992b and 1995).

The share of 'Travel account expenditure in imports of goods and services in the balance of payment of Turkey was smaller than its competitors' value (see Table 4.8). Although this is seen as a positive position by traditional economists, it may imply that the vast majority of the population in Turkey cannot afford to travel abroad, which may indicate a level of welfare in a given country. That is to say, the relative smaller share of 'Travel' account expenditures in imports of goods and services can be explained by the structure of the Turkish economy and Turkish socio-cultural values rather than by the tourism development in Turkey.

Table 4.8 Comparison of the Share of Travel Account Expenditure in Imports of Goods and Services in Turkey with the Competitors of Turkish Tourism(%)

	1984	1985	1986	1988	1990	1993
Greece	3.1	3.1	4.1	4.6	5.0	4.7
Italy	1.7	1.7	2.3	3.4	5.3	5.8
Portugal	2.3	2.4	2.9	2.6	3.0	5.8
Spain	2.3	2.7	3.5	3.3	3.9	4.4
Turkey	2.2	2.2	2.2	1.9	1.8	2.5

Source: OECD (1988, 1992b and 1995).

## **Contribution of Tourism to the Gross National Product**

The amount of final goods and services which are produced by the tourism industry or the income of factors of production in the tourism industry, which contribute to gross national product are very difficult to assess since the scope of the tourism industry is not definite and there is a serious lack of data. Therefore, the share of goods and services of the tourism industry in Gross National Product may not be used as a tool to explain the importance of tourism in the economy. But, the share of international tourism receipts in the gross national product may be used as a yardstick in order to illustrate the place of tourism in the economy.

The ratio of international tourism receipt to gross national product has gradually increased in Turkey. While it was 0.1 percent in 1963, it was 3.2 percent in 1996; there was a thirty threefold increase in 33 years . Without comparing the share of tourism receipts in the gross national product of Turkey with the share of tourism receipts of other similar tourism destinations in their gross national product, it may be said that tourism receipts' share in GNP was satisfactory. When it is compared with the share of tourism receipts of main competitors of Turkish tourism, the share of tourism receipts in GNP was relatively small.

Table 4.10 indicates that the ratio of the 'Travel' account receipts to gross domestic product was 4.6 in Greece, 2.2 in Italy, 4.8 in Portugal and 4.1 in Spain in 1993, while the ratio was only 1.6 in Turkey in same year. The table shows that the ratio in Turkey was greater than the ratio of OECD and North America. But, Turkey's ratio of the 'Travel Account' receipts to the GDP must not be compared with these countries whose economic structure and position in the international tourism market is very different. The ratio of the 'Travel' account expenditure to private consumption was relatively small, too (see Table 4.11)

The relative smallness of the ratio of the 'Travel' account receipts to the GDP may reveal that Turkey could not a get sufficient share from World tourism revenues. The relative smallness of the 'Travel' account expenditure to private final consumption may indicate that Turkish people do not benefit much from travelling abroad.

Table 4.9 Share of Tourism Receipts in the Gross National Product

Years	GNP (Million\$)	Tourism Receipts (Million \$)	% Share of Tourism Receipts in the GNP
1963	7 422.4	7.7	0.1
1965	8 525.1	13.8	0.2
1970	9 951.3	51.6	0.5
1975	37 598.0	200.9	0.5
1980	57 198.3	326.7	0.6
1985	52 597.6	1 482.0	2.8
1986	57 820.7	1 215.0	2.1
1987	87 142.2	1 721.1	2.0
1988	91 640.6	2 355.3	2.6
1989	109,017.5	2 556.5	2.3
1990	150 060.7	3 225.0	2.1
1991	147 367.5	2 654.0	1.8
1992	153 627.5	3 639.0	2.4
1993	178 714.7	3 900	2.2
1994	132 825.9	4 321	3.3
1995	165 519.4	4 957	3.0
1996	183 577.0	5 650	3.2

Source: Ministry of Tourism (1993a, 1997a) and SPO (1994a)

Table 4.10 Comparison of Turkey's Ratio of the 'Travel' Account Receipts to the GDP with Competitors of Turkish Tourism(%)

	1984	1985	1985	1988	1990	1993
Greece	3.9	4.3	4.6	4.5	3.9	4.6
Italy	2.0	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.8	2.2
Portugal	5.0	5.5	5.4	5.8	6.0	4.8
Spain	5.0	4.9	5.2	4.8	3.8	4.1
Turkey	1.1	2.1	1.6	3.3	3.0	2.3
OECD	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.2
North America	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.8	1.0
Europe	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.9

Source: Derived from OECD (1988, 1992b and 1995).

Table 4.11 Comparison of Turkey's Ratio of the 'Travel' Account Expenditures to the Private Final Consumption with the Competitors of Turkish Tourism(%)

	1984	1985	1986	1988	1990	1993
Greece	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.3	1.9
Italy	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.2	2.0	2.3
Portugal	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.3	3.4
Spain	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.4	1.6
Turkey	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
OECD	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.9	2.1	1.9
North America	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.2	1.2	1.2
Europe	2.5	2.6	2.7	3.0	3.1	3.0

Source: OECD (1988, 1992b and 1995).

## **Tourism and Regional Development**

The tourism industry is developed particularly in rural areas where industrial development and the problems of big cities do not exist, and which have relatively unspoiled natural resources. Sessa (1983) contended that developing tourism in rural or relatively poor regions in a country may create a balance between developed and underdeveloped regions. When the tourism sector grows, new revenues will flow into the economy of the destination region. As a result, job and income creation take place. Tourism receipts are an injection to the regional economy, whose direct, indirect and induced impacts may create greater income flows and job opportunities in the region. However, the regional development impacts of tourism are influenced by various leakage from the tourism industry in the region (Eadington and Redman, 1991).

Tourism development may decrease the gap between developed and underdeveloped regions in a country, thus tourism may be used as a tool to balance regional development. But, using tourism development for this purposes is very difficult especially in developing countries, such as Turkey. Underdeveloped regions in less developed countries (LDCs) lack basic infrastructure which is a heavily capital intensive investment, but sine a qua non for any development.

LDCs cannot transfer their very scarce capital to underdeveloped regions in order to develop high quality infrastructure to take into account the tourists' needs. In theory, it sounds good to build infrastructure in underdeveloped regions, which may also create external economies for other industries in the region. In practice, it is not desirable to invest scarce capital in infrastructure in undeveloped regions where pay back periods are very long. Investing scarce capital in a developed region where infrastructure already exists seem to be more attractive to any political body in power, since the benefits can be seen in the short term and people who live in developed regions are more dominant in terms of political life.

For example, in Turkey tourism development has taken place in those regions which are relatively developed. As can be seen from (Table 4.12), 84.61 percent of tourism operations and 86 % of investment in licensed beds were in Marmara, Aegean and Mediterranean regions which were the most developed regions in 1991. In 1996



the share of these relatively developed regions in tourism operation licensed beds increased to 87 %. The figure of regional distribution of employment in the tourism industry has illustrated that tourism development has created most of the employment opportunities in developed regions in Turkey, which can be seen from Table 4.13. The receipts of tourism are in line with the distribution of the tourist beds. Furthermore, tourism development has taken place in these areas of developed regions which are also the most developed part of the regions.

Table 4.12 Regional Distribution of Tourism Operation & Investment in licensed Beds in Turkey.

REGION	TOURISM OPERATION LICENSED BEDS(%)		TOURISM INVESTMENT LICENSED BEDS(%)
	1996	1991	1991
MARMARA	21	24.43	12.83
AEGEAN	31	28.42	39.88
MEDITERRANEAN	35	31.76	33.29
CENTRAL ANATOLIA	8	9.83	5.74
BLACK SEA	2	2.74	2.74
EASTERN ANATOLIA	5	1.50	2.60
SOUTH-EAST ANATOLIA	1	1.30	2.92

Source: Ministry of Tourism (1993b, 1997b).

The above discussion and statistics show that tourism development has not helped decrease the gap between the developed and underdeveloped regions in Turkey. By contrast, it may have increased the gap. This may imply that tourism development cannot bring development, but that development may bring tourism. When the distribution of tourism revenues in the World is examined, it can be seen that most of the tourism revenues accrues between developed countries. This may also support the above statement about Turkey.

However, one may argue that these regions where tourism development has not taken place intensively do not have primary tourism attractions. Although this argument seems to be true to some extent, it may not reflect all realities via which

tourism development has been driven. For example, some underdeveloped regions where tourism is also relatively less developed have very high potential for cultural, winter and rural tourism. But, the main problem is that some of these regions lack basic infrastructure and facilities to the European standards required by tourists, and are not safe due the terrorist attacks of the Kurdish Worker's Party (PKK).

Table 4.13 Regional Distribution of Labour in Tourism Industry in 1993

	Accom	Restaurant	Travel Services
Marmara	13 575	2 943	4 862
Aegean	17 010	930	2500
Mediterranean	20 341	329	2 213
Central Anatolia	4 805	821	1394
Black Sea	1 557	366	151
East Anatolia.	510	56	32
Southeast Anatolia.	525	108	41
Total	558 32	5552,	11 192

Source: Ministry of Tourism (1994).

### **Employment and Tourism Development**

Tourism as a growth activity is a powerhouse in terms of employment. In most OECD countries, it is among the major sources of employment, where the sectors dependent on tourism have recorded above average growth in employment both in absolute terms and compared with the economy as a whole (OECD, 1995). Creating employment opportunities is one of the main aspects of the tourism industry in Turkey. As previously noted, unemployment is one of the biggest socio-economic problems. Tourism development is expected to bring about job opportunities and it has, therefore, been generously supported since the 1980s.

There are different figures about employment provided by the tourism industry in Turkey. According to a study undertaken jointly by the Turkish Ministry of Tourism, a total of 75 069 jobs were directly created by licensed accommodation establishments (58 325), restaurants (5 552) and travel agencies (11 192) in 1993. Dalli (1988) argued that tourism generated about 60 000 direct and 90 000 indirect jobs in the licensed accommodation establishments in Turkey. Association of Tourism Investors (TYD)(1992) contended that 127 720 direct jobs were created by the tourism industry in 1990. OECD (1992b and 1995) statistical figures indicated that

employment created by tourism was 147 835 in 1990 and 193 422 in 1993. The Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU)(1993) quoted the figure between 200 000 and 250 000 which has accounted for around 4 % of total employment in the services sector.

Table 4.14 Staff Employed in Tourism in Turkey

1984	1986	1988	1990	1992	1993	
76 082	100 580	128 796	140 363	153 168	171 219	HR
1 275	1 470	2 408	3 249	1 7150	20 000	V
1 290	9 532	9 594	2 368	1 990	2 203	A
1 150	1239	1 456	1 455	3 874	no data	0

HR: staff employed in hotels and restaurant

V: staff employed in travel agencies

A: staff employed in national tourism administrations

O: staff employed in other sectors of tourist industry

Source: Derived from OECD (1992b, 1990, 1988 and 1995).

The result of the survey by the Ministry of Tourism with the technical co-operation of the ILO (1994) illustrated that accommodation establishments needed to recruit an extra 94 000 personnel over the next five years in order to meet the current shortage. An extra 8 300 jobs will be offered by restaurants during the next five years and travel agencies will employ an extra 19 000 workers in the same period. It was estimated that, including the number of people employed in unregistered hotels, camping sites, yachting facilities, travel agents and transportation companies, 400 000 jobs are directly and indirectly generated by the tourism industry in Turkey. This figure constitutes 10 % of the total employment in the service industry and makes up 3 % of the active population (Korzay, 1994).

According to OECD (1995), shares of employment in the tourism industry in the total labour force is 0.7 % (129,000) in Turkey, 9.1 % (1,400,000) in Spain, 5.6 % (250,000) in Portugal, 10 % (360,000) in Greece and 13.9 (586,000) in Austria. When these figures are compared, tourism as a employment generator has not relatively contributed much to employment in Turkey.

The above discussion implies that tourism has an important place in the Turkish economy in absolute terms, but the comparative figures have indicated that the contribution of the tourism development to the economy has not yet reached a satisfactory level. The next sub-section will be an attempt to provide a critical view of the contribution of the tourism development to the Turkish economy.

## **Economic Contribution of Tourism in Turkey**

After 1980 all Turkish governments have seen tourism as a panacea for the foreign currency bottleneck and some other economic problems such as unemployment, regional unbalanced development, and increasing foreign debts. Further, tourism has been seen as a tool for creation of a good image for Turkey in the international arena. Seeing tourism as a panacea or at least as a great help for the desperately needed foreign currency motivated every government to give all things necessary for the development of tourism in Turkey. In this position, they have supposed that developing tourism meant building infrastructure and superstructure for the tourism industry and giving generous fiscal and monetary incentives to the entrepreneurs and operators. Based upon the given statistical figures and discussion, it is possible to derive some conclusions.

First, although the tourism industry has contributed to the Turkish economy in various ways, its contributions seems not to have reached at a satisfactory level, when compared with her main competitors. EIU (1989) contended that the importance of tourism in the Turkish economy is not significant when compared with the most comparable economies of Europe -Spain, Portugal and Greece. For example, foreign tourism earning in Turkey constitutes between 2 and 3 % of GNP. This figure is around 5 % in the case of the most comparable economies of Europe. Although there are considerable doubts about employment data in the Eastern Mediterranean countries, it is worthwhile to draw attention to the number of employed in Turkey today in hotels and restaurants is less than the number employed in hotels in Greece ten years ago. It has been stated that the most telling comparison which indicates the undeveloped state of Turkish tourism is the number of foreign visitors. Although Turkey has a comparable tourism product, she is visited by only about a third of the tourists who visit either of its two main rivals, Greece and the former Yugoslavia.

The above argument may imply that there are still potential for Turkey to increase the economic benefits from international tourism.

Second, since Turkey as a developing country or newly industrialising country (NIC) does not have many alternatives to increase her foreign currency earnings, the tourism industry has been supported by generous fiscal and monetary incentives since

1982, which has had very strong impacts on increasing international tourist arrivals and, thus, receipts of the country. If Turkey did not give generous incentives to the industry, the international tourist receipts of the country would not have reached their current level. This may imply that the current tourism development is not a result of natural and normal economic process and rules, but as a result of political decisions. In the context of many local tourist destinations in Turkey, 'whilst tourism may be desirable to the economy of the country, it is not necessarily beneficial to the host community' (Morrison and Selman, 1991: 126).

Third, the current economic contributions of international tourism seem to be precarious due to the structure of the international tourism system. The economic benefits of Turkish tourism may not be reliable and sustainable in the long term because Turkish tourism heavily depends upon the external factors such as international tour operators and very elastic tourism demand. As is widely known, the dependency of tourism is the most common problem of tourism development in developing countries. It is not a unique situation to Turkish.

For example, 'over 55 % of all visitors to Turkey travel on all inclusive tour packages tour and 15 % on a part organised basis' (EIU, 1993:82). Eighty-five per cent of all charter passenger arrivals travelled by using the companies which are owned and operated by foreigners. This indicates that there was a large amount of direct leakages of tourism receipts from the Turkish economy. The Ministry of Tourism (MT) optimistically estimated that 51% of the revenue of the package tours organised by foreign tour operators to Turkey has not been injected into the Turkish economy (MT, 1990). Although MT has aimed at increasing tourism expenditure on a per head basis, it has been quite steady at an average of some US\$560 since Turkey did not succeed in altering the tourist profile in favour of high-spenders and the foreign tour operators have increased their bargaining power (EIU, 1993). Besides these doubts and facts, the demand for Turkish tourism was found to be highly price elastic which implies that the industry faces to a high degree of competition (Uysal and Crompton, 1984). According to a survey conducted by the Turkish Tourism Investor Association (TYD) (1997), Turkey is the second cheapest holiday destination among 11 Mediterranean countries following Tunisia. When we take into account the expenditures of the increasing numbers of Turkish people who travel

abroad as tourists, imports of goods and services for current consumption by tourists, imported tourism investments goods, promotion and marketing expenditure of the industry, local people who are emulating the tourists' consumption behaviour, and education and training expenditure, which require foreign currency, the net foreign currency earning from tourism will be little. Therefore, tourism is not a panacea or great help for the foreign currency bottlenecks for Turkey; it is only an alternative that can be used as a source of hard currency earnings and diversification of economic activities.

Since Turkey has been promoted and has been popular as a cheap alternative destination to other Mediterranean destinations, it will be very difficult to shake off this popular image since international tour operators desire to market Turkey as an alternative cheap destination to the sun-seeking package tourists (EIU, 1993). That is to say, Turkey does not have much opportunity or power to influence, shape and re-structure the current tourism development that has taken place in her own territory.

Fourth, tourism development is not a panacea for the severe foreign currency bottlenecks, unemployment and regional unbalanced development. Analysis of current statistical data shows that there is a doubt about the foreign tourist arrivals figures and, thus receipts in Turkey. As EIU (1993) reported after the collapse of communist rule in Eastern Europe, considerable numbers of visitors from these former communist states have been coming to Turkey in recent years. Although all these visitors have been counted as tourists, only a small portion of these visitors are tourists in the acceptable sense of the word. Most of the visitors particularly from the former USSR, Romania and Bulgaria are 'suitcase traders'. They are making individuals short trips to Turkey to sell certain goods from their own countries.

'Unlike conventional business travellers they tend not to use accommodation but sleep in their vehicles. Many women visitors from these countries, particularly from the former Soviet Union, have been prosecuted as prostitutes. Tourists from these countries mostly require very basic accommodation and some of them do not need any' (Tosun and Jenkins, 1996: 525)

Therefore, EIU (1993) stated that only 3.6 million visitors can be counted as tourists in 1992, although the Ministry of Tourism statistic indicated this number is around 7 million in the same year. Similarly, 2.2 million people from Eastern Europe visited Turkey in 1996 as suitcase-traders, but MT accounted them as normal foreign tourists

and , accordingly, estimated the international tourist receipts. Moreover, tourism receipts were calculated by the Ministry of Finance till 1978. The average expenditure per foreigner was US \$ 123 in 1977. Between 1978-1983, the foreign tourist receipts were estimated by the Central Bank based on the bank's record. During this period the average expenditure per foreign tourist was US \$ 204. Since 1984 the receipts of tourism has been predicted based upon the questionnaire distributed to the foreign departures. By the change of the method of estimating the international tourist receipt, average tourist expenditure per foreigner increased 57 % (from US \$ 253 in 1983 to 396.8 in 1984) without any change in the demand profile of Turkey. The figure was estimated based on the questionnaire conducted by MT and the State Institute of Statistic as US \$ 748 per foreigner in 1996 (MT, 1997a). Naturally, the above argument and statistical figures may increase doubts about the reliability of the statistical figures from the MT in this respect.

Fifth, contributions of the tourism industry to employment should be re-considered with caution, for which there seems to be several reasons (OECD, 1995):

a- Labour market in the tourism industry has created opportunities for people to work in low-productivity jobs at correspondingly low wages. Low productivity, and thus, unattractive wages level is a problem in the tourism industry. It is not easy to increase productivity in jobs providing personal services. From the macro-economic point of view, productivity in this sector is relatively low. For instance, the net value added per employee in a high-class urban hotel is three to four times less than in the case of a bank employee. In Switzerland, it is no higher in the hotel and catering sector than in agriculture. Therefore, it is hard to offer attractive wages and working conditions (OECD, 1995).

Moreover, employment in the tourism industry is frequently precarious and often does not allow workers to build up human capital. Many people work in low productivity jobs at consequently low wages. In this respect, Turkey's labour market in the tourism industry are related more closely to those of the 'working poor' than poverty exclusion'. The above argument has been developed by Bulutay (1995 cited in OECD, 1996) in the context of the labour market in general in Turkey, but it seems to be completely valid for the tourism industry which has very short history in the Turkish economy.

b- Seasonality is one of the biggest problems of Turkish tourism, which pose question about tourism as a viable option for employment and productivity or capacity utilisation of the tourism industry. Compared with industry, the capacity utilisation of tourist facilities is low. In OECD countries, average occupancy in hotels is between 40 and 60 per cent a year (in industry: capacity utilisation is 80 % or higher)' (OECD, 1995: 38). Although the average length of stay for foreigners has improved (It was 2.7 days in 1980, 3.4 day in 1990, 4.2 days in 1993 and 4 days in 1996), the average occupancy rate is still very low. An average for 7 year period between 1990 and 1996 is 45.5.1% (MT, 1994a and 1997b).

Demand for tourism in the holiday market is highly congested in the peak summer months particularly from June to September. For example in Turkey, 69% in 1990, 68% in 1991, 70% in 1992, 68% in 1993 and 70.39 % in 1996 of all tourists came between May and October, that is within the period of six months. And 72.31 % of the tourist receipts in 1996 was gained between May and October. Seasonality is caused by the holiday taking patterns of tourist generating countries and climatic conditions in tourist receiving countries both of which are difficult to change (see table 4.15).

Table 4.15 Monthly Distribution of Tourist Arrivals to Turkey\*

MONTHS	1990 %	1991 %	1992 %	1993 %	1996%
JANUARY	2	3	3	3	3
FEBRUARY	3	3	4	4	4
MARCH	5	5	5	5	6
APRIL	8	7	8	9	6
MAY	10	9	10	12	10
JUNE	10	9	10	10	11
JULY	13	11.5	14	12	13
AUGUST	14	14	14	12	13
SEPTEMBER	12	14	12	11	13
OCTOBER	10	10.5	10	11	12
NOVEMBER	7	7	5	6	5
DECEMBER	6	7	5	5	4

Sources: Derived from Ministry of Tourism (1993a and 1997a). \* Rounded

For every year round job in tourism, there are one or more seasonal jobs. The peak periods, where there is a shortage of labour, are followed by seasonal troughs



where there is little work. The shorter the season, the greater the risk of unemployment. Employee fluctuation rate in the hotel and catering sector may be as high as 50 percent. In such cases, there can be complete turnover of the workforce in only two years. High geographic and professional mobility has an effect on productivity and wages. Where they have the choice, workers generally prefer year-round work to a seasonal job (OECD, 1995).

c- In advanced economies or highly developed countries many jobs in tourism are not attractive enough for native nationals due the fact that those jobs require low skills, which seem to be a problem in these economies. Thus, highly developed economies recruited foreign labour from relatively undeveloped or developing countries to make up this shortfall of unskilled workers. The statistical figures related to this issues seem to be interesting. The proportion of foreigners in the hotel and catering workforce is 14 % in France, 27 % in Germany, 33 % in Austria and 45 % in Switzerland. Rich countries have the opportunity to guarantee service quality in the tourism industry by *recruiting foreigners whilst, at the same time, enabling their* nationals to take on well-paid interesting jobs. For example, during the last boom period in Switzerland, many Swiss nationals left the hotel and catering sector(OECD, 1995). The policy of advanced economies towards employment in the tourism industry may pose a question about the function of tourism in the process of modernisation and take attention to the role of tourism in emergency of modern slavism in the 21 century.

‘Apparently ‘objective’ economic ‘fact’ prompt intense emotional debate. To take but one example, critics of tourist development, especially in LDCs, frequently assert that while the industry may create employment, the jobs it produces are of an inferior nature. Development, it is argued, does not come from a nation of waiters, bell hops and chambermaids, and far less from prostitutes and pimps. Although such assertions clearly go beyond economic criteria, they are at the heart of many criticisms of tourism development’ (Harrison, 1992: 18)

It is also argued that the employment policy of advanced economies may usher in segmentation of the labour market. In this regard, the dualistic theory of the labour market makes a distinction between primary and secondary markets. The primary market contains jobs with attractive salaries and career opportunities associated with good working conditions and guaranteed stability whereas the secondary market

consists of less well paid jobs offering little opportunity for promotion and little or no stability of employment. There exists the danger of wide gaps between these two labour markets because these various types of jobs are also determined by people of different cultures representing different systems of values or lifestyles. 'This theory applies most markedly to the labour in the hotel and catering sector' (OECD, 1995:42).

The employment in the tourism industry in Turkey mirror a similar picture, but is a bit different. In the words of Tosun and Jenkins (1996: 527-8),

Concentration of tourism investments in developed regions in the western part of the country have induced unskilled and unqualified employees in the East and Southeast Anatolia to move from their residence to the western part of Turkey to work in the construction of the tourism industry. After working in the constructions of the tourism industry, they become cheap labour inputs for the operation of the tourism industry by accepting low status jobs with low payment and without side benefits (insurance, good accommodation facilities, etc. ). This unskilled labour force has been preferred to a semi-skilled work force. Creating job opportunities for poor people living on the margin of basic needs may be interpreted as a social justification policy. But, if the area which creates the job opportunities is supported by government, such as in the tourism sector in Turkey, via generous incentives which are available to the existing powerful elite class who then use the poor people as cheap labour, the gap between rich and poor will be widened and inequality will become a bigger problem. Therefore, the distribution of benefits of tourism development among individuals and regions in a country is an important consideration-

That is to say, few attractive jobs requiring high skills are occupied by foreigners (the law related to the tourism industry allows companies to employ up to 20 % foreigners) and well-educated people from high income groups. The low status, unskilled jobs associated with low wages and hard working conditions have been left for members of destination communities who were working on farms or for those unskilled people who moved from less developed parts of the country in order to work in the construction of the tourism industry, and then have become cheap labour inputs. As it is case in Kenya (Harrison, 1992 quoting Bachmann, 1988), although tourism creates some new jobs, the regional unemployment problem is not resolved, because an even larger number of jobless people migrate constantly from distant places to the tourist centres thus increasing the unemployed population of many popular local tourist destinations. This issue has created wider problems. For example,

migration of the labour force from the undeveloped regions to newly developed tourist regions has ushered in wider sociocultural problems, such as depopulation of the undeveloped regions, and a sociocultural backlash between those from rural areas and rich elites in tourist regions (Tosun and Jenkins, 1996). A recent survey conducted by MT (1997c) also has confirmed the existence of a sociocultural backlash between the migrated people from undeveloped regions and rich elites in tourist regions.

d- Jobs in the tourism industry have their own special conditions that make the jobs unattractive. Even well-paid jobs in many developed countries suffer from a shortage of staff due the issues of working conditions. Working conditions are particularly difficult in catering.

While hard physical work is on its way out in industry and the working environment is becoming healthier, working conditions are still quite often physically demanding and the environment unhealthy for kitchen staff and, to some extent, for service personnel (heat, steam, draughts, poor lighting, noise, smoke). It is not surprising that catering jobs are not generally held in high esteem (OECD, 1995: 43).

Moreover, many jobs in tourism require undesirable working times such as weekends, holidays and nights. It is usually difficult to keep a balance between workloads and employees' capacities during peak season. Dealing with people who have high expectations from their holidays is not easy and requires considerable personal commitment. Peak working hours and the repetitive nature of jobs in tourism result in stress, which may be reasons for many individuals who are not qualified for employment and other are not willing to accept the sector's employment disadvantages, but nothing or almost nothing can be done about the particularities of working conditions in tourism (OECD, 1995).

To sum up, 'Some critics of tourism as a development strategy suggest that its contribution to employment has been exaggerated' (Harrison, 1992: 15). The higher the development level, the more difficult it is to find employees for unskilled work. This may imply that although tourism as an employment generator sector may be an option for developing economies, but when they become an advance economy, it may not be an viable option any more.

The above discussion may suggest that Turkish authorities have exaggerated the economic impacts of tourism development, particularly since the 1980s. Indeed,

without comprehensive and objective research on the economic impacts of tourism development, to allocate a considerable amount of scarce resources of a developing country like Turkey to a tourism sector is questionable. As a result, the exaggerated economic expectations from the tourism industry has motivated many public and private entrepreneurs to invest in the tourism industry at the expense of the society, environment and future generations (see EIU 1989; 1993).

The implication of this strategy seems to be that Turkey has been using available tourist assets to achieve the short-term goals of successive political governments at the expense of environment, local community and Turkish holiday makers. Since many local tourist destinations are overcrowded, and thus the prices are relatively high for domestic tourists, Turkish people avoid going on holiday to these destinations.

It seems to be logical to pose some interesting, but politically hard questions about the current tourism development policy of Turkey. Why is Turkey so cheap as an international holiday destination? Is it because of using unskilled cheap labour? Is it because the Turkish governments has given too generous fiscal and financial incentives that enable the tourism industry to win the current price competition? Is the tourism industry paying enough taxes and contributing to the environmental protection and community development projects? Are Turkish hoteliers selling their products under their cost value or are Turkish hoteliers including amortisation cost of their fix investment in the cost of their price? According to Tosun (1991), large scale hoteliers could decrease their price under their actual cost, and thus they would have difficulty in covering their amortisation expenses in the future. Is it not possible for Turkey to avoid the detrimental price competition in the tourism market?

The above questions certainly raise doubts about current economic benefits of the international inbound tourism to Turkey, tourism as a viable economic growth strategy for a developing country, and sustainable tourism development in Turkey.

As a result, it may be said that the current tourism development approach in Turkey seems to be based on political decisions rather than logical economic ones made in an emergency derived from the economic and social crises in 1982 following the last military takeover.

## **Conclusion**

The geographic and geopolitical situation of Turkey has engendered considerable socio-economic as well as political influences upon her history and development. During the last four decades, social conflicts, political and economic instability were main problems in Turkey.

Unless Turkey can solve some of her macro economic problems, social conflicts may arise and cause political unrest. Due to the geopolitical situation and historical background of the country, she is under the pressure of major dominant powers of the World. Unless Turkey has a strong economy in the near future, her unity and democracy may be not sustainable.

The tourism industry is expected to contribute to strengthening the economy by increasing foreign currency earning, narrowing current account deficits in the balance of payment and creating job opportunities. This chapter indicated that tourism development has taken place for economic benefits in Turkey. Particularly, after 1980, the last military coupe, the tourism sector has begun to be seen as a panacea and the strongest alternative to relieve foreign currency bottlenecks. Supporting and encouraging tourism for economic gains, has caused the emergence of biased planning approaches, that have created environmental, economic and social problems.

The main conclusion of this chapter is that Turkish tourism does need a contemporary approach which must be developed by taking into account socio-cultural, political and economic structure and environmental features in the sub-national areas. This study as a whole and in chapters seven, eight and nine in particular will be an attempt to investigate the appropriateness of a participatory tourism development approach at local level in Urgup, from which important lessons may be drawn for other local destinations experiencing similar tourism development problems.

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## CHAPTER - 5

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### **Introduction**

This chapter provides a discussion of the research methodology, design and procedures used to assess the current practice of and potential for community participation in the TDP, and to examine views of formal bodies, local communities, and representatives of the private sector (Cappadocia Association of Tourism Operators (KAPTIB)) on various issues of community participation in the TDP. Additionally, it is used to delineate expectations of local community from and their views on tourism development in general in Urgup. Further, this chapter includes data sources and the data analysis methods used in the current study to achieve pre-determined research objectives.

#### **Classification of the Sample**

There seems to be agreement among scholars in tourism that the local community in a tourist destination is an important part of the tourism product. In Murphy's (1985: 165) words, 'the industry uses the community as a resource, sell it as a product, and in the process affects the lives of everyone'. By considering this point of view, many scholars have claimed and/or implied that successful tourism development depends on strong community support and participation of the community in the TDP (Getz, 1983, Haywood, 1988, Ritchie, 1988, Inskip, 1994 and Lankford et al, 1996).

It was thought that by researching the local people views' on current practice of and potential for community participation, willingness of the local community to participate in TDP, and their views on the barriers to and benefits of a participatory tourism development approach, it would be possible to get a better idea about the current status and wider issues of participatory tourism development in Urgup.

In a developing country such as Turkey, formal bodies' (central and local authorities) support is essential for the success of participatory tourism development.

Additionally, private sector representatives can also play an important role since they have power to effect decision-makers. Thus, researching private sector representatives' views may make a considerable contribution to understanding dimensions of participatory tourism development in a wider sense.

## **Overall Research Design**



It seems to be difficult to gather sufficient reliable and valid data through a single research instrument. Hence, this research has utilised multiple data gathering techniques. In this context, it is important to integrate qualitative data and quantitative data. That is to say, to achieve the objectives of the study, both theoretical discussions and an empirical study (i.e. three questionnaires; one for the local community, one for central bodies; and the other for local bodies, together with another unstructured questionnaire for personal interviews were formulated, see appendix - 1-4) were employed

In brief, a large amount of qualitative and quantitative data became available alongside collected governmental documents regarding community participation in the tourism development process at a local and central level in Turkey. Past working experience in the tourism sector and the personal observations of the researcher facilitated analysis and informed the conclusions from the investigation.

Issues of community participation in the tourism development process in Urgup which this research presents are drawn and interpreted from a range of local and national sources as well as from references to secondary material and theoretical framework given in chapters 2, 3 and 4. While they are, inevitably, selective and interpretive in nature every attempt has been made to present a balanced assessment of diverse, qualitative and quantitative data.

## **Theoretical Discussion**

The theoretical part consisted of desk research to acquire general knowledge on understanding the concept of the community and community participation in the development process. Previous literature on the above subject was reviewed.

## **Empirical Study**

The empirical study was an attempt to find out the potential for and current practice of community participation in Urgup, to determine the views of formal bodies, private sector representatives and the local community. Documented government sources, questionnaires and personal interviews were used as techniques of data collection for the empirical exercise.

## **Documented Sources**

The State Planning Organisation, Ministry of Tourism and the local bodies in Urgup were contacted for information regarding;

(a) various information on the tourism development process in Turkey and Urgup; (b) public policies and institutions involved in the management of tourism; (c) problems of Turkish tourism development in general; (d) approaches to tourism development and current status of participatory development strategy and (e) the socio-economic and political structure in Urgup.

## **Questionnaire Design**

Three questionnaires were used in the field work; one for local bodies, one for central bodies and the other for the local community in Urgup (see appendix - 1, 3 and 4). It was one of the main difficulties of this research to develop valid questions since there were not many studies which used questionnaires techniques to investigate the participatory tourism development approach. Thus, a number of questions used in the questionnaires of this study were adopted from past studies regarding community participation in other disciplines such as agriculture, education, transport, health, public administration etc.

Content validity of questions is important to arrive at the research objectives. Veal (1992: 36) argues validity as 'the extent to which the measure truly reflects the phenomenon being considered'. In this respect, 'A valid measure is one which measures what it is intended to measure' (de Vaus, 1996: 55). To increase content

validity, Davis and Consenza (1988:150-151) suggested the following procedures; (1) conduct an exhaustive search of the literature for all possible items to be included in the scale, (2) solicit expert opinions on the inclusion of items, (3) pre-test the scale on a set of respondents similar to the population to be studied, (4) and modify as necessary.

To achieve a reasonable level of content validity, the following five steps were carried out:

Step-1: The researcher attended MSc taught courses in the Politic Division of the Government Department at Strathclyde University. This course created an opportunity for the researcher to gain background knowledge of the nature of the community and community participation in general.

Step-2: A review of the literature was undertaken to determine the appropriate concepts to be included and a design of the conceptual framework to undertake the research based on the pre-determined objectives. As can be understood from the bibliography, the research utilised a multi-disciplinary literature review. Further, during the literature review a question data bank was built.

Step-3: Recommendation and comments on the questionnaires were received from fellow students in the Research Methodology Classes (conducted by the Government Department and Strathclyde Business School for MSc/PhD/DBA students) and also from fellow Turkish students especially PhD/DBA students of the University of Strathclyde and University of Glasgow. This step checked on the operational part of the survey, the clarity of questions and the appropriateness of the proposed variables and scales. Finally, the questionnaires were submitted to the supervisor for comments and approval.

Step-4: The questionnaires were independently translated into Turkish by five fellow Turkish PhD students. Two of them were studying tourism at the Scottish Hotel School. The researcher also translated the questionnaire in Turkish. Then, the researcher compared the wording of each translation.

Step-5: Pilot studies were conducted during the initial 10 days of the data collection period (October-December). The pilot studies were conducted in Urgup where the actual research was carried out. 25 local people and 5 officers in

local bodies were approached. As Veal (1992: 118-119) explains, these pilot studies have a number of functions most of which were utilised in this research. These functions are: (1) to try out the wording of questions in a questionnaire and to ensure that it is understood by respondents; (2) to test the sequencing of questions in the questionnaire; (3) to gain some familiarity with respondents and their views, etc. which may lead to some modification of questionnaire content; and (4) to obtain an estimate of the time taken to complete a questionnaire.

In brief, these pilot studies provided useful information to the researcher, which led him to reword some of the questions, and hence further refined questionnaires. In the words of Moser and Kalton (1971), these pilot studies had important contributions to improvements of questionnaires and increased the efficiency of the enquiry.

Questionnaires (local community, central authorities and local bodies) and unstructured questions for personal interviews (with local bodies and KAPTIB) used in this current study are shown in Appendices 1, 2, 3 and 4. The way questionnaires were structured and the way the questions were formulated were in accordance with the expectation of maximising the amount of information that can be collected for the purpose of achieving the research objectives and, at the same time, minimising the difficulties that participants might have in understanding and answering the questions.

Following the recommendations of Hoinville and Jowell (1978), the first few questions were easy to understand and relevant to motivate the respondents to begin, the more difficult questions were in the middle and the last questions were of high interest to encourage the respondents to complete them. The questionnaires were phrased with clear instructions at the beginning of each section and formatted in such a way that each section supported the underlining objectives of the research.

Regarding to the type of questions used there seem to be three alternatives; open-ended, closed and combination of closed and open-ended questions (Pizam, 1994). It is important to keep in mind that each of these types of questions has its own pros and cons. Additionally, characteristics of the population frame from which a sample will be drawn and the nature of the research may be important factors which effect selections of type of questions.

The researcher avoided using open-ended questions in local bodies and local community surveys due to the fact that open-ended questions seem to have two main limitations. First, analysis of open-ended question by computer is arduous and difficult. Second, when respondents complete questionnaire themselves, response rate tend to be very low and/or irrelevant information ,which may be easy to write, can be given.

Although this research dominantly utilised closed type questions, a few open-ended questions were also included. For closed-type of questions caution and careful consideration are important since they require exploration before their construction. It is important that all possible answers are included. The main advantages of closed type of questions are easy to answer, interpret and motivate respondents by giving the impression of time-saving. Additionally, they are relatively easy to code and convenient for computer-base analysis.

In both the local bodies and local community surveys the Likert-style format was employed. This general approach involves providing people with statements and asking them to indicate how strongly they agree or disagree. The format in which this is presented may be verbal or diagrammatic (de Vaus, 1996). The degree of agreement is often demonstrated on a five-point scale, though three and seven have been sometimes used (Smith, 1989).

As Oppenheim (1966) stated, the Likert-style formats make sure that all the items in consideration measure the same thing. In some ways, it eliminates the need for personal judgement by getting subjects in a trial sample to place themselves on an attitude continuum for each statement - operating from strongly agree to agree, unsure, disagree and strongly disagree. As a final statement, it may be sated that the Likert scales seem to be easier to construct and are the most preferred rating scales in social science, particularly in tourism.

Although open-ended questions were avoided in local bodies' and the local community survey, in the case of central authorities, using open-ended questions seemed to be not problematic since central bodies have enough experts with a sufficient level of knowledge to write logical answers for the questions. On the other hand, it was difficult to cover all the issues which would be asked to central authorities by using close-type questions.

In order to support questionnaire results and gain further information about various issues considered in the questionnaire, unstructured questions for personal interviews with local bodies and the Association of Cappadocia Tourism Operators (KAPTIB) as representatives of private sector were formulated.

### **Questionnaire Development**

This study does not follow a classic scientific procedure that propose a hypothesis and test its validity against the data; this study does not utilise the deductive research approach. Rather, it follows the inductive research approach. That is to say that it does not have formal research hypotheses to test.

The origin of the research is theoretical. The review of the literature has provided a theoretical context in general, but it is still difficult to develop meaningful hypotheses to do deductive research. Thus instead of developing hypotheses, this research has established several objectives to achieve. Based upon those research objectives, questionnaires and unstructured questions for personal interviews have been formulated.

### **Local Bodies' Survey**

The questionnaire designed for local authorities consists of three main parts (see appendix -1). These related to the current situation of community participation in the tourism development process, views of local bodies on community participation and personal details of respondents. The first part is composed of questions 1 to 7, which looks at the current practice of participatory tourism development strategy.

Part two, questions 8 to 40 looks at views of local bodies on community participation in tourism development. This part has been divided into five main subsections. These subsections are willingness of local bodies to support or accept participatory tourism development strategy, nature of community involvement expected or desired by local bodies, believe in benefits of participatory tourism development approach, barriers to community participation and finally strategies to improve community participation in tourism development process.



Part 3 the final section of the questionnaire is about personal details of respondents to help understand the answers and classify the results of the surveys.

### **Unstructured Personal Interviews**

In order to support questionnaire results and get further information about various issues considered in the questionnaire, unstructured questions for personal interviews with local bodies and Association of Cappadocia Tourism Operators (KAPTIB) have been formulated (see appendix -2). These questions have several purposes to fulfil. First, to determine local bodies' and KAPTIB's views on the current role of local people in tourism development and to get opinions of the local bodies and KAPTIB on whether to increase this role.

### **Central Authorities' Survey**

The questionnaire designed for central authorities, e.g. the Ministry of Tourism and State Planning Organisation, consists of two main sections (see appendix - 3). Section one is aimed at examining the central bodies' views on various issues regarding community participation in tourism development. The main goal of this section is to find out shortcomings and strengths of the current tourism development approach.

### **Local Community's Survey**

The questionnaire designed for the local community consists of four main parts (see appendix - 4). These parts are: 1- potential for and the current practice of community participation in the tourism development process, 2- local people's views on community participation in tourism development process, 3- expectation of the local people from and views of the local people on tourism development, and 4- personal details of respondents.

## Research Procedures

After conducting the pilot studies, the questionnaires were personally distributed to 25 officers in the local bodies. One week later the questionnaires were collected, and at the same time unstructured interviews also began. Some of the officers were visited several times to get a response and/or to make interviews. 100 percent of the questionnaires were collected, but three of them were incomplete, and thus were eliminated. The remaining 22 valid responses were used, which represents a response rate of 88 %. Related findings of the questionnaires are discussed in the next chapter and statistical figures calculated by SPSS were presented in Appendix-10 (App-10) as tables.

It should be added that in general the officers in the local bodies were friendly and willing to express their opinions about tourism development issues (the names of local officers with whom interviews were made are given in Appendix 5).

In the case of local community's survey, the first step was to hire a local man, who knew the local area well, as driver. After conducting the pilot test, the researcher accompanied by the local man started to distribute the questionnaire. This survey utilised systematic random sampling which is 'similar to simple random sampling and has the same limitations except that it is simpler' (de Vaus, 1996: 64). Since  $1/14$  ( $3500/256 = 13.7$ ) was used as sampling fraction, the first house number was selected randomly between the house number 1 and 14. The random start was 6 (house number). After the random start, every 14th house number was selected.

'To obtain a systematic sample work out a sampling fraction by dividing the population size by required sample size'. In the case of the local community's survey the population size is the number of the households in Urgup, which is 3500 according to the official letter of the local governor. The required sample size was calculated as 248, but 256 questionnaires were distributed. Thus, for the population of 3500 and sample of 256 the sampling fraction is  $1/14$ : the researcher selected one household for every 14 in the population.

Given the sampling fraction of  $1/14$  the researcher simply selected every 14th house number from the sampling frame. The only problem was where to start. Since the sampling fraction is  $1/14$  the starting point must be somewhere within the first 14

house numbers on the list. Therefore a house number was drawn among the first 14 house numbers, which was the house number 6. Since the random starting point was 6 the researcher then selected every 14th house number after this.

Due to the characteristic of the sampling frame, the sampling did not suffer from the periodicity problem which means that a certain type of person may reoccur at regular intervals within the sampling frame (de Vaus, 1996).

The questionnaires were distributed during the weekend and after 6 p.m. during week days. The questionnaires were completed in the presence of the researcher. Heads of household were asked to answer the questions in the questionnaire. Since some of the house numbers were not clearly marked, some times it was difficult to find the right number easily.

The following reasons may be given for choosing this way of administering the questionnaire:

1- Telephone survey was not appropriate since many local people did not have a telephone. 2- Postal survey could not have been used since there was no proper address records. 3- Street-surveys were thought as not suitable since women and old people did not go out, and so it would be impossible to access them. Additionally, the local people are not used to being asked questions in the street by a stranger, thus they may not have given sincere answers to the questions in the questionnaire.

As a concluding note, it may be said that the sampling procedure was not perfect, but it is a better one within the limitations of time and financial resources, and under the given socio-cultural, economic and political conditions in Urgup.

256 people were chosen as the survey sample of this questionnaire. 19 questionnaires were incomplete and therefore discarded. Consequently, 237 questionnaires were used in this research, representing a response rate of 92.5 percent.

A open-ended questionnaire was sent to central authorities, namely the Ministry of Tourism and State Planning Organisation (SPO). But they did not response. Thus the researcher decided to visit them personally. It took one day to find out in which sections the questionnaire, which was sent in advance, was in the MT. Then, it became a big problem for the officers in the MT to decide who would answer the questionnaire. The managers referred to each other to answer the questionnaire.

After being discussed with two top level managers and three middle level managers in the MT, the researcher was told that they would officially respond to the questionnaire later and they would send it to him. Later, they sent it by post.

It is interesting to note that these difficulties created an opportunity for the researcher to speak with several managers in the MT, which ultimately provided wider useful information regarding the tourism development issues.

The SPO seemed to be well-organised. Thus, to find who would respond to the questionnaire was not difficult. But the experts who were responsible for the tourism sector refused to give a written answer. Thus, the researcher read each questions in the questionnaire, and each question was discussed in detail. Fortunately, the researcher was allowed to record all the answers given to the questions.

The interviews with local bodies and the president of Association of Cappadocia Tourism Operators (KAPTIB) were also recorded. It may be worth noting that the president of KAPTIB was very aggressive and arrogant during the interview. It may also be interesting to state that the researcher witnessed a discussion among some members of the municipal council, the mayor and the president of KAPTIB. In this discussion the president of KAPTIB was again very aggressive and arrogant. He gave an image that he had all the power to govern Urgup. Nevertheless, the researcher achieved what he planned to do.

A total of 22 interviewees was interviewed during the field research (see appendix -8).

## **Sampling**

The field study area is a town called Urgup with 11040 population and 3500 households in Central Anatolia in Turkey. The population and sampling frame of the local community's survey were determined as the 3500 households. From this sampling frame a sample of 248 households was drawn by utilising systematic random sampling method.

In the following section the procedure of the calculating the size of the sample will be detailed.

## The Size of the Sample

Scholars in the research methods for social science have agreed that one of the first questions that confront the designer of a new study is 'How large should a sample be?' (Sudman, 1976, Adams and Schvaneveldt, 1991, Moser and Kalton, 1993 and Danile and Terrell, 1995). Although it appears to be a simple, straightforward question, it is one of the most difficult to answer precisely. Danile and Terrell (1995: 289) states that 'We must consider this question seriously. It is a waste of resources to take a larger sample than we need to achieve the desired results. Similarly, if the sample is too small, the results may be of no practical value'. There is, however, a number of useful guidelines about sample size. In other words, there are some factors that determine how large a sample should be. These are:

**Type of population available for the research problem:** If a research population is completely homogeneous, it stands to reason that a sample of one would be sufficiently large to carry out necessary research. But in the study of social phenomena one is hardly ever large enough. On the other hand, more or bigger is not always necessarily better. 'It is possible to provide one guiding rule about sample size at this point- the more homogenous the population under study, the smaller the sample needs to be to accurately reflect the characteristics of that population' (Adams and Schvaneveldt, 1991: 183). In other words, 'the less variable the population, the smaller a sample necessary to represent it with a given precision' (Moser and Kalton, 1993: 149). Thus, 'sample size depends on how many population subgroups one wishes to study' (Sudman, 1976: 85). In the case of this research, the population for the study seems to be homogenous, and thus it may not need a large sample size. For example, 87 % of the population have primary and secondary level of education, and 70 % of the population work in agriculture (Ulku 1996).

**The degree of precision needed or desired in final results:** The researcher himself must decide how precise he wants his sample results to be, that is how large a standard error he can tolerate' (Moser and Kalton, 1993: 148). In other words, the size of the sampling error should be decided by the individual researcher, which is defined as 'The variability of the estimates among all the possible samples is called the sampling error. The measure of this sampling error is commonly referred to as the

standard error...' (Cannon, 1994: 135). It 'describes a mathematical concept that relates the size of error in estimates from samples to the size of those samples' (Hurst, 1994: 453). But, 'an estimate that has a great deal of variability, or error, associated with it should be used with much caution...' (Cannon, 1994: 135). The bigger the standard error, the smaller the sample size will be.

**The level of detail in the proposed analysis:** 'The necessary sample size depends on the type of analysis to be undertaken' (Veal, 1992: 156). That is to say: 'The decision on sample size will in fact be largely governed by the way the results are to be analysed, so that the researcher must at the outset consider, at least in broad terms, the breakdowns to be made in the final tabulations'. He can then work out roughly what numbers are needed in each sub-group to give the desired precision for that sub-group, and hence what total sample size would be desirable (Moser and Kalton, 1993: 148).

**The available budget and time:** 'Ultimately then, the limiting factor in determining sample size will be the resources available' (Veal, 1992: 156). In other words, desired accuracy is not the only factor in working out the sample size: cost and time are also key factors, as in the case of this research. Hence in the end the final sample size will be a compromise between cost, time, desired or acceptable precision and type of analysis employed for the research (de Vaus, 1991).

Based upon the above discussions on the necessary sample size, several conclusions can be derived. First, 'in practice, there is usually no clear cut answer to how large a sample is needed' (Ehrenberg, 1982:118). Second, 'deciding what sample size to use is almost always a matter more of judgement than of calculation' (Hoinville and Jowell, 1978: 61). Third, 'a large sample size, however, is not sufficient to guarantee the accuracy of the results'. Although, for a given design, an increase in sample size will increase the precision of the sample results it will not eliminate or reduce any bias in the selection procedure. Therefore size of the sample is not in itself enough to ensure that all will be well (Moser and Kalton, 1993: 146).

On the other hand, it is reported that 'samples of less than 30 or 40, from relatively large populations such as those covered in social surveys, are usually not adequate for statistical analysis' (Gardner, 1978: 111). However, Scholarios (1994: 12) states that 'According to the Central Limit Theorem, large sample size is equal to

or bigger than 30 cases ... 30 is big enough for most purposes as a sample size'. In addition, Ehrenberg (1982: 117) argues that ...when sampling from highly skewed population the sample size has to be greater than about  $n=100$  to get an approximately normal distribution of the sample means'. Adams and Schvaneveldt (1991: 183) note that '50 is a minimum size and 30 is the very minimum sample size'. Moser and Kalton (1993: 146) argues that 'Only if the sample represents a relatively high proportion of the population (say, 5 percent or more) need the population size enter into the estimate of the standard error'.

Based on the overall arguments and using a rule of thumb , it may be stated that the minimum sample size for this research may be between 30 and 100 cases. Since the population of the research seems to be relatively homogenous, the minimum sample size suggested by the scholars may provide enough accurate data to achieve the purposes of the research. However, the sample size of the research is calculated as 256 by employing the following formula borrowed from Ryan (1995: 178).

Apparently, the formula requires some decision about what population proportion to use. 'If there is no a priori inclination, as in the case of this research-then the value of  $P= 0.5$  is often used' (Ryan, 1995: 178). 'This assumes a 50/50 split on the variable for a more skew population, which would require a larger sample than one that has a 20/80 split on the variable for a more homogenous research population' (de Vaus, 1991: 71). Sampling error or allowable error is conventionally accepted between 1% and 10% (De Vaus, 1991: 72). But, it is suggested that sampling error should be carefully assessed in light of the nature of the derivation of the population proportion and other aspects of the initial data (Ryan, 1995). This research accepts a 6% allowable error. At the 95% confidence level, z-score is , again, conventionally accepted as 1.96. This is also known as standard deviation (s.d.). This means that 95% of cases will be within a distance of 1.96 s.d. from the mean (Scholarios, 1994 and Ryan, 1995). In other words, 'we can be 95% confident that the results in the population will be the same as in the sample plus or minus the sampling error' (de Vaus, 1991: 71).

**Formula:**

$$n = \frac{NPq}{z^2} + Pq$$

$$n = \frac{3500(0.5)(0.5)}{(3500-1)(0.06)^2} + (0.5)(0.5)$$

$$\frac{875}{3.8416} + 0.25$$

$$\frac{875}{3.8416}$$

$$n = \frac{875}{3.8416} + 0.25$$

$$\frac{875}{3.8416}$$

**Where:**

N= Population size

n= Sample size

P= Population Proportion or estimate

q= 1-P

B= Allowable error

z= Z score based on desired confidence level

N= 3500

P= 0.5

q= 0.5

B= 0.06

z= 1.96

875

$$n = \frac{875}{3.5289}$$

n= 247.95

Some social surveys accept 90% confidence level. If this research accepts 90% confidence level, z score will be 1.64 and the sample size will be 173. This research is not dealing with factual or absolute fact, rather it is dealing with attitudes in more subjective construct and for that reason the researcher accepts more conservative confidence levels.

As a conclusion, it may be stated that the goal of any sampling design is to create guideline for selecting a sample that is representative of its underlying population, thus providing a specified amount of information about the population at a minimum cost. If the underlying population is uniform in the characteristics to be measured, almost any sample provides acceptable results (Mendenhall et al, 1989).



## **Data Analysis**

In this research, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer program was used to analyse the data since SPSS is a comprehensive and flexible statistical analysis and data management system. Moreover, SPSS can generate tabulated reports, charts and complex statistical analyses (Norusis, 1993).

To provide a summary picture of the distribution scores of the variables mode, median and mean were employed to measure centre of tendency, and standard deviation, range and variation ratio were utilised to measure dispersion. The chi-square test for goodness of fit was employed to test hypotheses about the shape or proportions of the population distribution by using the sample data. Chi-square statistical measure was used in order to indicate whether there were relationships between the various independent variables and dependent variables at categorical level. To measure relationships and nature of the relations between variables, bivariate correlation analysis was used by calculating a correlation coefficient. Additionally, statistical analysis was supported with the outcome of the general views of respondents and the results of interviews.

## **Summary**

This chapter discussed the research design. Research methods, questionnaire design and development, research procedures and data analysis were explained.

The sample size was calculated based on assumption of simple random sampling with an allowable error of 0.06 and 95% confidence level, the total sample size required for local community survey is 248. Some social survey accept 90% confidence level. If this research accepts 90% confidence level, the sample size will be 173.

The next chapter will analyse the findings of the field research.

## **Notes**

<sup>1</sup> 'A sampling frame is (usually) a list of population elements from which a sample can be drawn' (Hoinville and Jowell 1978: 69).

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## CHAPTER - 6

### TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN URGUP

#### **Introduction**

This chapter reviews the various aspects of tourism development in Urgup. It begins with a general profile of the region regarding geography, cultural features and socio-economic structure. The chapter also examines the tourism supply of and tourism demand for the destination and also investigates the roots of unsustainable tourism development in the locality, from which some general conclusions will be drawn.

#### **Historical Features of Urgup**

Urgup is a very old town in the Cappadocia region, and has a long and colourful history. In ancient times it was known as Ossianna and later under the Seldjuks as Bashisar. There are a number of historic sights and relics in Urgup. Before the Ottoman conquest, Urgup was a Christian centre. The troglodyte dwellings were carved by the early Christians as refuges. The rich Christian history gave way to the Islamic tradition and Urgup has many religious relics belong to Christianity and Islam (Rifat, 1997 and Urgup Travel Guide, 1995).

The first inhabitants belongs to 3000 BC. in the Cappadocia plateau. After a millennium, the region was captured by Hittite (Bowen, 1987). Before the Hittites took over the plateau, there were small independent communities and the Assyrians were trading in the region. Some remains were found in Kultepe near Kayseri, which illustrated that the Assyrias had established a colonial state to carry on their business. The Assyrias called Cappadocia as Catpatuca which meant the country of beautiful horses (Turizm Bankasi, 1986 and Nevsehir Il Turizm Mudurlugu, 1995).

The most significant fact about Cappadocia is that it provided asylum to early Christians. Saint Paul had visited the region for missionary purposes in the year 53 AD. and had selected the Goreme Valley for building churches, thus laying the foundations of Christianity in this part of the World. The broken valleys, which were

formed by erosion, sheltered the Christians fleeing Roman oppression. Christians had built a multitude of churches by hollowing into the rocks in the Valley of Goreme. When the Roman Empire had set Christianity free in the year 330 AD., religious activities had increased and intensified. By the end of the 4th century, monastery life had begun to prosper in the region. The rock churches had been decorated with impressive religious frescoes. During the 7th century, the emergence of iconoclasm had created a new critical turning point for Christianity. Byzantine persecution caused the Christians to move away and sought refuge in caves and underground towns they had dug (Nevsehir Il Turizm Mudurlugu, 1995 and Turizm Bankasi, 1986).

## Geography

Urgup is located in the Cappadocia region which is in the Central Anatolia. It is one of the nine counties attached to the province of Nevsehir. Urgup is 17 km from Nevsehir by a well surfaced road (see Figure 6.1 and Figure 6.2). The territory of Urgup encompasses an area of 574 square km which constitutes 10 percent of the total area in Cappadocia. The average elevation above sea level is 1.150 meters that is lower than the average altitude of Turkey (1300 meters) (Ulku, 1996).

## Demographic Features of Urgup

Around 12 thousand people live in Urgup. Although the illiteracy rate seems to be very low (3 %), education level is very low as well. Only 3 % of the population have higher education (see table 6.1).

Table 6.1 The Level of Education in Urgup

Level of Education	Share in Total as %
Illiterate	3
literate	7
Primary	50
Secondary- high school	37
University	3
Total	100

Source: Ulku, 1996 (Personal report of the town governor)

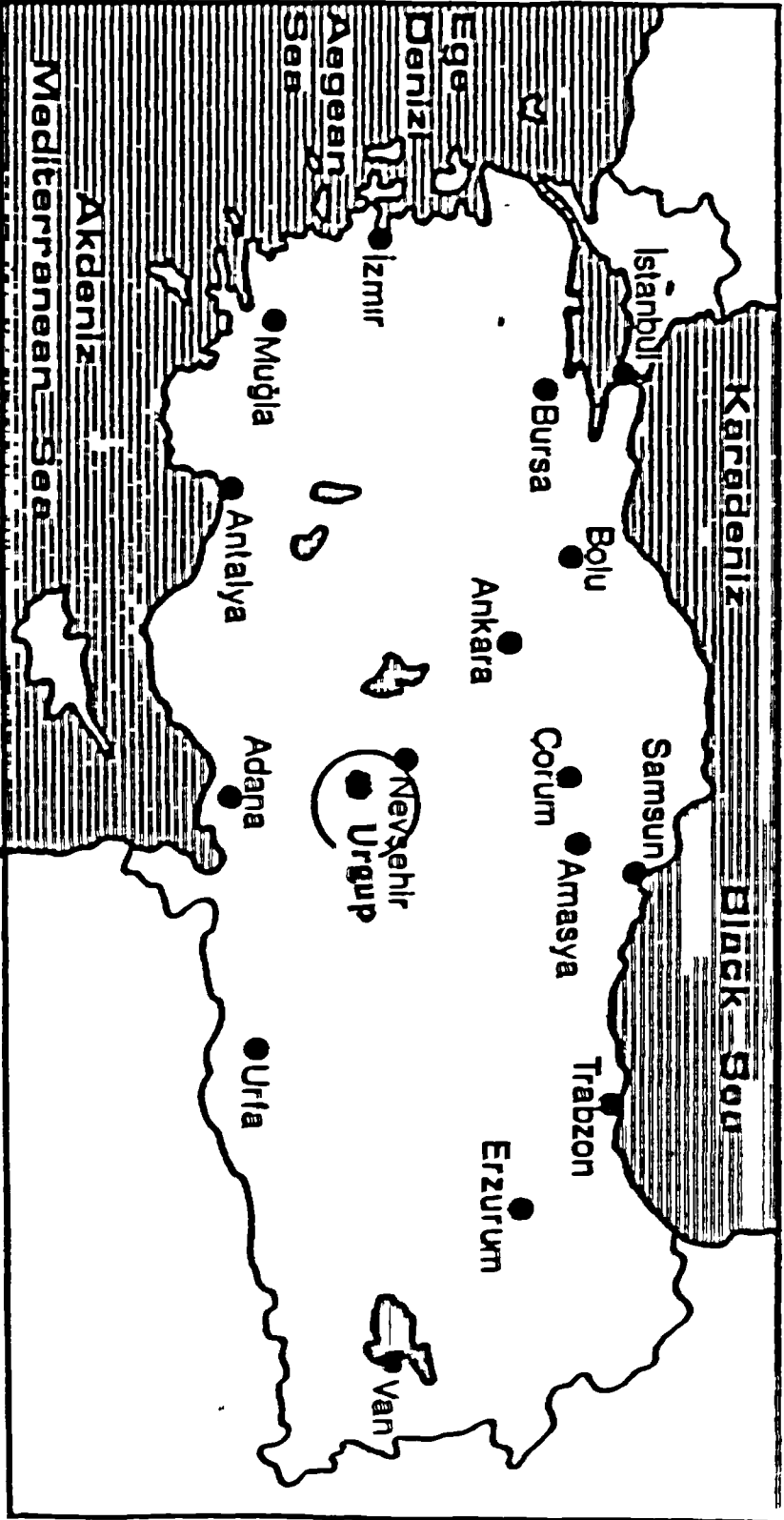


Figure 6.1: Location of Urgup in Turkey

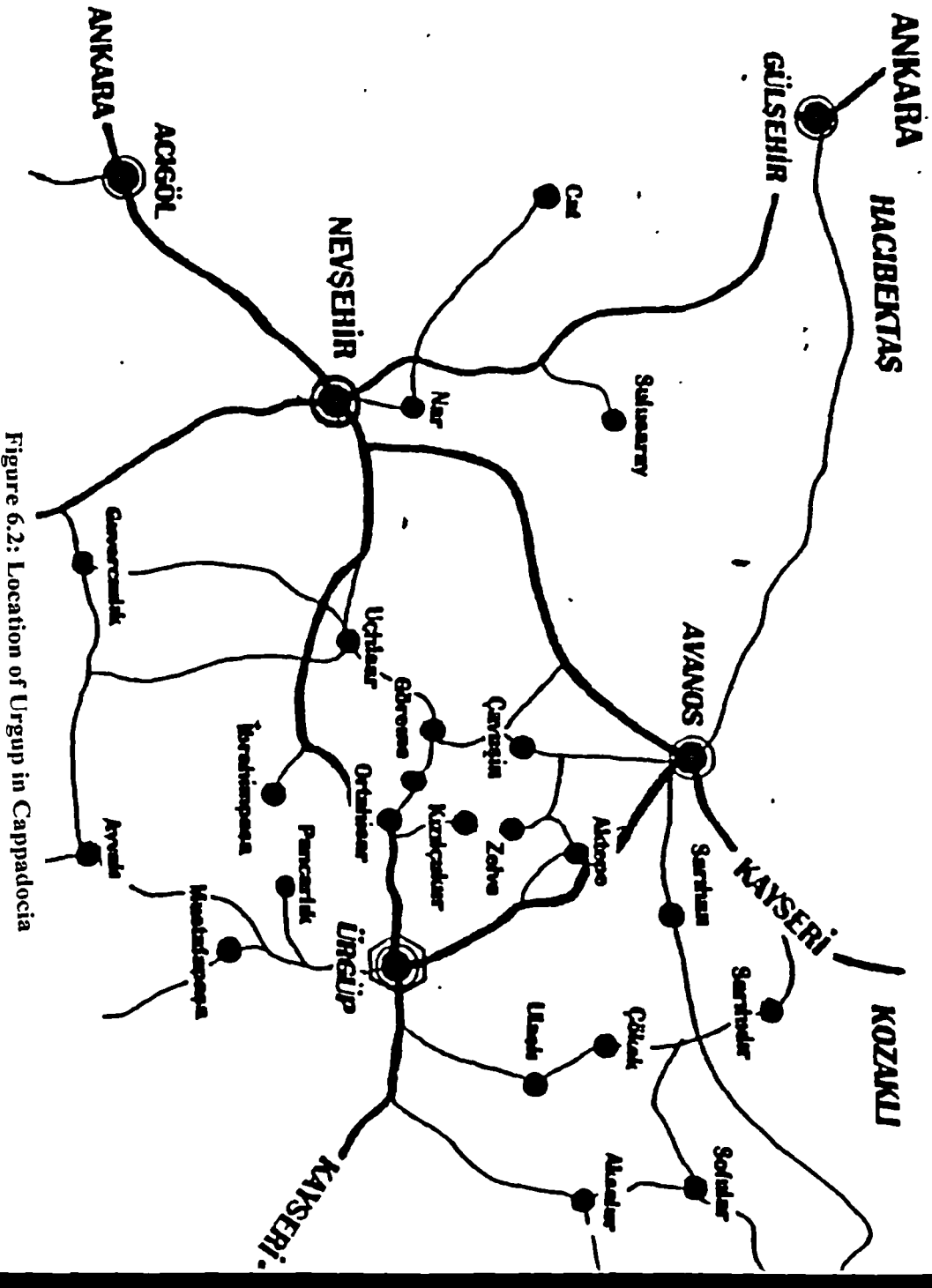


Figure 6.2: Location of Urgup in Cappadocia

## **Cultural Features of Urgup**

The local community has all the peculiarities of typical Anatolian culture. Father or husband has undeniable authority over family members. The extended family structure exist to large extent, which strengthens communal relations in the community. In brief, traditional life styles without changing much prevail in Urgup. But, tourism development itself and migration of people to other places and migration of people from other parts of the country to Urgup due to tourism growth have induced the community to change and lose its authentic culture (Ulku, 1996).

## **Economic Features of Urgup**

The vast majority of the local people (70 %) work in agriculture. 15 % deals with trades, 10 % have their independent business and 5 % have jobs in other areas. The share of agriculture in employment may indicate that the tourism industry could not have changed much the structure of the economic life of the community in Urgup (Ulku, 1996).

Viniculture and stock breeding are dominant in the agricultural sector. Since 1982 tourism has emerged as a viable economic activity in Urgup. The central government determined Urgup as an important tourism centre and gave generous fiscal and monetary incentives to support medium and large scale tourism investments made in Urgup. The local people have not benefited from the government's generous incentives for the tourism industry since they have not had enough capital and skills to be small entrepreneurs in the tourism industry.

In brief, government have ignored agriculture and supported tourism on a large scale. Although there were incentives for some kinds of small scale investment, the local people in general were too poor to make even a small scale investment in the tourism industry. Additionally, the locals were culturally remote from the tourism business. As a result, relatively big capital owners outside the local community invested in the tourism industry and the local people have been further isolated from the prevailing economic life in their own territory.



## **Tourism Development in Urgup**

This section is broken into three main sub-sections so as to give a better picture of the tourism development in Urgup.

### **Tourism Supply of Urgup**

Tourism supply may be defined as the sum of the all things which meet tourism demand or help tourist satisfaction in a destination area. According to this broad definition, the tourism supply of Urgup will be assessed.

#### **Basic Resources of the Tourism Supply**

Basic resources of tourism supply are the raw material of tourism. These resources are fundamental for tourism supply (Sessa, 1983). Basic resources of the tourism supply are attractions that can draw people to them (Mill and Morrison, 1985). The basic resources of tourism supply may be examined under two main groups:

**1-Natural resources** may be one of the most important element of the tourism supply. These are:

**Climate**: A continental steppe climate prevails over the region, with hot and dry summers and rainy springs and falls. As Inskeep (1991) stated that hot, dry and sunny climate can be a attraction for tourists who live particularly in a cold winter climate.

**Natural and scenic beauty**: The geological history of the region merges volcanicity from Oligocene times, 38 million years ago or so, almost until today (Bowen, 1990). The geological structure of volcanic origin has formed by wind erosion bizarre formations that are known as the 'fairy chimneys'. Rainwater flowing down the slopes of the valley eroded the tufa soil and caused earth cracks which were further exposed to wind erosion that has carved out the fairy chimneys (Turizm Bankasi, 1986). From the natural features of the region have emerged the unique scenery and geological structure, which attracts many tourists to the regions.

**Spas:** There are spas based on hot mineral waters that are being used for health tourism in the region.

**2- Cultural Attractions:** Every nation has its own state of manners, taste, way of life, value judgment etc. therefore, every country is unique in terms of cultural attraction (Mill and Morrison, 1985). Most cultural attractions have been created by man's activities. The cultural attractions of the region can be examined as follows:

**Archaeological, historical, and cultural sites,** including cultural and national monuments, historic buildings, towns and important religious buildings are major touristic attractions in Urgup.

Cappadocia in which Urgup is located was used as an asylum by Christians in previous times. Beside many rock churches, caves and underground towns giving the region a unique appearance, the dwellings which were either hollowed into the rocks or built during later periods along steep slopes from soft stones easily malleable when freshly extracted from the quarry, but hardening with time, giving the region a very characteristic architectural texture (Turzm Bankasi, 1986).

**Different cultural patterns:** Cultural patterns, traditions, and life styles of the local people are unique to Urgup. Cappadocia is an agricultural area where specific and original rural Turkish culture can be found. Customs, dress and way of cooking bread and producing food are very different from the tourists who visit there. These cultural features are even different from the most places in Turkey; even now a few families live in rock-buildings in the region.

**Handicrafts:** Local women and young girls are creating special hand-made carpet and kilim (woven matting) which are unique to the region.

**Museums:** There is a small museum in Urgup, but there are two other museums in the region. One of them is in the main province, Nevsehir. Both archaeological and ethnographic remnants are displayed in the museum. The other museum is about a religious man who is called as Hacibektasi Veli. There is a town in the region named for this religious man. Indeed, this saint is well known nation-wide. Many domestic tourists visit the museums of the dervish and his mausoleum.

## General and Touristic Infrastructure

Infrastructure can be defined as all forms of construction on or under the ground which constitute the basic framework for any desired development (Inskip, 1991). Sufficient infrastructure in terms of quality and quantity are necessary for sound tourism development. The infrastructure of Cappadocia could be described as follows:

**Transportation:** it is the first factor which may determine the level of economic development in any country and is the most important condition for tourism development in any local area in a country (Olali, 1990). The nearest airport used by tourists who visit Urgup is the Esenboga airport in Ankara. The distance between Ankara and Urgup is 320 km. It takes 4.5 hours to go to Urgup using the highway. Excursions to the region are made from Konya, located 220 km, west and from Antalya situated 625 km.

**Telecommunication:** Telecommunication includes telephone, telegraph, telex, and telefax, are available in the region. Telephones are installed even in very small village in Cappadocia; there is no village without a telephone (SPO, 1993b).

**Electric Power:** Power is also available in every corner of the region, but the reliability of the electric power services is not high.

**Sewage Disposal:** There is no research about carrying capacity of sewage disposal system which has already been installed according to local resident' needs without taking into account the tourism development in the region. Although there seems to be no problem due to the sewage disposal system, in future there could be pollution of underground and surface water and unpleasant odours since the number of accommodation establishments have been dramatically increased since 1983.

**Solid Waste Disposal:** The municipal government is the responsible body for collection of solid waste. Presently, solid wastes are collected and left on empty land owned by the municipal government outside the towns and villages, which is not a permanent and sound solution dealing with solid waste disposal. There are various techniques of solid waste disposal based on the local situation, but solid waste disposal seems to be a potential problem in Urgup.

**Water Supply:** According to SPO (1993b), there are sufficient sources of water supply in the region. As Inskeep (1991) contended that tourist facilities such as accommodation, swimming pool etc. require large amount of water supply for their effective operation. In Urgup this large amount of water supply requirement of the touristic facilities has not been taken into account when the sources of water supply were considered for local resident, therefore, water supply may be another potential problem in Urgup.

**Drainage:** Proper drainage of the land is an essential part of infrastructure of a destination area (Inskeep, 1991). Since there seems not to be any problem related with flooding during periods of heavy rainfall, there is no proper drainage of the land in Urgup.

### Superstructure of the Tourism Sector

Touristic superstructure is another main component of the tourist product. The superstructure of the tourism sector in Urgup can be broken into four groups, namely accommodation, food and beverage, recreation and entertainment facilities and shopping centres.

**Accommodation facilities:** It is important for success of a tourist destination that a sufficient quantity of accommodation facilities with the right quality are available to meet tourists' needs (Mill and Morrison, 1985).

Table 6.2. Ministry Licensed Accommodation Establishments by Types and Classes in 1995

Class of Establishment.	Num. of Rooms		Number of Bed		% of Beds		b/a
	Capp.	Urgup	a Capp	b Urgup	Capp.	Urgup	
5 & 4 stars	1364	860	2803	1779	41.9	52	0.63
3 stars	1354	287	2245	523	33.8	15	0.23
2 stars	559	224	870	456	12.8	13	0.52
1 star	195	113	386	224	5.6	6	0.58
Motel	235	235	473	473	6.9	14	1.00
Total	3707	1719	6777	3455	100	100	0.51

Source: Nevsehir İl Turizm Müdürlüğü (1995)

As can be seen from table 6.2, 51 % of total bed capacity of the Cappadocia region is in Urgup. Interestingly, 63 % of 4&5 stars hotels' bed capacity is in Urgup as well. In brief, based on the table 6.2, a few comments may be made:

- Tourism investment in the region was concentrated in Urgup. This may be due the fact that Urgup was determined as a tourism region and qualified for generous tourism investment incentives in 1983.
- Vast majority of luxury hotels (63 %) were built in Urgup. This figure seems to support the argument that governments have supported large scale luxury investment which were made by non-local people in Urgup.
- According to the Ministry of Tourism and Culture (1983), a hotel with less than 25 rooms is called small hotel. To this definition, there is only one Ministry licensed small accommodation establishment (Nevsehir Il Tourism Mudurlugu, 1995). These figures may also indicate that medium- and large capital owners benefited from generous tourism incentives given by the relevant governments.
- There is only one motel owned by MT. The share of this accommodation establishment in total bed capacity is 6 %. Although privatisation of state owned tourism establishments have been strongly supported by MT, the current share of MT in the bed capacity of Urgup is considerable. This cannot be explained by this research.
- The share of 4 and 5 stars hotels' bed capacity may indicate that there is a trend of building luxury hotels, perhaps without doing any market research.

The figures in table 6.2 show only tourism ministry licensed accommodation establishments. Relevant figures of other accommodation establishments are not available.

**Food and beverage facilities:** Cuisine of a destination area can be a significant secondary attraction for tourists (Inskeep, 1991). Beside this fact, sufficient supply of food and beverage are essential parts of the tourism superstructure. In Urgup there are sufficient numbers of restaurants and bars, but quality of the services in these facilities are not controlled, therefore they are unknown in terms of quality.

**Recreation and entertainment facilities:** There are limited recreation facilities for tourists and local resident in the region. Individual tourist can ride horses, play table tennis, tennis etc., but these limited recreational activities are not organised

very well and seem to not be able to meet the need. Discos, night clubs, casinos for gambling etc. are available, but these recreational facilities are not compatible with local traditions and rural culture. For example, drinking alcohol, gambling etc. are not acceptable in the society in Urgup. Indeed, if a local resident is involved in gambling activity, local police may evaluate this as a criminal activity.

**Shopping centres:** There are many shops most of which are owned by non-local people and opened only during the peak tourism seasons.

**Other superstructure:** There is a School of Hotel and Tourism Management that is attached to Erciyes University in Kayseri. This school was established to meet personnel requirement of the tourism industry at managerial level in the region. There is also one vocational high school of tourism and hotel management opened by the Ministry of Education, which was established to meet personnel need of the industry at non-managerial levels. Additionally, the Ministry of Tourism established a tourism training centre in Urgup to meet employee needs of the tourism industry in the short-term. Unfortunately, most of the students graduated from these schools do not work in the region, but prefer to work in tourist destinations on the coastal areas in Turkey.

### **Tourism Demand for Cappadocia**

There is not much information about distribution of number of arrivals, average length of stay by nationality at local level in Urgup. Therefore, the related figures for Cappadocia are taken into account in order to give a rough picture of tourism demand profile of Urgup.

As can be seen from table 6.3, domestic arrivals and nights spent had a significant share in the total visitors arrivals and nights spent. 41% of total arrivals and 43 % of total nights spent belonged to domestic tourists. These figures were about 40 % and 36 % respectively in 1992 (MT, 1993b). This means that there is an increasing trend of domestic tourism demand for Cappadocia. Interestingly, average length of stay of domestic tourists is higher than their foreign counterpart.

The share of foreign visitors of total arrivals and nights spent is still very important. 59 % of total arrivals and 57 % total nights spent belonged to foreign tourists. The largest number of foreign visitors to Cappadocia is from France, which

constitutes 22 % of total foreign arrivals. The second largest number of foreign visitors were from Japan, that constitutes about 20 % of total foreign arrivals. About 87 % of total foreign arrivals and 90 % of nights spent belonged to only 8 countries, which were France, Germany, Spain, Italy, Japan, USA, Benelux Countries and Austria. When the average length of stay of foreign visitors is examined by nationality, the highest ratio belonged to the visitors from Austria as 4.14 days. The visitors from Switzerland had the second highest average length of stay as 3.19 days. The average length of stay of French, Spanish, Italian and Japanese were not so high although they constituted the largest percentage of total foreign arrivals in Cappadocia. In 1996 average length of stay of all tourists was 1.98 days that seems to be very low.

Moreover, Tosun (1996) argued that foreign tourists tended to prefer to stay at higher class accommodation while domestic visitors tended to stay at lower class hotels and other types of accommodation facilities in Cappadocia. The figures in table 6.4 are in line with the above statement.

As is illustrated in table 6.4, the average length of stay of foreign visitors particularly at higher class of accommodations, was higher than domestic tourists' average length of stay in Cappadocia in 1992. For example, the average length of stay of foreign visitors were 2.19 days at five stars hotels, 2.03 days at four stars hotels, 2.02 days at two stars hotels etc. While domestic tourist's average length of stay was respectively 2.08, 1.95 and 1.71 in the region. The average length of stay of domestic tourists were higher at thermal hotels (2.50 days) and camping (1.46) than foreign tourists' average length of stay at these accommodation facilities.

When the occupancy rates of accommodation facilities by types are examined in Cappadocia, it can be seen that foreigners' occupancy rates were higher at higher class of accommodation facilities than the domestic tourists' occupancy rates were. For example, the foreigners' occupancy rates were 32.63 at five stars hotels while it was only 9.87 for domestic tourists at the same class of hotels. On the other hand, the foreign tourists occupancy rates were 1.88 at one star hotels while it was 47.79 for domestic tourists. One interesting point is that the occupancy rates of domestic visitors were very high at thermal hotels when it is compared with the foreign tourists' occupancy rates at the same type of accommodation facility.

Table 6.3 Distribution of Number of Arrivals, Average Length of Stay in the Ministry Registered Accommodations by Nationality in Cappadocia in 1996

Nationality	Number of Arrivals	Share of nationality in foreign arrivals	Nights Spent	Average Length of stay
Austria	2046	0.007	8462	4.14
Germany. FR.	24733	0.10	49884	2.02
Benelux C.(1)	14458	0.05	25765	1.78
Scand. C. (2)	1785	0.007	3364	1.88
France	57680	0.22	120865	2.10
U. Kingdom	3050	0.01	5204	1.71
Spain	18261	0.07	35542	1.95
Switzerland	436	0.002	1390	3.19
Italy	27883	0.10	61264	2.20
Greece	260	0.0009	371	1.43
USA.	33820	0.13	69423	2.05
Australia	2702	0.01	5162	1.91
Japan	52208	0.20	74890	1.43
Canada	1662	0.006	2310	1.39
Bulgaria	362	0.002	480	1.33
Hungary	111	0.0004	186	1.68
Poland	824	0.003	938	1.14
Romania	87	0.0003	123	1.41
USSR.	296	0.001	574	1.94
Yugoslavia	22	0.00008	30	1.36
Iraq	8	-	12	1.50
Kuwait	79	0.0003	90	1.14
Lib. Arap Jan.	3	-	3	1.00
Lebanon	832	0.003	854	1.03
Egypt	4	-	7	1.75
Syria A.Rep.	610	0.002	727	1.19
S. Arabia	131	0.0005	208	1.59
Jordan	108	0.0004	174	1.61
Iran	96	0.0004	207	2.16
Pakistan	12	-	18	1.50
Other	21125	0.08	40143	1.90
Total Foreigner	265694	100	508670	1.91
Turkey	184961		382614	2.07
Grand Total	450655		891284	1.98

(1)Benelux Countries: Belgium, Netherlands, Luxembourg

(2)Iskandinavia Countries: Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland

Source: Derived Ministry of Tourism (1997b)



Table-6.4 Distribution of Average Length of Stay and Occupancy Rates in the Ministry Registered Accommodations by Type and Class in Cappadocia in 1992

Type and Class of Establishment	Average Length of Stay			Occupancy Rate		
	Foreigner	Citizen	Total	Foreign	Citizen	Total
Hotel						
5 Starts	2.19	2.08	2.16	32.63	9.87	42.51
4 Starts	2.03	1.95	2.00	26.72	12.48	39.20
3 Starts	2.27	2.21	2.26	32.45	8.65	41.10
2 Starts	2.02	1.71	1.82	12.45	17.62	30.07
1 Star	1.74	1.42	1.43	1.88	47.79	49.67
Special Licensed	2.02	1.75	1.95	24.82	7.17	31.99
Thermal Hotel	1.00	2.50	2.49	0.12	38.35	38.47
Total	2.16	1.84	2.03	23.89	14.45	38.34
Motel	2.01	1.70	1.91	24.72	9.66	34.38
Camping	1.20	1.46	1.27	5.78	2.56	8.34
Grand Total	2.3	1.82	2.00	23.50	13.36	36.87

Source: Ministry of Tourism (1993b)

Table 6.5 Number of Visitors Over-Nightened and Nights Spent by Purpose in Urgup

Purpose of visit	Number Visitor over-Nightened	% of Purp. of Visit	Number of Nights Spent	% of Number of Night Spent by Purpose
Holiday	192081	80.98	336919	81.40
Culture	32661	13.77	29466	9.53
Active Sports	972	0.40	2333	0.56
Visit Friends	4860	2.05	9137	2.21
Business	1555	0.66	11859	2.87
Meeting, conf.	1555	0.66	2916	.70
Mission	0	0.00	0	0.00
Shopping	389	0.16	1361	0.33
Religion	0	0.00	0	0.00
Transit	583	0.25	5832	1.41
Study/Edu	972	0.41	583	0.14
Health and Spa	0	0.66	0	0.00
Other	1557	1000	3499	0.85
Total	237185		413905	100.

Source: Derived From Ministry of Tourism (1994)

Table 6.5 indicates the purposes of visits to Urgup in 1993; 81 % of total visitors went to Urgup for their holidays; 14 % of total visitors visited for cultural

purposes; while only 0.16 % of visitors went for shopping; 0.40 % for active sports; and 2.05 % for visiting friends.

There seem to be a contradiction between tourism assets and purposes of visits in Urgup. Though the main tourist attractions are historical, religious, archaeological and cultural sites, 80 % of total nights were spent by the visitors who did not go for these reasons. This may be due the fact that tour operators do not market Cappadocia as a separate destination within Turkey. They sell Cappadocia as one ingredient of their package holiday, which may also be main reason for relatively low average length of stay and the low occupancy rate in the region.

### **Roots of Unsustainable Tourism Development in Urgup**

This section will examine the tourism development in Urgup by questioning its compatibility with ethics and codes of sustainable tourism development. Several reasons for unsustainable tourism development have been determined, which will be examined in some detail in the following sections.

#### **Rapid Emergence of Mass Tourism in Urgup**

The local bodies reported that foreign tourists had started to visit Urgup for particularly cultural and religious reasons in the middle of 1950s. In 1953 the book 'Three Nights in Rock Churches of Cappadocia' written by Yorgo Seferis , winner of the Nobel Literature Prize in 1963, was published by French Research Institution (Rifat, 1997). In 1954 a French journalist visited Urgup and publicised Urgup in France. Between 1950 and 1980 independent tourists have visited Urgup and Cappadocia for cultural and religious reason. During this period, the local people opened small hotels, restaurants and souvenir shops and they accepted the tourists as their guests rather than customers. By following their traditions they have taken every measures to protect their guests from any suffering and abuse.

During this period the tourists visited Urgup and Cappadocia in general were well-educated and they had great respect for the local people and their values. In this natural and healthy process, a very friendly relationship has been developed between

the local people and foreign guests. Usually, the local people invited the foreign guests to their homes and served their traditional meals and drinks without thinking of any material benefits. Even though the local people did not speak English, French or German and the tourists had not spoken Turkish, they understood each other very well and, to some extent, they developed good friendships.

This natural process of the tourism development has had considerable socio-cultural and economic contributions to the local people. This period helped the local people to become more flexible in a socio-cultural sense, which seems to have increased the social-carrying capacity of the local people in the era of mass tourism growth. For example, it has been reported that although the local people in the province of Nevsehir had showed a strong reaction against some tourists putting on short skirts, the local people in Urgup have accepted the mass tourism without such a strong negative reaction.

In the 1960s the local municipality opened a hotel to meet increasing tourism demand, which also encouraged the local people to enter into the tourism business by opening small scale establishments. At the outset of tourism development, the region was not covered by any of the Turkish governments' recognised development programs, there was no incentives initially for outside investment in the area and so the first superstructures were built and financed on a small scale by local people. This natural healthy and sustainable tourism development process has been prevented by the development after 1982 which caused many small establishments to be closed because of imperfect market competition. The foreign tour operator was attracted to Cappadocia and rented several rooms on a room-only or room with breakfast basis. As Morrison and Selman (1991) pointed out, in 1983 the government decided to give generous incentives to the tourism industry. Foreign investors were given guarantees of repatriation of capital and profits, there was no restriction on the employment of foreign personnel and investors were allowed access to Turkish funds. In 1983 government itself also started to build and operate accommodation establishments in the region.

In brief, the decisions taken for developing mass tourism without a proper preparation period, infrastructure and planning seems to be the first step in the road to unsustainable tourism development. Alongside rapid emergence of mass tourism in a

rural community, there seems to be several other reasons that ushered in the tourism development in unsustainable manner in Urgup.

### **Policies of Political Economy**

Just after a two years period of non-civilian government, the general multi-party parliamentary election was held in 1983, and a civilian government came into power. This government immediately commenced practicing the 25th January 1980 Economic Stabilisation Measurements formulated by the IMF and WB.

This economic stabilisation measurements strongly advised Turkey to follow export-led industrialisation in which tourism has been seen as a major instrument without taking into account wider issues at local level. Therefore, the government offered generous fiscal and monetary incentives alongside giving public lands, most of which were valuable for agriculture, to the investors in the tourism industry for 49 years and decreasing red-tape for tourism investors. In the words of Tosun and Jenkins (1996: 519), 'using tourism as a kind of panacea for some of the macroeconomic problems, as an engine for social change and to create a favourable image on the international platform ushered in an era giving too generous incentives to the industry'. Additionally, the state itself established and operated many companies in the tourism industry, some of which have been privatized. In 1984 the state opened a hotel called TURBAN in Urgup, which still remains as a state entrepreneurship. Generous incentives were also offered to foreign investors.

In order to maximise the rate of return from the investment in the short term, the government determined specific tourist regions and centres. Urgup was one of them. The states generous fiscal and financial incentives, and bureaucratic measurements have aimed at inducing medium and large capital holders to invest in the tourism industry, which was an extension of the policies during 1983-1991. The governments of 1983-1991 assumed that initial phases of income concentration in the hands of limited, perhaps determined, entrepreneurs would accelerate economic growth that would lead to phases of increasingly equitable distribution of income, rising and diversifying consumption for all. Moreover, the governments seem to have ignored the present generation, to some extent, so as to create a strong and rich

country for the future generation, which is not compatible with ethics and codes of sustainable development. However, this policy has not worked in practice as was assumed. Concentration of income in the hands of limited numbers of rich people induced luxury consumption. In other words, 'the beneficiaries of economic growth have adopted as their right the consumption standards of the rich countries and have commonly also diverted much of their accumulation to these countries for safe-keeping' (Wolfe, 1982: 89).

The local people in Urgup have not had enough capital to use the generous incentives. Thus, expatriates have invested in the tourism industry in Urgup. The generous incentives accelerated the process of tourism growth and ushered in an era of unsustainable tourism development by ignoring socio-cultural and environmental matters, and inter and intra generations equity. Moreover, Urgup was not ready for this rapid tourism growth due the fact that there was not enough infrastructure and the local people were so remote from the mass tourism business to be able to benefit from it. Hence, the roots of unsustainable tourism development have been planted by the government's generous incentive and biased economic development policies.

In short, the central governments have used tourism as a tool for short-term success without considering the socio-economic and environmental impacts of tourism development at the local level. Needed hard foreign currency earnings and the self-interests of decision-makers have made governments focus solely on the economic benefits of tourism development, which perhaps seemed to be unavoidable just after the socio-economic and political crisis that had brought military intervention to preserve democracy in Turkey. As a result, development of tourism has widened the gap between poor people and rich people and inter-generation equity, which completely contradicts the principle of sustainable tourism development.

### **Emergence of Clientelistic Relationship**

Naturally, the tourism industry brought powerful businessmen into the powerless rural community in Urgup. The businessmen organised themselves in order to maximise their interests, and thus have become very effective in the socio-political and economic life of the old rural community. In other words, patron and client

relationships have been developed between local and central public bodies, and the business class, which has been operated at the expenses of the local community. For example, while the local people have not got acceptable houses, schools of national standards, proper irrigation system and modern agricultural equipment, luxury hotels and leisure facilities for tourists have used substantial resources of the local municipality and received a major share from public funds as incentives. This is a reflection of the haphazard resource allocation system by the state authorities and preferential access to state decision-making bodies that is extremely important for being a successful businessman. This is due to the fact that the political parties tend to curb the power of bureaucracy for their own purposes, reinforcing the parties' tendency to push for particularistic preferences rather than objective norms. In brief, preferential treatment was, is, and will be necessary to be qualified for essential resources such as credits, access to municipal facilities, and so on, which are distributed through the state bureaucracy. Access to the bureaucracy is achieved through the political parties. Thus, politicians were seen as corrupt, having little concern for moral values and being oriented toward competition for spoils. The 1980 coup targeted the corrupted party politics (Ayata, 1994), but it seems to be a temporary solution for a chronic socio-political illness. Although the local bodies have tended to resist the demands of the expatriate business class to some extent, the central government pressurised local bodies to respond effectively to these demands. This may reflect the fact that 'the formation of local government in Turkey has been initiated by the state, reflecting administrative and fiscal concerns of the centre, and has not been a source of democratic citizen participation in a public space' (Koker, 1995: 61).

Rumors of corruption and gossip about the partnership between the bourgeoisie, the upper echelons of the party, and the favored businessmen regarding too generous incentives given to the tourism industry were often cited in the daily newspapers. For example, one of the big daily newspapers reported that misuse of incentives given to the tourism industry appeared itself in different forms. First, considerable parts of given incentives as credits were unreturned and lost. It was declared that 653 billion Turkish Lira were accounted as lost credits given to the tourism industry. And there were 135 cases in court in relation to this issue in 1993.

Second, though credits were given to investors in the tourism industry, investment did not take place. It was posited that 60 thousand beds which had tourism investment licenses did not exist in reality. Additionally, it was claimed that 'there were cases where incentives were given on the bases of inner party courtesy or intimacy of friendship and relationship rather than entrepreneur capability' (Kusluvan, 1994: 162).

That is to say, patrons and client relationships have dominated the formal bodies, which completely isolated the local people from their own affairs including the re-structured socio-economic and political system influenced by the development of tourism in Urgup. The worst thing may be that the local people in Urgup seem to have little trust in decision-makers, which have made them feel alone and helpless to solve their problems. Naturally, the local people do not believe in the power of state institutions, but the power of patrons. It should be naive to expect that principles of sustainable tourism development will be able to be implemented, and thus sustainable tourism development will be achieved under such corrupted political and economic structures.

The implication of the above finding in terms of sustainable tourism development may be that the tourism sector is only a small element of the prevailing socio-political and economic system in a country. Hence, achieving sustainable tourism development largely depends upon this macro socio-political and economic structure, and as a small element of the macro system, in tourism sector cannot itself develop in a sustainable manner.

### **Matching a Segment of the Tourism Market with an Unsuitable Local Destination**

Although historically Cappadocia in general and Urgup in particular have been visited by the foreigners for cultural and religious reason, Turkey has been promoted as a whole by the international tour operators and the MT to satisfy the common needs of mass tourists such as sun, sea, sand and sex. Although Urgup does not have sea and sand, tourists visiting coastal destinations in Turkey for the 4Ss have also visited Urgup for just two night and three days. As can be seen from table 6.5, only 13.77 % of total 237185 tourists visited Urgup for cultural reasons while 81 % of this

tourists visited Urgup to spend their holiday. It has been made imperative that one form of tourism is all things for all areas in Turkey, which 'is not only pompous and naive, it is also unfair, unrealistic and unwise' (Carey et al, 1997: 427). That is to say, the international tour operators have matched a destination with an unsuitable segment of the tourist market to maximise their profit with collaboration of the local elites, expatriates investors and formal authorities, which has created complicated socio-cultural and environmental problems.

In brief, the international tour operators with the collaboration of shortsighted and self-interested decision-makers and businessmen in the tourism industry have played their role as image makers, and interpreters of tourism demand in such a way that they have created an image of people and cultures as a tourist commodity which is remote to reality (Britton, 1982, Ascher, 1985 and Dieke, 1988). Consequently, power holders in the international tourism system, and their counterparts in the country and the local destination have led the tourism development to take place in an unsustainable manner.

### **Emergence of Environmental Destruction**

Consequently, the tourists who have not had a real interest in religious relics (rock churches and underground cities that provided asylum for early Christians) and natural attractions such as the fairy chimneys have commenced damaging these antique and natural attractions by behaving in an irresponsible way. On the other hand, some of the rock houses have been used as tea-garden, bars, etc.; and some of the these rock houses have been bought by foreigners who visit the region every year. Enough measures have not been taken in time to stop this environmental erosion. As a result an era of environmentally unsustainable tourism development has emerged as well.

Moreover, since there was no strict planning regulations or the local authorities lack of power to implement existing regulation, ribbon development has occurred along the scenic routes and volcanic beauty. There are some sample of integrating building style into natural environment, but generally there has been a



failure to integrate the superstructures of tourism industry with the natural volcanic beauty, which is an 'architectural pollution' in the words of Pearce (1978: 152)

Not surprisingly, many scholars and even a layman are asking, 'Will tourists kill tourism?... Herrman Kahn, the well-known futurologist thought that rapidly-expanding tourism is next only to atomic power in its potential for environmental destruction' (Kaul, 1985: 209), but it should be kept in mind that not all forms of tourism development are a threat for the environment. As WTO (1983:12) contended:

'...it is not tourism itself which contains the virus which attacks the environment, but rather the methods adopted to develop tourism in the absence of proper assumption of responsibilities by the public authorities and where short term considerations of economic profitability are the sole development objective'

### **Overcommercialisation of Cultural Values**

On the other hand, the irresponsible mass tourists have not only damaged antique rock churches and other invaluable attractions, they also have changed the previous positive image of the local people about tourists as responsible guests towards tourists as 'too hungry consumers'. Consequently, the irresponsible mass tourism tend to change the social conditions that may create serious problems for the community in the tourist destination, including changes in value judgements, individual behaviour, family structure, life styles, traditional ceremonies or way of the community organisation in the destination area (Milman and Pizam, 1988 and Kousis, 1989).

On the other hand, the local cultural values have been used as a commodity and marketing tool. It has been overcommercialized by using it at a wrong place, wrong time and wrong standard. And thus a wrong and dubious image has been emerged, deliberately or not, about the local community (see Cohen, 1988).

For example, Eroglu (1996: 31) reported that many restaurants in excavated rocks organised a Turkish Night as a part of their animation activity, but 'it is hard to say that these are Turkish Nights'. Restaurant operators hire very cheap uneducated and untrained teams to perform folk dances and dramas in a manner that do not reflect authentic performance. Not only are the performances not compatible with original

dances or dramas, but also the contents of dramas are so changed that they are inconsistent with the realities. He stated that Nevsehir School of Tourism and Hotel Management established a team specially educated to perform folk dance and folk drama in these restaurants and hotels in Cappadocia, but hoteliers and restaurant operators have not accepted the specially educated team because of the relatively high cost, and prefer cheaper unprofessional teams at the expense of destruction of cultural values. He particularly emphasised that some of the folk dramas have been performed in forms that have humiliated the local communities from where the dramas and dances were originated.

### **Implementation of Central Decisions at Local Destination**

One of the most obvious characteristics of the State administration in Turkey is that all decisions related to planning activities are made by central government and implemented in all local units in the country. Central government prepares national development plans every five years, which include all regions and sectors of the economy in the country. The MT and SPO as units of central government prepare the national tourism development plan. The planning decisions of the central government are implemented and tourism development plans are prepared by the units of the central government without taking into account the regional and local facts during planning processes.

However, Turkey and even some regions in the country are too large and lacking the homogeneity to be viewed from a single point of view in terms of tourism development. It is argued that 'no two countries or even areas within countries are likely to face identical problems at the same time' (Jenkins, 1991: 60). Moreover, as Fagence (1991) contended, every location, region, resources, amenities and infrastructures have an unequal potential and capacity for particular types and scales of tourism development. Tosun and Jenkins (1996) stated that Fagence's argument is valid for Turkey that has seven geographic regions with various features and potential for different types of tourism development, in which many local tourist destinations have different socio-cultural, physical and economic carrying capacities for various types and scales of tourism development.

Obviously, it is beyond the national planning team of the tourism sector to prepare a comprehensive, flexible and implementable tourism development plan that will be applicable to very tourist destination in different regions of the country. This highly centralised planning approach to tourism development is the main sources of the problems of the tourism development at local level in Urgup, which, indeed, planted seed of unsustainable tourism development.

## Conclusion

This chapter analysed tourism development in Urgup. After looking at history, cultural features, geography and socio-economic structure of the local tourist destination, it has examined the tourism supply of and demand for the town. The analysis of the supply and the demand has indicated that they have not been matched with each other. It has been shown that the average occupancy rate was very low and the average length of stay was very short.

Rapid emergence of mass tourism; policies of political economy in the country; emergence of client and patron relationship between public authorities at central and local level, and businessmen; mismatching a segment of the tourism market with the local tourist destination; emergence of environmental destruction; and overcommercialisation of cultural values have been determined as roots of unsustainable tourism development. Based upon the analysis, some general conclusions have been drawn.

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## CHAPTER - 7 DATA ANALYSIS

### **Introduction**

This chapter outlines and discusses the findings related to the field research conducted in Urgup and Ankara in Turkey between the months of October and December 1996. This chapter is divided into four sections.

The first section details the social and demographic characteristics of respondents. The second section looks at the first objective which examines the current practice of and potential for community participation in Urgup. The third section considers the second objective that analyses views of formal bodies and local communities on various issues of community participation in tourism development process. The final section investigates expectations of the local community from current tourism development.

Two different survey questionnaires, one an unstructured personal interview and one a questionnaire based interview were employed. The first survey questionnaires were distributed to 256 local people. Of these questionnaires 19 were incomplete or not returned and therefore discarded. A total of 237 useable questionnaires was finally entered into the analysis, representing a response rate of 92.5 percent. The second survey questionnaires were distributed to 25 persons who were responsible for local bodies in Urgup. Of these questionnaires 3 were incomplete and therefore they were not taken into account. A total of 22 questionnaires was finally entered into analysis, representing a response rate of 88 percent. To support the result of the local bodies' survey questionnaire, unstructured personal interviews were conducted with members of the local bodies. The same unstructured personal interview was made with the representatives of the private sector such as the president of Cappadocia Association of Tourism Operators and a few hoteliers. The questionnaire based interviews were made with central bodies such as the State Planning Organisation, the Ministry of Settlement and Re-structuring, and the Ministry of Tourism.

It seems to be useful to note here that a brief explanation regarding some critical issues in data analysis (see Appendix (App.)-9) and the main statistical analysis underlying the points made in the text (see App.-10) are contained in appendices.

### **Socio-demographic Profiles of the Respondents**

The objective of this section is to provide a broad basis for other analysis regarding a local community and participatory development approach to tourism in Urgup.

**The profiles of respondents from the local community:** Socio-demographic characteristics of the local people responding to the questionnaire are demonstrated in the following sections.

**Age and gender:** As discussed in the methodology chapter, local people who were under 19 years old were not included in the population frame of this survey since they were not eligible to vote at any election. Table 7.1 (see App.-10) depicts that 65.2 percent of respondents were between 19-40 years old. The mode, median (Mdn) and mean (M) scores of the distribution are almost equal to each other, which indicates that it is a normal distribution or unit normal distribution (Champion, 1981). The Mdn of this ordinal variable is 4 that means between 36-40 years old age category is the middle case as being of typical value with 33.5 per cent frequency.

As can be noticed, people over 57 years old did not appear in Table 7.1 (see App.-10). This does not mean that there was not anybody over 57 years old in the local community. Indeed, about 7 percent of population (4,055,774 persons) were over 57 years old in Turkey (State Institute of Statistics(SIS), 1995). However, the chi-square test for goodness of fit depicts that the sample distributions of age scores fit the corresponding proportions in the population distribution at a very high level of statistical significance.

82.8 percent of respondents were male and 17.2 percent were female ( $\chi^2(1,n=227)=97.8018, p<.0000$  see App.-9 for the chi-square test for goodness of fit) (SPSS Output from data collected through field research). The sex distribution of the respondents seem to be a reflection of the socio-cultural structure of the local community in which there is a tendency of male domination in the socio-economic and political life of the community.

**Marital status and family size:** 92.7 % of respondents were married, 6 % were single, 0.9 % (0.009) were divorced and 0.4 % (0.004) were widowed ( $\chi^2(3,n=232)=568.4482$ ,  $p<.0000$ ). As an average, every respondent was living with between 4 and 5 other family members ( $\chi^2(4,n=234)=300.5299$ ,  $p<.0000$ ) (SPSS Output from data collected through field research), which actually represent the average size of household that is around 5 in Turkey (the country population / number of household  $\Rightarrow 56,473,035 / 11,188,636 = 5.047$ )

**Length of living in local community:** Vast majority of respondents (78.8 %) have been living more than 10 years in Urgup ( $\chi^2(5,n=222)=618.5946$ ,  $p<.0000$ ) (SPSS Output from data collected through field research). This may imply that the respondents were genuine members of the local community. The strong sense of belonging to Urgup among respondents and the answers given to place of birth seem to support the above statement.

**Sense of belonging to Urgup:** 78.4 percent of the respondents had a strong sense of belonging to Urgup. And 76.9 percent of the respondents were born in Urgup ( $\chi^2(4,n=237)=190.9958$ ,  $p<.0000$ ) (SPSS Output from data collected through field research).

**Education level attained:** As can be seen from Table 7.2 (see App.-10), a very small percentage of respondents (0.4%) were illiterate. 53.4 percent had primary education and only 9.9 percent had university education. It may be said that a vast majority of respondents had low level of education. This may be considered as a potential barrier to participatory development approach.

**Car ownership:** 52.4 percent of respondents did not have any car and 47.6 percent had one ( $\chi^2(2,n=233)=103.6309$ ,  $p<.0000$ ) (SPSS Output from data collected through field research).

**Monthly family income:** 74.2 percent of respondents had between 5-25 millions Turkish lira as monthly family income, which is a very low level of income for family with 4-5 persons in any part of Turkey. 24.2 percent had a moderate level of income and 1.6 percent had a relatively high level of income. 55.3 percent of respondents stated that their family incomes were not enough to survive while 40.5 percent of respondents considered that their family incomes were enough for a fair standard of life. Only 3.8 percent of them stated that their monthly family incomes were enough for a good standard of life (see Table 7.3; 7.4 in App.-10).

**Housing conditions:** As can be seen from Table 7.5 (in App.-10), 71.9 percent of the respondents had their own houses. Based on Table 7.6 and on-site



observation of the author, it may be argued that housing conditions seem to be not satisfactory. 17 percent of the respondents' house did not have toilets inside, 6.8 percent of them did not have a bath or shower, 34 percent of them did not have hot water supply and 11 percent of them did not have a telephone. The non existence of some of the basic housing amenities may imply that there is still some people who have difficulty in satisfying their basic needs.

**Sum of the profile of respondents from local bodies:** 86.4 percent of the respondents from local bodies were born and 70 percent of them have been living more than ten years in Urgup. Not surprisingly, 81.8 percent of respondents had a very strong and 9.1 percent had strong sense of belonging to Urgup (Field Research).

The distribution scores of level of education attained were as follows: 40 percent primary school, 15 percent high school, and 45 percent had\_undergraduate education respectively. The mode of this nominal variable is the category of undergraduate level of education. In other words, the most common education among the respondents from local bodies was at undergraduate level. The variation ratio (v) of the distribution is 0.55, which means that 0.55 of the respondents are not in the modal category (Field Research).

Based upon the aforementioned discussion about the socio-economic profile of the respondents, it may be said that the characteristics of the respondents seem to fit the working definition of local community developed for this research in chapter two. Based on the theoretical framework developed in the previous chapters of this study and the broad base analysis of the profile of the respondents, the following sections will examine various issues regarding community participation in TDP with special reference to Urgup.

### **Objective One: Assessing Current Practice of and Potential for Community Participation in the Tourism Development Process**

The idea beyond assessing current practice of and potential for community participation is that if there is experience in practicing a participatory approach, this may facilitate acceptance and implementation of community involvement in the tourism development process (TDP). Thus the main objective of this section is to

examine views of local bodies and the local community on current practice of, if any, and potential for community participation in the TDP.

### **Local Bodies' Views on Current Practice of Community Participation**

The analysis is based on the answers given to the questions 1 to 7 (see App.-1) by the respondents from the local bodies. Question one was asked to learn whether the local people's views have been reflected in the TDP. As can be seen from Table 7.7 (see App.-10), 4.5 percent of the respondents stated that 'to a great extent' local people's views were reflected in the TDP while 50 percent believed that reflection of local people's views in the TDP was only 'to some extent'. However, 45.5 percent stated that local people's views were not reflected in the TDP.

The answers given to question two show that 77.3 percent of the respondents stated that the local people were not involved in any sectoral development program. The mode of the distribution scores of the variable is 3, which implies that the most common idea among local bodies was that local people did not participate in any sectoral development program (see Table 7.8 in App.-10).

Through question three, it was found that 50 percent of local bodies (respondents) stated that there were courses to educate the local people for employment in the tourism industry while 49.9 percent stated that there were no such courses (see Table 7.9 in App.-10). Personal interviews with the local bodies and on site observation of the researcher confirmed that there is a 'Tourism Education Centre' sponsored by the Ministry of Tourism (MT) in Urgup. It may be thought that to educate the local people to take advantage of tourism development may be seen as a very early stage or a passive form of participatory tourism development strategy. But, the records of the Tourism Education Centre (TUREM) indicated that the local people did not have much interest in registering at this centre. The majority of the students were not local people. More clearly, there were 97 registered students at this centre, but only 22 of them (22%) were from the local community (Personal Contact, 4 November 1996). Moreover, the Local Education Manager appointed by the Ministry of Education and Manager of the Local Teacher House stated that the local people and some of the public bodies were not happy with the presence of the

Tourism Education Centre due to the fact that the behaviour of those students at this centre was unacceptable for the local community. The Local Education Manager and the Manager of the Local Teacher House stated that: 'We must approach the Ministries to change the status of this centre. It should be possible to close this centre and open a new school of tourism at high school level. Definitely, students who will come for high school education can be kept under control more easily'(Personal Contact, 4 November 1996).

Surprisingly, even 49.9 percent of respondents from local bodies did not know of the existence of the Tourism Education Centre in their locality. This may raise questions about the level of awareness of local bodies in their affairs and thus ability to act on the behalf of the local people.

To take into account socio-cultural and economic impacts of tourism development at local level may also be seen as one of the first steps of the participatory tourism development strategy. The answers given to question four indicate that there seems to be an agreement among the local bodies that socio-economic impacts of tourism development at local level were not taken into account (see Table 7.10 in App.-10).

As discussed in chapter two, according to Arnstein (1971), giving information to the have-nots is participation in the form of tokenism which may allow the have-nots to hear and to be heard. But under these conditions they lack the power to ensure that their view will be heeded by decision-makers. There is no assurance of changing the status quo. Arnstein (1971) termed this kind of participation as tokenism. Advertising decisions made on tourism development issues by various means in a local tourist destination such as Urgup may be seen as tokenism in terms of community participation. 100 per cent of the respondents (n=22) have stated that decisions made by central or local government on tourism development issues were not advertised in the field study area, Urgup, at all (SPSS Output from data collected through field research).

The origin of employees in the tourism industry may be seen as an important dimension of participation or non-participation of the local people in the tourism development process (TDP). As can be seen from Table 7.11 (see App.-10), there was a disagreement among the respondents on what percentage of the workers in the

tourism industry were from the local people. The median score is 2.545 that reveals that between 21-30 and 31-40 percent of workers in the tourism industry were from the local people. More precisely, it may be said that around 30 percent of the employees in the tourism industry were from the local people. The answers given to question 8 by the local people are in parallel with the local bodies' view on this issue. As can be seen from Table 7.13 (see App.-10), 32.9 percent of the respondents from the local community stated that they or their immediate member of family were working in the tourism industry.

It may be argued that who actually directed and formed tourism development are important issues for participatory tourism development approach. The local bodies' answers were examined by assigning ranks based on the median scores of each bodies' perceived level of influences on the tourism development from the lowest median (rank equals to 1) to the highest median (rank equal to 3, as presented in Table 7.12 in App.-10). The local municipal council was regarded as the body that had the most influences on tourism development at the local level. The local governor was ranked as second and the Ministry of Tourism was ranked as third.

The information given in Table 7.12 (in App.-10) may imply that the local bodies had more influences on the tourism development issues at the local level than the central bodies had. And this may be seen as a sign of existence of participatory tourism development approach at the lowest level. But, the statistical figures in Table 7.12 should be considered cautiously since the local bodies' power and area of influences seem to be determined by central government in Turkey (see Tosun and Jenkins, 1996 and Tosun, 1996). Moreover, the municipal standing committee whose more than 50 per cent of members are appointed rather than elected has the legal power to decide on local affairs within the limitation of the central bodies.

### **Local Community's Views on Current Practice of Community Participation in the TDP**

As can be seen from Table 7.13 (see App.-10), 94.5 percent of the respondents from the local people did not attend any courses to take advantage of tourism development. 94.5 percent of the respondents stated that they were not asked

to explain their opinions about scale, form and location of the tourism development. 99.2 percent of the respondents did not receive any letters or reports about the tourism development in Urgup. However, 32.9 percent of the respondents from the local people stated that they or their immediate members of family were working in the tourism industry. The number of the local people employed in the tourism industry may reflect a dimension of participation of the local people in the tourism industry, but for a more clear picture the kind of jobs given to local people should be examined. Table 7.14 (see App.-10) mirrors that 69.6 percent of the respondents said that they or their immediate members of family were not working in the tourism industry. No respondents stated that they or their immediate member of family were working as a manager in the tourism industry. Only 4.8 percent of the respondents mentioned they or their immediate member of family were employed to do supervisory jobs in the tourism industry.

Based upon the respondents' answers, it may be argued that the majority of employees in the tourism industry in Urgup were not local people. There was a tendency to employ the local people for clerical and unskilled jobs.

The answers given to question nine in the local community's survey shows that 58.6 percent of the respondents felt that they had no influence on local issues including the tourism development, while 23.6 percent stated that they had very little influence. Only 1.3 percent supposed that they had a great deal of influence on local issues including tourism development. Additionally, 16.5 percent of the respondents thought that they had some influence on the local issues including tourism. Based on the central tendency of the answers given to and distribution score of question nine, it may be argued that in the field study area a minority group seems to dominate over the majority. In other words, the majority of respondents believed that they had no influence on local issues including tourism development (see Table 7.15 in App.-10).

The answers given to question eleven in the local community's survey seem to be in parallel with the answers given to question nine. Only 1.3 percent of the 236 respondents from the local people stated that current tourism development reflected their view to a great extent. 10.6 percent of them believed that the current tourism development reflected their views to some extent. The median of these distribution scores is 5, which illustrates that the typical beliefs of respondents (66.5%) were that

the current tourism development did not reflect their views at all (see Table 7.16 in App.-10)

### **Potential for Community Participation in the TDP**

The second part of the first objective is to assess potential for community participation in the TDP in Urgup. Questions 1 to 5 in the local community's survey (see App.-4) were designed to meet this purpose.

Based upon the Table 7.17 (see App.-10), it may be said that the high participation rate in elections may imply that the respondents had a considerable interests in their affairs. But, it should be kept in mind that voting is an obligatory civic duty for Turkish people who are over 18 years old. In other words, if a person who is over 18 years old does not vote, the person is fined. This may raise questions about the high rate of interest of the respondents in the local and general elections.

It was asked whether the respondents regularly read a local newspaper, followed news programs on radio or television. As presented in Table 7.18, 48.5% of respondents read a local newspaper at least 3 times a week. But the chi-square test for goodness of fit depicts that this distribution score does not exist in the population ( $\chi^2$  (1, n = 237) = .2068, p = .6493). In other words, the distribution score of the variable (reading a local newspaper at least 3 times a week) cannot be generalised for the population (the local community). 86.9 % followed news program and 12.7 % read a local weekly newspaper at least two times a month. The average mean of following media is 1.56. Based upon the mean and mode scores, it may be argued that there was not much interest in media among the respondents from the local people.

Based on the information given in Table 7.19 (see App.-10), it may be argued that the respondents had a tendency not to participate in activities that had a political dimension. On the other hand, the relatively high rate of attendance (82.3%) to parent meeting may imply that the respondents had a tendency to take part in a passive form of participatory activity which has no political dimension. It may also imply that parents had a high level of motivation to participate in matters related to their children.

Table 7.20 (see App.-10) may provide some indication that the respondents had a tendency not to create ideas for improving things including tourism in their locality. The median and mode of this ordinal variable are 2, which means that the typical or common answer is that respondents occasionally had ideas to improve things including the tourism industry in Urgup.

It is supposed that the more accessible the representatives of the local people the more opportunities exist for the local people to become involved in socio-economic and political activities. The majority of the respondents from the local community (53.1 %) felt that the municipal governor was accessible to them. The median and mode of the distribution scores are 4. This means that the central tendency of respondents was that it was easy for them to see their local municipal governor (mayor). However, 70.8 % of respondents had a feeling that it was very difficult or difficult for them to see their member of parliament. The median of this ordinal data is 1. This also shows that the central tendency among respondents was that it was very difficult for them to have access to their member of parliament (see Table 7.21 in App.-10).

The relationships between variables related to objective one and some other variables were examined by performing chi-square statistical measure with conjunction of Cramer's V and Kendall's Tau-c correlation coefficients (see Appendix-11).

### **Conclusive Statements of Objective One**

Two main conclusions to be derived from the analysis regarding objective one are: 1- The practice of participatory tourism development approach hardly exists in the field study area. 2- Although the existence of democratic public administration units at local level, as discussed in chapter four, seems to be a potential for public participation in the TDP from the public administration point of view, the same kind of potential does not exist in regards to the local community's interests in local issues including tourism development. The following summary of the findings support the above conclusions.

1- There was not much interest among the local people in attending courses to take advantage of tourism development. Although there is a tourism education centre financed by the Ministry of Tourism (MT), only 22 percent of 97 registered students were from the local community, some of who were those whose fathers or mothers were appointed as public officers in Urgup. So, the share of the genuine local people registered at this centre should be less than 22 percent. It may be concluded from this that it may not be enough to open courses to educate the local people to obtain the advantages of tourism development.

Based upon informal discussions with the local people and neighbourhood headmen, it may be said that the youth in Urgup did not recognise tourism as a potential career choice and a job in the tourism industry did not have much respect in the eyes of the local people. In this sense, it may be argued that there is a negative image about the tourism industry among the local community. Moreover, the local people have commenced developing a negative attitude towards tourism operators and the tourism development in general. Addison (1996: 302) found that

‘The low participation rate by native northerners had resulted in some antagonism between local residents and tourism operators as well as resources conflicts at a time when resources were already being strained by the rapidly expanding native population and when employment opportunities for native northerners were in short supply’.

Moreover, he reported that ‘Many experiences with tourists had been negative, and concerns were expressed about the intrusive impact of uncontrolled tourism on existing lifestyles’. In this respect, the result is in line with the research result of Pangnirtung’s community in the Baffin region of Far North Canada (Addison, 1996: 306).

2- About 70 percent of employees in the tourism industry were not from the local community (see Table 7.11 and 7.13 in App.-10) and there was a tendency to employ local people for clerical and unskilled jobs which are low paid (see Table 7.14 in App.-10). This may be partly due to the very little interest in tourism courses among respondents and level of education of the local people. As an overall result, taking part as employees in the tourism industry for the local people is a missing ingredient of community participation in the TDP in Urgup.



3- Majority of the respondents from the local community (66.5 %) expressed that the current tourism development did not reflect their views (see Table 7.16 in App.-10). This may be explained by various answers given by the respondents from the local community. For example, 94.5 percent of the respondents have never been asked to explain their views; 99.2 percent of respondents did not receive any letters or reports about tourism development issues (see Table 7.13 in App.-10), and the majority of respondents from the local community felt that they had no influence on the local issues including tourism development (see Table 7.15 in App.-10).

However, according to decree 12 of Law 2634 for Encouragement of Tourism, after confirmation of the Ministry of Tourism (MT) and the Ministry of Reconstruction and Settlement, land use plans are sent to municipalities and provincial governors to be advertised in public places for one month (Official Gazette dated 12.03.1982, Law 2634 for the Encouragement of Tourism). This is the only way of informing tourism related land use plans to the public. As can be noticed, it is advertised in municipalities' and provincial governor's places, where it may not be accessible for everyone, rather than in local and national daily newspapers. Moreover, the land use plans are advertised in public places after the actual decisions are made, rather than before. It is argued that 'more open discourse among stakeholders early in the tourism development process is required if local residents are to believe that their input has made a difference in the nature of the tourism development strategy adopted by decision makers' (Lankford et al, 1996: 334). Thus, the procedure of advertising decisions on the land use plans seem to be meaningless in terms of public participation in the TDP in Turkey. Moreover, the land use plans for the tourism development program are presented in a form that cannot be understood by ordinary local people. On the other hand, the land use plans may not give enough information about the local tourism development issues. To Arnstein (1971), this may be a kind of tokenism regarding community participation.

For example, community-based tourism planning in the Baffin Region, Canada's Far North, has been implemented. In the planning process, the planning team prepared a taped slide presentation (with source track) to be shown to residents to explain the concept of tourism, including why tourists might be interested in visiting their community, what tourists needed and expected, and how the community

might benefit from the tourism industry. They also prepared a newsletter that explained the study and tourism in general, and made arrangements to ensure that residents were aware of the study before planning process was started (Addison, 1996).

As can be understood, lack of opportunity for the local people to reflect their views and, lack of information about tourism development issues together with limited power of the local community, seem to be the main reasons for non-reflection of the local people views on tourism development.

4- There was not much interest in the media, particularly in local newspapers among the respondents. Moreover, the lack of interest among the respondents also appeared in involvement in participatory activities such as attending political campaigns and meetings of political parties (see Table 7.19 in App.-10). Additionally, there was a tendency among the respondents not to create ideas for improving things including tourism development in their locality (see Table 7.20 in App.-10).

5- A majority of the respondents felt that the local municipal governor was accessible to them. Interestingly, the present mayor has been in power over the last 12 years. Before the present mayor, his father had been in power about 10 years. So, it can be said that about a quarter of century only one family was administering the local community.

Although the respondents from the local bodies presented themselves as having more influence on tourism development issues than the central government had, it is a fact that limits of local authorities' power is determined by the central authorities in Turkey, as discussed in chapter four. Moreover, the local bodies in Urgup do not have many instruments to encourage or discourage tourism development. The newly appointed local governor of Urgup reflected the above fact by stating that '...even a hotel manager or ordinary business man does not listen to me. I have no power to make them listen to me. Moreover, if I try to do my job according to the laws, in the next day I will be appointed to a different place where I may not want to go' (Field Research).

The above discussion reflects the field work necessary to achieve objective one.

## **Objective Two: Examining Views of Interest Groups on Various Issues Relating to Community Participation in the TDP**

This section is an attempt to achieve objective two which is broken into four main sub-sections. Four different interest groups have been determined, whose views on various issues of community participation in the TDP will be examined in some detail. These four main sections are: 1- to examine views of the local bodies on various issues of community participation in the TDP, 2- to analyse views of central bodies on community participation in the TDP, 3- to find out views of representatives of the private sector regarding community participation in the TDP, and 4- to determine views of the local community on various issues of community participation in the TDP.

Although the subsections in regard to the main sections are not totally exclusive and overlap each other to some extent, the further clustering seems to be essential in order to clarify problem areas and critical issues in a better way, and thus give a better understanding about community participation in the field study area.

### **Local Bodies' Views on Community Participation in the TDP in Urgup**

Views of the local bodies on community participation in the TDP will be examined under five sub-headings. These are: Willingness of the local bodies to support community participation; belief of the local bodies in benefits of the participatory tourism development approach; expected nature of the community participation by the local bodies; views of the local bodies on barriers to community participation; and local bodies' views on strategies to promote community participation.

#### **Willingness of the Local Bodies to Accept Community Participation in the TDP**

The local bodies may have an important role in development and implementation of the community participation. Thus, examining willingness of the local bodies to accept participation in tourism development seems to be important.

Questions 11, 12, and 13 were formulated to find out level of willingness of the local bodies to accept participation in tourism development.

100 per cent of the respondents from the local bodies said that they would encourage or strongly encourage community participation in the TDP if they were advising the Ministry of Tourism (MT) (see Table 7.22 in App.-10). 100 per cent of the respondents stated that the local people's participation in government policy making including tourism was desirable (see Table 7.23 in App.-10). The vast majority of the respondents from the local bodies believed that community participation in the TDP would be a better development approach to the tourism development in Urgup. The Mdn of this ordinal data is around 4. This means that there was a central tendency among the respondents that community participation would be a better tourism development approach (see Table 7.24 in App.-10).

Based upon Table 7.22, 23 and 24, it can be said that there is a strong willingness among the members of the local bodies to support community participation in the TDP. But it is not yet clear what level or which form of community participation they support. Before examining the expected nature of the community participation by the local bodies, it would be useful to look at the local bodies' views on benefits of community participation in the TDP.

### **The Local Bodies' Views on Benefits of Community Participation in the TDP**

Seven statements regarding benefits of community participation in the TDP were given. The respondents were requested to state their level of agreement or disagreement in order to examine their views on the benefits of the participatory tourism development approach. This may give further information about the willingness of the local bodies to accept this approach.

Investment of the local people in the tourism industry may represent spontaneous or authentic community participation (see UN, 1981, Wolfe, 1982 and Midgley, 1986b), which may help local development much more than investment by non-local people in the tourism industry. The majority of the respondents (77.2%) believed in this argument. The Mdn score of this ordinal data is 4.4. In other words, the central tendency among the respondents was to agree or strongly agree with the

statement 'if the local people invest in the tourism industry, this will help local development much more than if outsiders invest in the tourism industry (see Table 7.25 in App.-10). The answers given to the questions for the unstructured personal interviews with the local bodies are in lines with the above figures. For example, a member of the municipal council stated that

'... large scale tourist shops and big hotels are not owned by the local people. These large scale tourist businesses are just outside of Urgup. These tourist shops tend not to sell locally made handicrafts although they say to tourists that they are selling locally made handicrafts. Moreover, even the big hotels do not buy something from the local shops. They make their shopping by buying bulk from big cities on a regular basis. The only benefit of tourism to this locality is that the employees of hotels get salaries from the hotels and they buy something from the local shops'.

Interestingly, he added that the tourism establishments owned by the local people tend to meet their needs for goods and services from local sources. Through personal relationships the local people made the locally owned tourist establishments meet their needs from the local sources because they have known each other for years. They buy their goods and services from non-local sources if their demands cannot be met by local sources (Interview with the local bodies).

A member of the municipal council touched upon a wider issues. He claimed that

... non-local entrepreneurs are not trustworthy. They found investing in the tourism industry relatively profitable in Urgup; thus they came here. Most of the owners of big hotels are not from the local people. They are here merely for making profit from the tourism industry. When the tourism sector becomes unprofitable, they will move to Kusadasi, Marmaris, Bodrum etc.' For them to be in Urgup does not have any particular meaning except for making profit. They do not have a sense of belonging to the local community. They do not share with us the local conditions under which the local community have to live in Urgup. Even they do not send their children to the schools which our children attend. But the local entrepreneurs want to live here whether tourism brings satisfactory profit or not. If tourism is not profitable, they will invest in agriculture, manufacturing etc., but they will be in Urgup.

Director of the local museum supported the above quotation. He argued that a small group of people have benefited from the local tourism development. The entrepreneurs have earned money from the tourism industry, but they did not re-invest

these profits in Urgup. Although there are five stars hotels and luxury shops around Urgup, the local people are still poor (Interview with the local bodies).

95.4 percent of the respondents stated that sufficient consultation and planning at the local level will facilitate acceptance and implementation of the tourism development program (Mdn = 4.19, see Table 7.26 in App.-10). A member of the municipal council) stated that after preparation of a tourism development plan, the local people must be invited to comment on it. The plan must be scrutinized and discussed by the local people. By taking into account the local people's views, it should be implemented. This is needed to be successful in tourism development. Clearly, he had a tendency to support pseudo - participation (community consultation) (see Midgley, 1986b). In other words, he argued that information exchange between formal bodies and the local community would help acceptance and implementation of the tourism development program (Personal interview with local bodies).

There was a strong belief among the respondents that the destination community is an important component of the tourism product (95.2 %) and successful tourism development depends on strong community support (100 %) (see Table 7.27 and 7.28 in App.-10). 95.2 per cent of the respondents felt that participation of the local people in the tourism development in Urgup could limit negative socio-cultural impacts of the tourism development (see Table 7.29 in App.-10). The vast majority of the respondents (95.4 %) believed that through participatory tourism development needs and desires of the local community will be better reflected (see Table 7.31).

The above findings regarding the benefits of community participation are supported by previous research. For example, it was stated that a study of tourism impacts on residents in the Pacific Northwest region of the United States revealed that involvement in the local planning and decision-making process significantly influenced the level of support and attitude toward tourism and tourists. They argued that residents have been found to be less supportive of tourism development than decision makers, government officials, and business owners. However, when involved with various community activities (self-assessed community involvement), residents appeared to hold more favorable attitudes toward community change and development (Lankford et al, 1996, quoting Lankford, 1991a, b, 1994, Lankford and Howard, 1994)

Further, the vast majority of members of local bodies (95.4 %) stated that involvement of the local people in the tourism development would bring about a better distribution of the benefits of tourism development (see Table 7.30 in App.-10). In brief, the interviews' results regarding the distribution of the benefits of tourism development may be summarized as follow.

1- Tourists have been brought to Urgup as group by buses and they have stayed in pre-determined big hotels outside the county. The buses do not even pass through the main street where locally owned-small shops are. Tour guides and big hotel companies have not wanted tourists to visit small shops in the centre of the county. They have often given wrong information to tourists in order to stop them visiting the locally owned small shops. For example, it was reported that a tour guide said to a group of tourists: 'I would like to let you know that just a few hours ago I listened to the news from the radio. It was said that a epidemic fatal disease has widely spread in Urgup. Thus, I strongly advise you not to visit the centre of the county'. This information was given without any basis in truth.

After visiting pre-determined historical places (rock churches, under-ground cities) and natural attractions (chimney fairies, etc.), tourists have been directed to visit pre-determined shops with which tour guides and hotel companies had made a commission contract. The souvenir shops are just outside of the county and most of them owned by non-local people. Some hotel companies even provided free accommodation for tourists in order to sell something from their souvenir shops.

The finding of this research regarding the distribution of tourism development was supported by a consultant of the Antalya Artisan's Association. He argued that there has been monopolistic and oligopolistic development in the structure of the tourism industry, particularly in touristic shopping in many local tourist destinations on the Mediterranean coast. He claimed that

'tourists are accommodated in holiday villages outside of cities. Tourists as groups are directed to big shopping centres outside of cities. These shops outside of cities are selling their goods to tourists twice more expensive as the shops do in the cities. Thus they do not want tourists to visit city centers. They try to stop tourists buying things from small locally owned shops in city centres by giving wrong information. Tourist are being told that city centers are not safe, they can be raped, cheated and robbed. Therefore tourists are advised not to take much money with them. Tourists also are being told that shopping in city centers from small shops

is expensive and goods are spurious and counterfeit, etc., which gives a very bad image of Turkish tourism' (Tural, 1996: 6).

He further argued that although the numbers of tourists visiting Antalya are increasing year by year, the number of tourists visiting the city centre is decreasing. Many small business have already closed and bankruptcy among small businesses dependent on the tourism industry will be increased. He claimed that these suffering of small businesses were due to the large scale tourist shops whose forgery and counterfeiting were reported by the tourism magazine 'Ogonoyk'. Moreover, he stated that the travel agents have unexpectedly increased their profit margin in the short term by taking high commissions and due to the counterfeiting. By doing this the travel agencies threaten the future of Turkish tourism development as a whole and thus the future of the thousands of the small business operators dependent on the tourism industry (Tural, 1996).

Furthermore, he claimed that the structure of the tourism industry and shopping system are a result of the economic policies that have supported large scale business firms for years and have created barriers to small businesses in the market. At the end of his paper, he suggested that the government should take necessary measures to make the large scale shopping centres lose their attraction, and should make travel agencies do their own jobs. He also suggested that tourists should be left free to visit centres of cities and city tours should be encouraged. If necessary, some regulations should be activated:

2- It was reported that the local people had not received what they expected from the tourism industry. Only big hotel companies and shops had benefited from tourism development.

3- Some interviewees touched upon a wider issue regarding the distribution of benefits of tourism development. They argued that the incentives were not suitable for small capital owners who could get credit from MT to build hotels on their own lands, but find it very difficult to obtain additional financial resources or operational capital. Thus the local small capital owners did not even consider getting incentives from the MT. Urgup was determined as a tourist region by the MT, which encouraged large capital owners to invest in the tourism industry. It was suggested that the tourism incentives encouraged non-local big capitalists to invest in the tourism industry.



## **Local Bodies' Expectation of Community Participation**

As discussed in the previous chapters, particularly in chapters two and three, community participation can take many forms. For example, as mentioned, Arnstein (1971) approached the concept 'community participation' in terms of a ladder or typology of citizen participation including eight levels, which are classified in turn among three categories relative to authentic citizen participation. UN (1981) and Morgan (1993) classified 'community participation' under three main headings such as spontaneous, induced and coercive participation. Therefore it is important to analyse what the local bodies understand about community participation in the TDP.

The local bodies were asked to indicate how strongly they agree or disagree with the given six different statement regarding community participation in the TDP. The local bodies' answers were examined by assigning ranks based on the mean scores of each variable from the lowest mean (rank equals to 6) to the highest mean (rank equals to 1, as presented in Table 7.32). The higher the M score, the stronger the agreement is. The statement that elected and appointed local bodies should decide on tourism development issues by consulting the local people gained the highest mean score. The second highest mean score belonged to the statement that a committee elected by the local people specially for developing, managing and controlling tourism development in Urgup. The statement that the elected local government should decide on tourism development issues had the third highest mean score. The statement that market forces should decide on the tourism development issues had the lowest mean score, and the idea that the MT should decide on the tourism development issues had the second lowest mean score among the given statements.

It may be worth noting that the ranking of the medians of these variables is very similar to the ranking of the means. But the ranking of the means gives a clearer picture since two of these six variables' medians are same (see Table 7.32 in App.-10).

The ranking of the M of these variables may indicate that there was a central tendency among local bodies to support the statement that the elected and appointed local bodies should decide on tourism development issues by consulting the local people. Although the statement that a committee elected by the public specially for

developing, managing and controlling tourism development should decide on all aspect of tourism development in the locality had the second highest rank, the actual mean score of this variable is 3. This means that there was no tendency among the local bodies to support or not to support community participation. But it is obvious that the statement that the MT and/or market forces should decide upon all aspects of tourism development issues were not supported by the respondents (see Table 7.32 in App.-10).

The respondents from the local bodies were asked to state their view about what is an appropriate role for the local community in the tourism development process. As can be seen from Table 7.33 in App.-10, a majority of the respondents (68.4 %) stated that the local people should take the leading role as entrepreneurs and workers at all levels while a larger majority of the respondents (73.7 %) explained that the local people should not have a voice in decision making process of the tourism development. 52.6 percent of the respondents stated that the local people should be consulted and accordingly tourism policies should be re-considered. Moreover, the large majority of the respondents (94.7 %) rejected the statement that the local people should not participate in the TDP by any means.

On the other hand, a majority of the respondents (90.5 %) agreed on giving a legal right to the local people to participate in the TDP (see Table 7.34). The answers given to question 14 indicate that 72.8 per cent of the respondents believed that the local people should be consulted, but the final decision on the tourism development should be made by formal bodies (see Table 7.35). A majority of the respondents (95.4 %) also argued that the local people should be financially supported to invest in the tourism development, rather than outsiders (see Table 7.36).

The main conclusions regarding the local bodies' expectation of community participation is a tendency support to consultation with local people about the tourism development issues, but they did not support local people having a voice in the decision making process (see Table 7.32, 33 and 35 in App.-10).

The results of the personal interviews with members of the local bodies support the above conclusion. For example, the local Governor argued that community participation should be at consultation level. He stated that

... the local bodies should be empowered. By conducting a research, they can learn the local people's views on the various issues. While they decide on these issues, they can take into account the local people's views. In brief, the local bodies have more opportunities to know needs and desires of the local people. If they wish, they can meet the local people's need in a better way. ... community participation at the consultation level would be beneficial. Direct participation of the local people is very difficult. The representatives of the local people, trade chambers and various other local associations can reflect the local people's views.

But the mayor did not support community participation at all. He contended that as a representative of the local people the municipality makes decisions on behalf of the local people. There is no need for community participation in the TDP. The Director of the local museum was in line with the mayor. He stated that '... if local bodies can implement their own decisions, this will increase the effect of the local people on the local affairs'.

The Director of the local tourist information office supported non-participation of the local people. He argued that the municipality is a representative of the local people. Thus participation of the local people is not needed. On the other hand, he claimed that there is no point in getting the local people involved in the decision making process of tourism development since the local people economically and socially are not powerful. It is a fact that participating in local affairs and having an impact on the decisions requires economic power. He further argued,

'When you recommend a policy or strategy to follow, you must have ability to implement it. If you do not have financial power, you cannot implement any recommendation which you offer. Thus, it is not important how beneficial or logical your suggestion. If you do not have money, to me, it is not a logical thing to demand participating in the tourism development process or decisions regarding the local administration'

It is interesting to note that although 100 % of the respondents supported the positive statements regarding the willingness of the local bodies to support the community participation, the interview results suggest that there should not have been such strong willingness among the local bodies. Clearly, some persons in the local bodies did not support the idea of community participation in the TDP at all.

A brief conclusive discussion will be developed in one of the next sections regarding the above figures and arguments. Now, it is appropriate to examine the views of the local bodies on possible barriers to community participation in the TDP.

## **Local Bodies' Views on Barriers to Community Participation in the TDP**

As discussed in chapter three, there seems to be an agreement amongst scholars that in spite of arguments for community participation in the development process, it has been observed that the performance of participatory development strategies is not encouraging, and authentic participation seldom occurs (Hollnsteiner, 1977, United Nations, 1981, Hollnsteiner, 1982, Law-Yone, 1982, Oakley and Marsden, 1984, Nkunika, 1987 and Anderson et al, 1994). The local bodies views on the obstacles which hinder implementation of community participation in the TDP will be examined under three sub-headings.

**Barriers at operational level:** Four questions were formulated to find out barriers at operational level. As can be seen from Table 7.37 in App.-10, 59.1 percent of respondents agreed that there was a lack of co-ordination between central bodies and the local bodies in Urgup. The Mdn score of this variable is 3.6. This means that the middle case as being of typical value among the respondents was to agree with the existence of the lack of co-ordination between central and local bodies. A majority of the respondents (54.5 %) stated their agreement of there being a lack of co-ordination between the local authorities and the private sector in Urgup. 72.8 percent of the respondents stated their agreement on the statement that most of the residents are not well-informed and lack information about tourism development issues in Urgup. The Mdn scores of this variable is 4, which also confirmed the agreement of the local bodies on this statement.

Further, a vast majority of the respondents stated that central bodies have prepared development plans, but they did not take into account the local conditions under which the plan would be implemented. The Mdn score of this ordinal variable is 3.8 which also indicates the agreement on this statement among the respondents (see Table 7.37 in App.-10).

As can be seen from Table 7.37, all of the Mdn scores of the variables related to the barriers at operational level are larger than 3. This means that there are central tendencies among the respondents from the local bodies that these statement regarding the operational barriers to community participation in the TDP exist, to some extent, in Urgup.

**Structural barriers to community participation in the TDP:** Lack of knowledge has been seen as one of the structural barriers to community participation. Only 19 percent of the respondents believed that the local people's knowledge of tourism was good, while 28.6 percent stated that the local people's knowledge of tourism was limited. The popular opinion about this variable was that the local people's knowledge of tourism was at a moderate level (see Table 7.38 in App.-10). However, as can be seen from Table 7.37, 72.8 percent of the respondents agreed that the most of the local people are not well-informed and lack knowledge of the TDP. Thus the statement that the local people have a moderate level of knowledge should be treated with caution.

To quote the results of the interviews with the members of the local bodies at some length may give a clearer indication about the local peoples' knowledge of tourism development issues in Urgup. For example, the mayor stated that

'I can not say that I am a good engineer. Previously, we drink water from bowls, but now we drink from crystal glasses. To be a good hotel manager require skills and qualifications. It is a professional job, now. It has its own education, schools and discipline. I have been in the tourism business for years, but I do not know what my daughter knows because she attended a university to learn the tourism business. She does not accept many things which I accept regarding the tourism business. Now, everything is done by using computers. In the past, there was no word such as animation. When the local people heard the word 'animation', they said 'what?'. The local people do not have enough knowledge about modern tourism. They are not professionals; they are amateurs. Indeed, this is good for tourism, but market conditions require professionalism. The inn era is closed and modern hospitality era has emerged. The local people are between these two phenomena. They are experiencing now a very difficult period'.

The vice-mayor supported the mayor's statements. He reported that the local people do not know how to market themselves. They suppose that if they write their name on the top of their shops and decorate their shops, tourists will come. Unfortunately, it is not so in real life. They must market themselves at the international and national levels. This marketing activity should be co-operatively organised and financed by the local people, but the owners of small scale tourist establishments do not want to contribute to marketing activities. The local people suppose that the tourists will come as they came in the past. But, the conditions were

changed. Tourists are not free any more. Tourists' times are pre-occupied. Tourists are guided and directed by professional people.

This issue will be further argued in one of the next sections.

Additionally, six statements regarding the structural barriers to community participation in the TDP were given and the respondents were asked to state their level of agreement or disagreement.

As can be seen from Table 7.39 in App.-10, 81.8 percent of the respondent agreed or strongly agreed with the presence of a lack of legal structure to involve the local community in the TDP (Mdn = 4.2). The view of the local governor seems to be interesting in this regard. He stated that under the current socio-economic and political conditions, it is not possible to get the local people involved in the public administration system in Turkey. Municipalities do not necessarily represent all people in a locality. A elected government via a multi-party democratic system represents a majority rather than representing every one in a country or in a local area. However, the views of the majority in a locality may not be compatible with the long term benefits of that locality since the local people via various means can be directed and misinformed. Under the current public administration system, there is no opportunity for the public to effect the decisions of elected and appointed local governments, and central authorities in Turkey. That is to say, the public cannot directly control public bodies. But when a local government violates a law, a civil organisation or the beneficiaries can take that local government to the court of administration. Protest, sit-in, hunger strike etc. can be held to have an impact on the decisions of various bodies. But it is not easy for the local people to use these tools as a means of pressure (Interview with the local bodies).

As can be understood from Table 7.39 and the statement of the local governor, there is no law or regulation to order community participation in the TDP, or to make authorities consult the public regarding development programs.

76.2 percent of the respondents agreed or strong agreed with the statement that there was a lack of financial resources at the local level and need for a flow of funds into the locality from outside interests (Mdn = 4). The results of the personal interviews strongly supported the level of agreement on the lack of financial resources at the local level. For example, the mayor said that the municipality opened the first

hotel in Urgup. Then the MT established a hotel. After a certain level of development, local capital was not enough to finance the scale of the tourism development in Urgup. Thus, domestic non-local entrepreneurs invested in the tourism industry.

The Director of the local tourist information office stated that establishing big hotels require large capital resources which were not available at the local level. Thus, big hotel companies are not owned by local people. Fortunately, a few hoteliers were born in Urgup, but they had been out of the county for years. When Urgup was determined as a 'tourism area', they came back to Urgup and opened hotels and shops. A majority of the small scale tourist establishments belong to the local people, but they have serious problems. Some of them have already closed. Moreover, the Director of the local museum and a neighborhood headman are in line in this regard. They reported that local people do not have enough capital to establish proper hotels and shops to serve tourists. The capital must come from non-local sources. Thus it is very difficult for the local people to play a leading role as entrepreneurs in the tourism industry.

As the above discussion implies, financial resources at the local level are not enough to finance the present scale of the tourism development in Urgup, which is termed as one of the structural barriers to community participation in the TDP.

There was a central tendency among the respondents (69.1 %) that there is a lack of human resources to invest in, develop and manage tourism development in the locality (see Table 7.39 in App.-10). The mayor explained this issue as follows:

'The local people do not invest in a sector which they do not know. At the early stage of tourism development the local people did not know whether the tourism sector had a good future or not. Moreover they did not have any experience in and familiarity with the tourism sector. Thus, they did not think of investing in tourism. Now, the local people want to be involved in the tourism business, but it requires larger capital to invest in tourism than 10 years ago. Thus, it became more difficult to enter the market'.

The Director of the local tourist information office is in line with the mayor. He argued that qualified employees have been brought from outside Urgup to work for the hotels since there are not qualified local people to work in certain positions in hotels. Not surprisingly, local people are employed for these jobs which do not require any skills and qualifications. Moreover, a neighborhood headman stated that

'hotel managers in Urgup bring their teams with them from the previous hotels for which they worked. Thus, the local people were not given many opportunities to work in the tourism industry. Hotels employed some of the local people for only 3-5 months, then they sacked the employees. Thus the local people have not wanted to work in the tourism industry and they have not seen a job in a hotel as reliable.

In a traditional community such as the local community in Urgup, having a permanent and creditable job is very important since family responsibility such as providing the basic needs of members of the family belong to individual rather than public bodies. For example, there is no income support, unemployment benefit and child benefits for the unemployed people in a developing country such as Turkey. Thus, the local people want to get jobs which are permanent and thus reliable in order to meet the basic needs of their families, whereas most of the jobs created by the tourism sector in Urgup are only for 4 to 5 months.

The lack of expertise in tourism planning in Urgup was widely accepted by the respondents (81.8 %, Mdn = 4). 50 percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed upon the presence of a lack of will at central level to accept a participatory tourism development approach while 36.4 percent disagreed or strongly disagreed on this statement. 40.9 percent of the respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed on the statement 'planning and development efforts are value-free or politically neutral exercise; hence participation of the community in the development process can only serve to politicize it and lay it aside from its professional base' while 31.8 percent agreed or strongly agreed with this statement. Interestingly, 27.3 percent stayed in the middle (Mdn = 2.8). Finally, 54.5 percent of the respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed on the statement 'participation of members of the community can demand significant time and effort of professionals to complete projects, thus it should not be implemented' while 22.7 percent agreed or strongly agreed with this statement (Mdn = 2.5) (see Table 7.39 in App.-10).

Based upon Table 7.39, it can be said that the lack of a legal structure to involve the community in the TDP; the lack of capital to finance tourism development in the locality; the lack of qualified human resources to invest in, develop, and manage the tourism development; the lack of expertise in tourism planning; and the lack of



will at central level were reported as the main structural problems to community participation in the TDP.

**Cultural barriers to community participation in the TDP:** Two questions were formulated to find the local bodies' views on cultural barriers to community participation in the TDP. 59.1 percent of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed with the statement that the local people have difficulty in communicating with formal bodies while 40.9 percent strongly disagreed or disagreed with the same statement. The Mdn and mode scores of this ordinal variable are 4. In other words, the central tendency among the respondents was that the local people have difficulty in communicating with formal bodies. Further, 40.9 percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that the local people have a low level of interest and awareness about socio-cultural, economic and political issues including tourism while 31.8 percent disagreed or strongly disagreed and 27.3 percent stayed in the middle. The Mdn of this variable is 3.15 and the mode is 4 (see Table 7.40 in App.-10).

The results of the interviews with the local bodies confirmed the existence of cultural barriers. It may be beneficial to quote what the respondents actually said. The mayor told that 'the local people show a lack of interest in the local affairs. If I organise a conference and invite some speakers, no local people will attend'. The Director of the local tourist information office was in line with mayor. He stated that the young people in Urgup did not have much interest in tourism development. For example, there is Tourism Education Center (TUREM), but only a small number of young people from the local community registered in this center. Interestingly, the local governor emphasised that 'the local shop owners do not have enough knowledge of foreign languages to present and market their products. Even though they sell cheaper, tour guides who work on commissions direct tourists to organised and professionalised souvenirs shops' (Interview with the local bodies).

A member of the municipal council touched upon a wider issue regarding the cultural barriers. He argued that the local people do not know the present and the future value of their lands, and they do not know the future of the tourism sector in Urgup, either. When they are offered a relatively large amount of money which they have never imaged, they do not think further except for selling their land. Many local

peoples moved to other cities by selling their land. A few years later they understood that they had made an irreversible mistake. In the future few local people will stay in Urgup (Interview with the local bodies).

He further argued that under the current socio-political and economic conditions, and public administration system, it is very difficult for local people to oppose to decisions of the local bodies. For example, if some local people oppose a decision of the municipal council, the municipality has the power to make decisions which may reduce or increase the value of personal properties of the local people. On the other hand, the local people expect some benefits from political bodies such as to get a job for their children, to get credit, to get confirmation of their settlement plans, etc. Because of these expectations and fear of mistreatment, they do obey and accept, to some extent, whatever decisions are made by formal bodies (Interview with the local bodies).

#### **Views of the Local Bodies to Promote Community Participation in the TDP**

Four statements regarding promotion of a participatory development approach were presented and the respondents were asked to state their level of agreement or disagreement with them. As can be understood from Table 7.41, a vast majority of the respondents (between 90 and 100 %) agreed or strongly agreed with the given statements. These statements are as follows: 1- Local people should be helped to develop their capabilities to participate in management and development of the tourism industry. 2-Local people through various courses should be educated to take advantage of tourism development. 3- Greater awareness and interest among members of the local community may be achieved if meaningful and comprehensible information contained in the reports and plans are disseminated in Urgup. 4- Delegating some of the planning functions, tasks and authorities from the Ministry of Tourism and the State Planning Organization to local bodies is necessary for effective community participation in tourism development.

The interviews' results provided additional recommendations to promote a participatory development strategy. It may be useful to quote these results at some length. The Director of the local museum stated that it is a matter of education; the

more local people are educated about tourism the more they will want to be involved in the TDP. A member of the municipal council and hotel manager argued that MT should spend enough resources and efforts to educate the local people for employment in the tourism industry. Generous incentives is not a solution. Investors would open hotels or other related tourism businesses even if the MT did not give generous incentives (Interview with the local bodies).

Several neighborhood headmen supported the above argument. They stressed that the local people should be given information about the nature and benefits of tourism development and local and central authorities should provide enough support for the local people to be involved in the TDP. Additionally, they stated that the local people should be educated about tourism development and particularly, language courses should be opened in order to teach foreign languages to the local people.

In brief, the destination community should be prepared to take complete advantage of the development of tourism. This can be done by educating people in various ways at the tourist destination. In Ixtapa-Zihuatanejo, the Community Development team sponsored certain types of courses so as to train taxi drivers and waiters, develop construction and maintenance skills, teach the English language etc. It is also necessary to prepare the people in a socio-psychological sense. This preparation could help tourists and host experience a true encounter (Valle and Regt, 1979). Socio-psychological preparation may also motivate residents to participate actively in the tourism development processes and remove prejudices about tourists.

The Director of the local tourist information office said that tourism demand for Urgup should be increased. It is not a matter who owns and operates the tourism establishments. If the tourism demand for Urgup is increased, indirectly the share of local people will also increase. In this context, the mayor argued that

‘We need foreigners in Urgup. In general, Turkey needs foreign capital in the tourism sector. Ministries have taken every measure to bring foreign capital to Turkey. Foreigners are our teachers in Urgup. When the local people learn the tourism business, and open and operate competitive business, the foreigners will find that what they are doing is not profitable. So they will go’.

The mayor further contended that tourism in Urgup is seasonal, ‘we have forgot what we learned in the last summer. Seasonality is a main obstacle to the local people to work in the tourism industry’. During summer the local people work on the

farms. During winter they do not have something to do, but most of the tourist establishments are closed at that time. Without spreading tourism throughout the year, it is not easy to give confidence to the local people to work in and operate tourism related companies (Interview with the local bodies).

Some members of the municipal council told that there is a very slow bureaucratic structure in the country, which is time-consuming and inflexible. To accelerate the decision making process, it is necessary to increase the power of the local authorities. Thus, the 'MT should decentralise some its power to the local authorities. Certainly, local bodies have more knowledge about local affairs. But decentralisation is not a complete solution. It can be misused as well. Thus caution is necessary in this respect'. Moreover, if local people were helped to invest in the tourism sector at the beginning of the tourism development, foreign capital would not come to Urgup. But, after this point of development it is very difficult to indigenise these establishments (Interview with the local bodies).

To examine the relationships between some dependent and independent variables regarding the local bodies views' on various issues of community participation in the TDP and some other variables, a bivariate correlation analysis (Spearman correlation ( $r_s$ )) Cramer's V statistic and a chi-square statistical measure were performed. These are contained in Appendix - 12.

As this chapter seeks to investigate views of related interest groups on the community participation, it is necessary to examine views of central bodies in this context. In the next section this issue will be explored.

### **Views of Central Bodies on Community Participation in the TDP**

The views of central authorities on community participation in the TDP will be examined based on the questionnaire, interviews with the Ministry of Tourism (MT) and State Planning Organisation (SPO). This section consists of three main sub-headings. These are. 1- Willingness of the central bodies to support community participation, 2- views of the central bodies on barriers to community participation in the TDP, and 3- views of the central bodies on strategies to promote community participation in the TDP.

## **Willingness of the Central Bodies to Support a Participatory Tourism Development Approach**

The following discussion was developed by the central authorities regarding this issue. They argued that local people should participate in any decisions that have impacts on their life. But, the legislation does not permit the local people to do this. The local communities do not have any democratic inputs to tourism development at local or central levels. Only some well organised and economically powerful groups have impact on the decisions regarding tourism development. This is not specific for the tourism sector, it is also valid for all the sectors of the economy (Interview with the central bodies).

## **Views of the Central Bodies on Barriers to Community Participation in the TDP**

This issue will be examined under two sub-headings.

**Structural barriers to community participation in the TDP:** The respondents from the central authorities contended that there is a lack of financial resource at the local level in many tourist destinations in the country. This is one of the main problems of community participation in the TDP. Generally, large companies have invested in the tourism industry in many popular tourist destinations in Turkey, rather than members of the local communities. Thus the local people do not have an opportunity to be involved in the tourism industry by performing an active role. Co-operation among the local people can be established in order to invest in the tourism industry, but there are not many examples at the moment in this regard due to the fact that there is individualism in this context in Turkish society. Everybody wants to be a boss on his own (Interview with the central bodies).

Lack of an appropriate planning system which will create legal back up and opportunities for the local people to participate in the TDP is one of the main structural barriers to community participation. The respondents from central bodies argued that there is a legal obstacle to community participation in the tourism development process. Without changing laws, any efforts for community participation in the TDP will not achieve much (Interview with the central bodies).

They stated that they would strongly support any attempt to change the municipal legislation. But to be realistic, it may not be easy to change this legislation since many interest groups, particularly politicians do not want to change it. Although there has been many attempts to change the legislation in order to delegate some powers of the central authorities to the local bodies, nothing has been changed in a positive way since 1983. Although the experts, who were interviewed, supported community participation in the TDP, they claimed that the decision-makers at central level lack willingness to support it (Interview with the central bodies).

**Barriers at operational level of community participation in the TDP:** The interviewees from the central bodies reported that there is a lack of an integrated planning approach in Turkey. Thus, sectoral planning is done in isolation. Co-ordination, two-way communication and co-operation between and amongst related bodies is very weak and in most cases does not exist. Unfortunately, there is no law or regulation to encourage these inter-relationships and intra-relationship between and amongst private and public bodies. Turkey has a traditional powerful bureaucracy which dominates in legislative and operational processes. Any approaches which conflict with this traditional powerful bureaucracy are not acceptable to the bureaucrats. Particularly, this traditional bureaucracy is an obstacle to establish co-ordination and co-operation between various bodies. Moreover, there is competition among public bodies to increase this traditional bureaucratic structure in order to increase their areas of influence. In brief, we have structural and historical problems in the public administration system which ultimately have an important function in the planning process at operational level (Interview with the central bodies).

### **Views of the Central Bodies to Promote Community Participation in the TDP**

The respondents from the central bodies argued that the local people should participate in their affairs. This can be achieved through delegating some of the central decision making powers to the local bodies. In this context, more democratic legislation is badly needed to develop and implement a participatory tourism development strategy (Interview with the central bodies).

But it is not easy to achieve decentralisation. Since 1983 the decentralisation of central governments' powers has been a popular agenda, but nothing has been changed (Interview with the central bodies).

Moreover, they argued that the democratic legislation should be supported and reinforced by economic instruments in order to increase the effectiveness of a participatory tourism development strategy. Thus the local people must be supported to be entrepreneurs in their localities. Particularly, the local people's investment should be supported and encouraged by fiscal and financial instruments. If the local people invest money in something and take some risk, they will participate in many issues at the local level because the economic risks which would be taken by local people will encourage and empower them to participate in their affairs, defend their interests and demand what they need from the related bodies. The economic measurements will be relatively more effective to increase the role of the local people in their affairs. Other solutions which ignore economic empowerment of the local people will not work. Economic isolation of the local people from the tourism sector is one of the main problems and obstacles to local peoples' participation in the TDP (Interview with the central bodies).

It is reported that in the last Five Year Development Plan participation of local people in their affairs was emphasised. But, it seems not easy to activate economic and administrative regulations to empower local people in the context of a participatory development approach. Even the nature of the incentives given to tourism was a matter of political choice rather than a matter of economic priorities. Rapid tourism development has changed power structure in many local popular tourist destinations. Within the new power structure local people have not had a significant place. It is now difficult to make decisions which conflicts with interests of power holders in those local tourist destinations. It is likely that at the initial stage of policy change towards a participatory approach interest groups may create pressures on the government to prevent the emergence of a participatory tourism development approach or to structure participatory tourism development policies to save their current and future interests. In brief, at the initial stage, conflicts may arise among interest groups and some problems may come out. Hence, brave decisions may be

needed to keep a balance among the interest of the various groups (Interview with the central bodies).

### **Views of Private Sector Representatives on Community Participation in the TDP**

An interview was made with the President of Cappadocia Association of Tourism Operators (KAPTIB) and with a few hoteliers in order to examine views of the private sector representatives on community participation in the TDP. This section will be examined under a few sub-headings.

#### **Willingness of the Private Sector Representatives to Support Community Participation in the TDP**

The representatives of the private sector were very sensitive to the questions regarding community participation in the TDP. For example, the president of KAPTIB stated that

‘... these kinds of questions are meaningless. What is the difference between non-local entrepreneurs and the local entrepreneurs? This kind of approach to the tourism development cannot contribute to the development of the country. The non-local capital is needed to develop a region such as Cappadocia ... What do you mean by the non-local people and the local people? There are no local people and non-local people, but there is a uniform Turkish public. Why do not you ask these questions to the hoteliers in Istanbul? There are entrepreneurs who invested in the tourism industry from everywhere in Turkey and even from many different countries’.

He argued that any attempt to distinguish the local people and the non-local people from each other is an effort to divide Turkey. He said that ‘If you are studying community participation in the tourism development process in Urgup, this means that you want to divide the country and you do not want Turkey to be a developed country’.

The verbatim quote from the president of KAPTIB seems to reflect the general attitudes of rich elites to defend their self-interests by blaming those people



who question their way of business as if they violate rules and regulations of the country.

One of the hoteliers stated that the central government has encouraged them to invest in the tourism industry in Urgup by offering a range of very generous incentives. He argued that Turkey needs tourism, thus the central government needs their contribution to the tourism industry. The conditions under which Turkey is developing cannot afford community participation in TDP. First of all, we need national development whether at the expense of unbalance regional development or not (Interview with representatives of the private sector).

Another hotelier emphasised that Turkey has experienced an unbelievable rapid tourism development. It is not logical to research who did this. What is important is the development, the final product. 'There is no point in asking who did it; Turkish people did it. Turkey is a big country now. She is dealing with big things. Turkey's horizon is opened. By 2000 15 million tourists are targeted' (Interview with representatives of the private sector).

The president of KAPTIB said that

'Do not ask these questions to the local people. If you do, you will damage tourism development in Urgup. By asking what percentage of the employees in the tourism industry are from the local people, what percentage of the capital in the tourism industry belongs to non-local entrepreneurs etc., you are doing an evil thing. You are creating confusions in the local people's minds. The origin of the ownership of the tourism operators and companies are not important. I know that all of them are Turkish. Indeed, I know the answer of the question, but there is no point in answering this question'.

Moreover, they stated that the governments built the infrastructure and played a leading role in the establishment of superstructure. Then, the government encouraged the private sectors to invest in the region. After this point, there is no point in discussing the role of the local people in the tourism industry. In the natural process of tourism development the local people will increase their role based on their abilities and financial resources (Interview with representatives of the private sector).

As can be understood from the above discussion, the private sector representatives have an tendency not to support community participation in the TDP. Infact, a careful examination of their statements may imply that they are against the participatory tourism development approach in Urgup.

## **Views of the Private Sector on Barriers to Community Participation in the TDP**

The views of the private sector representatives on barriers to participatory tourism development approach can be analysed under several sub-headings.

**Structural barriers to participatory tourism development approach:** The private sector representatives stated that the tourism development process in Urgup involves many complex issues. For years only a small numbers of beds were available to tourists and a small numbers of tourists visited Urgup. During this era the local people served tourists by using their own resources. After the middle of 1980s the government gave generous incentives to the tourism industry and the MT established a hotel in Urgup. During the 1970s and early 1980s the bed capacity of Urgup was under 1000. Today the bed capacity is 20.000. The local people could not afford to supply 20.000 beds. This was beyond the local financial resources. Thus, non-local capital was needed. In other words, the non-local capital which ushered in the current tourism development in Urgup. Without this impetus, the current scale of tourism development would not have taken place in Urgup (Interview with representatives of the private sector).

Moreover, they claimed that the non-local capital is still badly needed by the tourism industry in Urgup due to the fact that the modern mass tourism is a phenomena which can not be satisfied by merely local human and financial resources. The president of KAPTIB contended that there is not enough local capital to invest in the tourism industry. Again, there is no value to indigenise these establishments owned by non-local people. This region has sent the largest number of workers abroad (Germany, France, etc.) due to lack of jobs opportunities in their home towns and country. Thus, it is important create jobs for local people. Is it not good for these people to work where they were born, rather than working in foreign countries by leaving their children, wives, country, etc.? 'I suspect that there are not good reasons beyond these questions. It is a matter of financial power; it is so clear. When the local people have financial power, they can open competitive business' (Interview with representatives of the private sector).

**Lack of human resources at the local level:** The private sector representatives stated that they established big hotels in Urgup and invested hundreds

of thousand of dollars in these hotels. There are not enough people equipped with sufficient skills and qualifications to work in these hotels in Urgup. They emphasised that they need employees who know several languages, who can cook a range of meals, who can use computers, who can be animators, who can be tour guides, etc. It is impossible to find a single person to have such abilities, skills and qualifications among the local people. So we have to bring employees from outside of Urgup (Interview with representatives of the private sector).

**Cultural barriers to community participation in the TDP:** The private sector representatives contended that the nature of tourism has changed very much. There seems to be no more individual tourists who visit Urgup. The era of mass tourism has emerged, but many small scale hoteliers and shop owners failed to recognise this fact. They still suppose that if they open a small hotel and decorate their shops, tourists will come and stay in their hotels, and buy something from their shops. Unfortunately, operating a tourism business is not so easy any more. They reported that they traveled abroad and got in touch with tour operators to make contracts for 1000 tourists, rather than for 40-50 tourists (Interview with representatives of the private sector).

It was also reported that the owners of the small scale tourist establishments always complain about the current tourism development. They say that tourists come to Urgup, but they go directly to big hotels and big carpet shops. This is a routine complaint of the locally owned small scale establishments. The private sector representatives claimed that the owner of the small scale tourist establishments did not understand the dynamics of the tourism industry. They failed to adopt themselves to the competitive market conditions. 'The local people stands and say oh my God please send tourists to our hotels, which is not a solution for their problem' (Interview with representatives of the private sector).

Moreover, they implied that the small accommodation establishments have no chance to get a share of the mass tourism market if they do not co-operate with each other. They claimed that these small scale hotels do not have enough quality to serve international tourists. They do not have enough facilities to satisfy tourists. Most of them do not have basic things such as a regular hot water supply, good baths etc. The matter is that to cope with changing market conditions and to adopt themselves to the

competitive market is a very difficult thing for these small businesses in the tourism industry to achieve due to the lack of financial resources and cultural limitations (Interview with representatives of the private sector).

### **Local People's Views on Community Participation in the TDP**

Views of the local people on community participation in the TDP will be examined under four main sub-sections. These are as follows: 1- willingness of the local community to participate in the TDP, 2- expected nature of community participation by the local people, 3- views of the local people on barriers to community participation in the TDP and 4- views of the local people on strategies to promote community participation in the TDP (see App.-4 for relevant questions).

### **Willingness of the Local community to Participate in the TDP**

Four questions (q12-q15 see App.-4) were formulated to examine willingness of the local people to participate in the TDP. The local people were asked whether they would be interested in attending workshops and meetings to be conducted on sport, agriculture, education, health and tourism (q12). The local people's answers were examined by assigning ranks based on the Mdn scores of each variable from the lowest Mdn (rank equals to 1) to the highest Mdn (rank equals to 4, as presented in Table 7.42 in App.-10). The lower the Mdn score, the stronger the willingness to participate in workshops and meeting regarding the given variables. Health and education gained equivalent lowest rank, which means that the local people have the most willingness to participate in workshops and meeting regarding 'health' and 'education'. The second lowest scores belonged to 'tourism'. The third lowest was gained by 'agriculture, and was followed by 'sport'.

Based upon Table 7.42, it can be said that after health and education, tourism was considered as the most important issue.

The local people were asked whether they wanted to be informed before tourism development took place in their area (q13). As can be seen from Table 7. 43 in App.-10, a vast majority of the respondents (91.9 %) wanted to know before

tourism development took place in their area. The pattern of answers given to question 14 and 15 are in parallel with the data given in Table 7. 43.

75.2 % of the respondents would like the opportunity to personally express their views on tourism (q14) while 21.3 % were undecided and 3.5 % did not want to (see Table 7.44). 88.1 % of the respondents stated that they would strongly encourage (33.5 %) or encourage (54.7 %) community participation in the TDP if they were advising MT while 9.3 % were undecided and 2.6 % stated they would strongly discourage or discourage it. The Mdn (1.755) and M (1.822) scores of the variables also show that the central tendency among the respondents was to strongly encourage or encourage community participation in the TDP (see Table 7.45 in App.- 10).

Based upon the overall answers given, it can be said that there is a strong willingness to participate in the TDP and considerable interest in tourism related issues (see Table 7.42- 7.45 in App. - 1).

### **Expected Nature of Community Participation by the Local Community**

The local people were asked how strongly they agree or disagree with the six statements regarding level of community participation in the TDP (q16). The local people's answers were examined by assigning ranks based on the mean scores of each variable from the lowest mean (rank equals to 6) to the highest mean (rank equals to 1, as presented in Table 7.46). The higher the M score, the stronger the agreement is. The idea of elected and appointed local bodies deciding on tourism development issues by consulting the local people gained the highest scores. The second highest scores belonged to the idea of a committee elected by the local people specially for developing, managing and controlling the tourism development should decide upon all aspects of tourism development in Urgup. The idea of market forces should decide on tourism development issues had the third highest scores. The idea that appointed local government should decide on tourism development issues had the fourth highest ranking. The idea that the MT should decide on the tourism development issues had the lowest scores, which was followed by the idea that elected local government should decide on the tourism development issues.

It may be worth noting that the ranking of the Mdn of these variables is very similar to the ranking of the means. But the ranking of the M gives a clearer picture since three of these six variables' medians are same (see Table 7.46 in App.-10).

Respondents from the local people were asked to state their ideas about what appropriate role in the tourism development process they (the local people) should take (q17). As can be seen from Table 7.47 in App.-10, a majority of the respondents (80.6 %) stated that they should take the leading role as entrepreneurs and workers at all levels. 85.7 % of the respondents explained that the local people should have a voice in decision making process of the tourism development while only 4.6 % the respondents believed that they should not participate in the TDP. Moreover, 25.7 percent of the respondents stated that they should be consulted and accordingly tourism policies should be re-considered.

62.6 percent of the respondents stated that 'the holding of a referendum' is a suitable means for them to participate in the TDP while 88.6 percent of the respondents chose the statement 'encouraging local people to invest in and work for the tourism industry' as suitable means for community participation in the TDP. Attending seminar and conference (45.3 %), and responding survey (22.9 %) were not regarded as a suitable means to participate in the TDP (see Table 7. 48 in App.-10).

According to Table 7.46, the respondents had a tendency to support the idea that the local people should be consulted about tourism development issues in the locality. This was the most popularly accepted option by the local people. The second most popularly supported option was the idea that a committee elected by the public specially for developing, managing and controlling tourism development should decide on all aspect of tourism development in the locality. Infact, the other option were not supported at all. When the Table 7. 46 is carefully examined, it is obvious that the M and Mdn scores of the MT, elected local government, appointed local government and market forces should decide upon the tourism development issues are under 3. This means that the respondents strongly disagree and/or disagree with these statements.

The above finding regarding the expected nature of community participation by the local people raises questions about how the local people can become

entrepreneurs without capital and experience. The popularly accepted second option of a locally elected committee may not achieve a better tourism development since they lack experience in and knowledge of tourism. One may argue, as Hakim (1982) did, that if the local people can learn from their mistake and experience, that will reinforce their capacity. But nobody guarantee that how long this trial and error process will last, how much it will cost and whether it will be effective or not. As a result it may be said that without collaboration of the major interest groups and power holders it will be difficult to achieve a genuine participatory tourism development.

### **Views of the Local People on Barriers to Community Participation in the TDP**

Two statements related to the barriers to the community participation were given and the respondents from the local people were asked to state their level of agreement with each of them. A vast majority of the respondents (92.8 %) strongly agreed or agreed with the first statement 'There is a lack of adequate information made available to us on tourism issues'. The second statement was 'We do not want to express our opinions about tourism issues to the formal bodies because we feel nothing will be done' with which 64 % of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with while only 25.9 % of them strongly disagreed or disagreed with it (see Table 7.49 in App.-10).

### **Views of the Local People on Strategies to Promote Community Participation in the TDP**

Two statements regarding the strategies to promote community participation in the TDP were given and the respondents were asked to state their level of agreement with each of them. As can be seen from Table 7.50 in App.-10, 79.6 % of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement (q25) 'We local people should have some training to work for, to invest in and to express our opinions about the tourism industry' while only 12.7 % of them disagreed or strongly disagreed with it. The second statement was 'Formal authorities should directly communicate to

encourage us to express our opinions about tourism issues' (q26), upon which 81.2 % of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed.

The above quantitative data suggest that training of the local people and direct communication of the formal bodies with the local people were popularly supported as strategies to encourage the local people to participate in the TDP.

The relationships between variables regarding the local community's views on community participation in the TDP were analyzed by employing a bivariate correlation analysis (Spearman correlation ( $r_s$ ), Kendall-tau and Cramer's V statistic) and a chi-square statistical measure were performed, which are contained in Appendix - 13.

The above qualitative and quantitative data were used as a means to give an overall picture about objective two whose main aim was to investigate the views of the interest groups on various issues of community participation. The following section will make an attempt to draw some conclusive statements from these data.

### **Conclusive Statements of Objective Two**

As discussed, objective two has four main sections. Some conclusive statements will be developed based on the findings and argument regarding these four main sections.

### **Conclusive Statements Regarding the Local Bodies Views on Community Participation in the TDP**

Based upon the overall discussion related to the local bodies' views on community participation in the TDP, several points can be made.

First, based on Table 7.23 and 24, it can be argued that the respondents from the local bodies had a strong willingness to support community participation in the TDP. Table 7.25 - 7.31 show that there was a strong belief in the benefits of the participatory tourism development approach. But a cautionary approach seems to be essential when these figures are interpreted since the meaning of the local bodies' willingness for community participation in the TDP and belief in the benefits of this



approach depend upon what the respondents understood from the concept of 'community participation'. As discussed in chapter two, community participation may take very different forms ranging between citizen power to manipulation (Arnstein, 1971 and Hughes, 1985).

In this context, the expected nature of community participation in the TDP by the respondents from the local bodies is important. Table 7.32 in App.-10 depicts that the Mdn scores of the ideas that 'Ministry of Tourism, elected local government, appointed local government or market forces should make decisions on the tourism development issues in Urgup' are under 3. This means that the middle cases as being of typical values are to strongly disagree or disagree with these ideas. The Mdn score of the idea that 'a committee elected by the public specially for developing, managing and controlling tourism development should decide on all aspect of tourism development in the locality' is 3. This means that there is no tendency among the respondents to support or not to support community participation in the TDP. The only idea whose Mdn score is above 3 is that 'appointed local and elected government should decide upon all aspect of tourism by consulting the local community', which means that this idea was popularly supported by the respondents.

The figures in Table 7. 33 and 7. 35 are in line with the figures in Table 7.32. For example, 73.7 percent of the respondents stated that the local people should not have a voice in decision making process for tourism development (Table 7.33 in App.-10) and 72.8 percent of the respondent felt that the local people should be consulted, but final decisions on tourism development should be made by formal bodies (Table 7.35 in App.-10). Additionally, as mentioned previously, the interview results also suggested that the local bodies were not willing to support direct or active community participation. Indeed, some of them obviously opposed the idea of community participation.

In brief, it may be said that the members of the local bodies had a tendency to support community consultation or pseudo - participation while they are strongly opposed to a laissez-fair approach to tourism development under market forces. Moreover, they are against centralization of decision-making powers regarding tourism development. But the main conclusion may be that the members of the local bodies did not have any tendency to support community participation as citizen power

although they stated their willingness to support community participation. Thus, the strong willingness of the members of the local bodies for community participation should be interpreted as a strong willingness for community consultation. Similarly, their belief in the benefits of the participatory tourism development approach should be seen as their belief in the benefits of the community consultation (pseudo - participation).

One point regarding the expected nature of community participation and belief in this seems to require further clarification. It may be argued that in order to utilise the benefits of community participation, community participation must take place in the form of citizen power. If it takes place at consultation level, the level of benefits supposed to emerge from it depend upon the sincerity of the decision-makers. Under the present conditions, there are not many factors that will make decision-makers take into account the view of the local community.

Second, personal interviews with the local bodies found that they not happy with the current monopoly and oligopoly power in the tourism industry. The most popular argument among the interviewees was that a few big hotel companies, most of them belonging to non-local entrepreneurs, shaped and benefited from tourism development in Urgup, which is not a unique situation and is common in other developing countries. This encouraged isolation of tourism development from the local environment. Urgup is remote from the main coastal tourist destinations and does not have sufficient attractions to keep tourists more than 3-4 days. Thus, the features of local tourism contributed to the large hotel companies' efforts to isolate tourism development *from the local environment*.

In this context, it may be argued that the monopoly and oligopoly powers in the industry may reflect wider socio-economic, political and public administration problems in the locality and in the country. That is to say,

'To the extent that policies in any sector, such as tourism, reflect the existing socio-economic situation, the development of the sector is likely to reinforce the position of the more powerful classes, confirming existing social patterns, even though, for example, the employment distribution of tourism may generate some shifts in the social position of particular groups' (de Kadt 1979: 45).

Third, based on the data provided by the members of the local bodies, it can be said that the tourism industry has not been integrated into the local economy. It

was implied that the non-local entrepreneurs in the tourism industry had a tendency not to re-invest their profit gained from tourism in Urgup. As known, it is a very common problem in many local tourist destinations of developing countries. Thus, it is not a surprising result. Moreover, the respondents stated that the non-local owners of the tourism establishments had a tendency not to buy goods for their hotels and restaurants from local sources while the locally owned tourists establishments did.

Fourth, barriers to community participation in the TDP was broken into three main groups such as barriers at operational level, structural barriers and cultural barriers. But it should be noticed that some of these barriers overlap each other. Infact they are inter-related and most of them may have common causes and effects, which seem to be beyond this research to discuss.

The local bodies' survey results reflected that the three groups of barriers exist, to some extend, in the field study area. As presented in Table 7.37, the Mdn scores of the all variables regarding barriers at operational level are larger than 3. This means; the middle case as being of typical value is that the respondents agreed with those statements. More clearly, a lack of co-ordination between the related groups in the tourism industry, not giving comprehensible information about the TDP to the residents, and ignorance of the local conditions under which the tourism development has taken place, were confirmed as barriers at operational level by the respondents from the local bodies.

The interview results have supported the existence of the structural barriers presented in Table 7.38 and 7.39. In brief, the overall discussion regarding the views of the local bodies on the structural barriers suggests that there are six basic barriers in this context. These are: 1- the lack of legal structure, 2- the lack of financial resources, 3- the lack of qualified human resources and expertise in tourism planning, 4- the lack of will at central level, 5- inadequate knowledge of the local people about tourism, and 6- monopoly and oligopoly development in the tourism industry.

One point seems to require further attention. Although the answers given to a question in the local bodies' questionnaire regarding tourism knowledge of the local people indicated that the local peoples' knowledge was at moderate level, the interviewees argued that the local people's and the small entrepreneurs in the tourism industry failed to recognise the international dimension of the tourism industry,

particularly changes in tourist demand. Additionally, a vast majority of the respondents (72.8 %) stated that the local people are not well informed and lack knowledge related to the TDP. Thus the central tendency among the respondents that the local people's knowledge of tourism is moderate should be treated with a caution. In general, it was implied that the local people did not know how to operate a competitive business in the tourism industry. Thus, as some interviewees stressed, most of the small scale tourists establishments had closed in the last 3-4 years.

Statistical figures related to the cultural barriers suggest that the local people have a difficulty in communicating with formal bodies. It is also revealed that there are low levels of interest in, and awareness of socio-cultural, economic and political issues including tourism development among the local people (see Table 7.40). The qualitative data gained via interviews with members of the local bodies supported the statistical figure regarding the cultural barriers.

As stated, the mayor claimed that the local people's lack of interest in local affairs. He stated that he invited 58 professional people including the mayor and some members of Larissa municipal council in Greece on 14 of October 1996 to Urgup and organised a conference in relation to this occasion, but there was not much interest from the local people. The low level of interests by the local people in the tourism course organised by the MT via Urgup Tourism Education Centre (TUREM) in may also mirror a dimension of the cultural barriers to community participation.

On the other hand, as the local governor stressed, the local people lack of knowledge of foreign languages, have held back the local people in presenting and marketing their product directly to the tourists. The language barrier may be one of the most important factors which has prevented the local people gaining wider opportunity and taking a more active role in the TDP in Urgup. Furthermore, as a member of the municipal council emphasised, the local people do not know the market value of their lands. Thus when they are offered a relatively good price for their lands, they do not think twice about selling their lands immediately. This fact also may give further information about cultural barriers. Additionally, he implied that the current socio-political and economic conditions, and the public administration system have increased the isolation of the indigenous local people from their affairs.

By taking into account the overall qualitative and quantitative data regarding the community knowledge of tourism, it may be stated that the local people's knowledge of tourism seems to be inadequate to take part effectively in the TDP.

Fifth, as can be understood from Table 7.41, the respondents stated their strong agreement with the four statements regarding strategies to promote participatory tourism development approach. The Mdn scores of these four variables are larger than 4, which means that central tendencies among the respondents are that they are in strong agreement with these statements. In other words, development of the local peoples' capabilities to participate in the TDP, education of the local people to take advantage of tourism development, dissemination of meaningful and comprehensible information contained in the reports and plans, and delegating some authorities of the central bodies to the local bodies have been supported by the respondents.

In general, the interview results regarding strategies to promote community participation are in line with the above arguments. But decentralisation has not been seen as a complete solution on its own. Additionally, solving the seasonality problem and increasing tourism demand for Urgup have been also suggested to encourage the local people to involve in the TDP.

### **Conclusive Statements Regarding Central Bodies' Views on Community Participation in the TDP**

Based upon the information gathered from the central bodies, several points can be made. First, the respondents from the central bodies supported the idea of the participatory development approach. Particularly, experts of the tourism sector in the SPO have some knowledge of contemporary tourism development approach. However, experts in MT were not familiar with the concept.

It should be kept in mind that the experts who were interviewed are not decision-makers. They are only advisors to the decision-makers for the tourism sector. They claimed decision-makers lack willingness to support community participation.

Second, the experts in the central bodies were aware of some of the barriers to community participation in the TDP. They argued that well-organised and economically powerful groups have directed the tourism development in many local tourist destinations. They implied the domination of the elite in the TDP. However, they stated that this is not specific to the tourism sector. Moreover, they claimed that the indigenous people's lack of financial resources in many tourist destinations, have ushered in domination by non-locals in the tourism development process.

Lack of an appropriate legal structure to support community participation in the TDP was also emphasised. They claimed that without activating a law which will order community participation, any efforts would be ineffective.

The lack of co-ordination, two-way communication and co-operation were stated as the main problems of the tourism development process in Turkey. They are termed as barriers at operational level in the context of this study. The respondents from the central bodies stated that since there is not a law and regulation to encourage these inter and intra relationships between and amongst private and public bodies, the traditionally powerful bureaucracy has dominated the legislative and operational process of a wide range of issues in the country. Moreover, there has emerged competition among public bodies to increase the traditional bureaucratic structure so as to increase their area of influence. Any approaches which are in conflict with the interests of the bureaucrats may not be acceptable. This traditional bureaucratic structure seems to be the main barriers at operational level to community participation in the TDP.

Third, the respondents from the central bodies suggested three main strategies to promote the participatory tourism development approach. These are: decentralisation of some of the central bodies power to the local bodies, activating a law to order community participation; and economic measurements including fiscal and financial incentives which will be given particularly to the members of the local communities in local tourist destinations.

As discussed, these strategies seem to be very difficult to implement under the current socio-economic and public administration system. Even activating new laws and regulations may not be a solution without gaining the support of the various interests groups.

### **Conclusive Statements about Private Sector Representatives' Views on Community Participation in the TDP**

Based upon the discussion regarding the views of private sector representatives on community participation in the TDP, several points can be made.

First, the representatives of the private sector have no tendency to support community participation in the TDP. Indeed, they are against it. Second, the lack of financial resources was also stressed by the private sector representatives. In brief, they claimed that the current scale of tourism development in Urgup is beyond the financial resources of the local people. They claimed that non-local investment and efforts ushered in the current tourism development in Urgup.

The private sector representatives contended that there are not enough people equipped with sufficient skills and qualification to work in the tourism industry. Moreover they claimed that the local people who operate small hotel and restaurants failed to understand the change in conditions of international tourism . They argued that the local people still believe that individual tourists will come and stay in their hotels without any marketing efforts or getting in touch with tour operators.

They also stated that there are not any particular things to increase the role of the local people in the tourism industry.

### **Conclusive Statements about the Local Community's Views on Community Participation in the TDP**

Based upon the discussion regarding the views of the local community on community participation in the TDP, several points can be made.

First, as discussed previously, based upon the overall answers given to the variables regarding the willingness of the local people to participate in the TDP, it can be said that there is a strong willingness to participate in the TDP and considerable interest in tourism related issues (see Table 7.42- 7.45 in App. - 1).

Second, the ranking of the M of the related variables indicates that the most popular form of expected nature of community participation by the respondents from the local community is 'community consultation'(induced or top-down participation),

rather than 'community participation' (authentic participation or co-production) at a decisive level. (see Table 7. 46). However, 62.6 % of the respondents reported that a referendum at the local level is a suitable means to participate in the TDP and a vast majority of them (88.6 %) wanted the local people to be encouraged to invest in and work for the tourism industry. Moreover, 85.7 % of the respondents stated that the local people should have a voice in the decision making process of tourism development (see Table 7. 48). In other words, Table 7.47 and 7.48 suggest that the respondents from the local people want to have a voice in the decision making process at a decisive rather than at a consultation level.

Based upon the overall statistical figures regarding the local community survey, it is not possible to suggest whether community consultation or community participation as citizen power is more popularly supported. But it is obvious that the respondents wanted to take part in the tourism development process.

Additionally, the figures regarding the willingness of the local people to participate in the TDP and the expected nature of the community participation by the respondents imply that the local people wanted to acquire more economic benefits from tourism development. Thus they expected to take part in the TDP as entrepreneurs and employees to increase their economic benefits from the local tourism development. The question of how this will be achieved may be a challenge for the local people and formal bodies, which may stimulate further research.

Third, the lack of adequate information made available to the local people on tourism and the need for training local people to take part in the TDP were reported. Additionally, it was stated that direct communication of formal bodies with the local people will encourage them to express their opinions (see Table 7. 50).

### **Objective Three: Investigating the Local Community's Expectation from, Views on and Knowledge of Tourism Development**

The objective three has three main sections. The first is to scrutinise expectations of the local community from tourism development. The second is to



examine views of the local community on tourism development in general. The third is to investigate the local community is knowledge of tourism.

### **Expectations of the Local Community from Tourism Development**

In order to examine expectations of the local community from tourism development six statements, and local respondents were asked to choose among these statements as to their expectations from local tourism development. A summary of the results of these statements are given in Table 7. 51 in App.-10. As can be seen from the table, a vast majority of the respondents (88.6 %) stated that tourism should create jobs, particularly for the local people. The second most popular (70.5 %) statement was 'Small scale locally owned tourism establishments should be supported'. The statement 'A community development tax should be taken from business in the tourism industry' was the third choice of the respondents (68. 8%). A majority of the respondents (67.1 %) stated that the type of tourism development should be compatible with local values while 51. 5 % of the respondents felt that tourists should be informed of local values. Only 20.7 % of the respondents stated that tourism development should take place out of the local settlement while 54.1 % reported that tourism development should create opportunities particularly for the *local people* to invest in the tourism industry.

It should be noted that the chi-square test for goodness of fit shows that the distribution scores of those variables regarding the statements 'Tourist should be informed of local values' and 'Tourism development should create opportunity particularly for the local people to invest in the tourism industry are not representative of the related population. The test result for former is  $\chi^2 (1, n = 237) = .2068, p = .65$  and the test result for later is  $\chi^2 (1, n = 237) = 2.2321, p = .14$ . Thus, the statistical figures regarding these variables should not be generalised for all the population (the local community in Urgup).

In brief, based upon Table 7.51, it may be said that while the respondents expect that tourism development should provide economic benefits specially for the local people, they also expect the type of tourism development and behaviour of tourists should be compatible with their local values. Importantly, the respondents do

not want enclave type of tourism development by refusing the statement 'Tourism development should take place out of the local settlement'. In other words, the respondents do not want to isolate the local community from tourism development. This may be due to the fact that the local people want to get more economic benefits from tourism development.

### **Views of the Local Community on Tourism Development in General**

A vast majority of the respondents (78.9 %) stated that they were extremely dissatisfied (47.9 %) or dissatisfied (30.9 %) with the current tourism development while only 11 % of them stated that they were satisfied and 1.7 % extremely satisfied (see Table 7.55). The answers given to question 30 is in line with the above figure. 98.3 % of the respondents believed that government authorities do not do a good job and 94.5 % of respondents reported that tourism development lacks direction. Interestingly, 93.2 % of the respondents felt that the tourism development is not targeted at their needs while 97 % of them believed that the tourism development is pretty much for the benefit of a few big interests. Additionally, 97.9 % of the respondents did not believe that government made an honest effort to reconcile interests (see Table 7.52 in App.-10).

Furthermore, 49.4 % of the respondents stated that foreign tourists worsen the traditional values of their community while only 10.1 % believed that foreign tourists improve them. 24.9 % of the respondents reported that foreign tourists do not make any difference regarding the traditional values of their community while 15.6 % stayed in the middle. When the measurement of central tendency is examined it may be said that the popular opinion is that foreign tourists worsen the traditional values of their community (Mode = 5, Mdn = 4.4 and M= 4.3, see Table 7.54 in App.-10).

However, the vast majority of the respondents (82.3 %) reported that they would strongly encourage (41.8 %) or encourage (40.5 %) tourism development in Urgup (Table 7.53 in App.-10).

## **The Local Community Knowledge of Tourism**

Six questions (q19-24) were formulated in order to find out the level of community knowledge of tourism. Statistical figures regarding these statements are given below.

A vast majority of the respondents (91.9 %) reported that they did not know what kind of incentives are offered to the tourism sector (Table 7.57 in App.-10). More interestingly, a vast majority of the respondents (between 60.3 % and 98.3 %) failed to identify three official organisations which are responsible for deciding incentives to the tourism sector. 60.3 % of the respondents did not know that the MT is responsible for the incentives while 98.3 % of them did not know that the SPO and Development Bank are responsible public bodies for giving incentives to the tourism sector (see Table 7.58). The most well known issue was that their locality (Urgup) was considered as a tourism region by the MT (see Table 7.56 in App.-10).

Based upon Table 7.59, it may be said that still considerable numbers of the local people did not have the opportunity to experience a holiday as a stranger in other localities. Thus it may be difficult for them to understand expectations of tourists. This may be considered as a negative issue from a participatory tourism development point of view.

It was found that newspaper, special tourism newsletters, friends and relatives, public meeting, open public hearing and formal education at school were not utilised as sources of knowledge of tourism by the vast majority of the respondents (from 71.6 % to 89 %). The most popular source of information through which they gained their knowledge of tourism was the local radio and television (55.9 %, see Table 7.61 in App.-10). Although only 15 % of the respondents stated that they had worked for a tourism related business in the last few years, 45.3 % of the respondents reported that they gained their knowledge of tourism by personal experience. This contradiction may be due the fact that some of the respondents may have interpreted 'by personal experience' in a wider sense such as personal observation. In other words, since the respondents are residents of a tourist destination (Urgup), they may evaluate this as personal experience .

However, 62.3 % of the respondents reported that they strongly disagreed (18.6 %) and disagreed (43.6%) with the statement that ‘Some experts say that community does not have enough knowledge to explain opinions of tourism development’. Only 16.9 % of them stayed in the middle while the rest (20.7 %) agreed or strongly agreed with it (see Table 7.60).

To examine the relationships between some dependent and independent variables in relation to variables regarding objectives three and some other variables, a chi-square statistical measure and Cramer’s V statistic were performed. These are contained in Appendix - 14.

The next section will be an attempt to draw some conclusive statements based on overall discussion in relation to objective three.

### **Conclusive Statements of Objective Three**

Based upon the overall quantitative data, several points can be made regarding objective three.

First, as can be seen from Table 7.51, the expectations of the local people from tourism development are not only economic, but also socio-cultural. One point that should be emphasised is that the respondents from the local community do not want tourism development to take place out of the local settlement. In other words, it may be said that they do not want enclave tourism development.

Second, the respondents were not satisfied with the current tourism development. They implied that their needs have been ignored and tourism development is pretty much for the benefits of a few big interests. Moreover, they believed that government has not made an honest effort to reconcile interests (see Table 7.53 and 7. 52 in Appen.-1).

Third, although the central tendency among the respondents is that the foreign tourists worsen the traditional values of their community, a vast majority of the respondents supported further tourism development (see Table 7.54 and 7.53 in Appen.-1). Based upon the above statement, it may be argued that the local people are ready to accept some of the socio-cultural cost of the tourism development for sake of economic gains.

Fourth, although a majority of the respondents (62.3%) did not agree with the statement 'the local community does not have enough knowledge to explain opinions of tourism development', the statistical figures of other related variables suggest that the local people lack knowledge of tourism. For example, 91.9 % of the respondents did not know what kind of incentives were offered for the tourism sector (see Table 7.57) and between 60.3 % and 98.3 % failed to identify three official organisations responsible for giving incentives to the tourism sector (see Table 7.57 and 7.56).

The main aim of the this section was to achieve objective three. That is to analyse expectations of the local community from tourism development, to investigate the local peoples' knowledge of tourism and to examine views of the local community on tourism development in general. The overall arguments in this section confirm that these has been done. In this regard, objective three was achieved.

Further explanatory data analysis was made by utilising multivariate data analysis techniques such as factor analysis and multiple regression, which is contained in Appendix - 15.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter made a situation analysis regarding local community participation in TDP. On the basis of this present state of analysis, the next section brings out critical issues or problem areas for discussion.

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## CHAPTER - 8

### PROBLEM AREAS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### **Introduction**

This chapter will summarise the research findings and attempt to examine problems which have emerged due to the structure of Turkey as a developing country and also the structure of the international tourism industry. Then, it will recommend some policy suggestions for these problem areas.

#### **Problem Areas as a Summary of the Research Findings**

In the light of the literature review, the qualitative and quantitative data analysed in chapter seven, and the personal knowledge of the researcher in regard to the field study area and Turkey, the following issues may be indicated as the problem areas related to community participation in the TDP.

- Local, central bodies, and the local community lack experience in participatory development.
- Lack of potential for a participatory development approach.
- Operational, structural and cultural barriers to community participation.
- Attitudes of the interests groups towards participatory tourism development.
- Structure of Turkey as a developing country from participatory development point of view:

Political instability as a barrier to participatory development;

National economic priorities versus participatory tourism development;

Policies for planning tourism development are inconsistent.

- Structure of the international tourism industry as a barrier to participatory development approach.

Although some of these problems were discussed in the data analysis chapter (chapter seven), it may be useful to give a brief account of them here again. It should be kept in mind that some of the problems cannot be overcome in the short-

term or mid- term due to some interrelated, structural, historical, socio-cultural, economic and political problems of Turkey as a developing country.

**Lack of participatory experience:** The overall research results suggest that the interests groups of the local tourism industry do not have experience in participatory development strategy (see Table 7.7 and 7. 14). For example, the participatory development approach was not applied to any development project including tourism, in the history of Urgup. It should be noted also that the central authorities such as MT and SPO do not have experience in the participatory development approach.

**Lack of potential for community participation:** Lack of interest among local people in their affairs, demographic characteristic of the local community such as low levels of education and income; negative attitudes of the private sector representatives, and key persons in the local bodies, and politicians at central level towards participatory development; and various other barriers imply that there is not much potential for a participatory tourism development approach in Urgup.

**Barriers to community participation in the TDP:** As argued in chapters seven and three, for theoretical reasons barriers to community participation in the TDP have been examined under three main headings; barriers at operational level, structural barriers and cultural barriers. The overall research results indicate that these barriers exist, to some extent, in the field study area. A brief account of the barriers to community participation in Urgup will be given below.

**1- Barriers at operational level:** The overall research results suggest that there are three barriers at operational level to community participation. These are:

- Lack of co-ordination, co-operation and communication between and among the related interest groups regarding tourism development.
- The local people are not well-informed and thus lack information relevant to tourism development issues (see Table 7.50).
- Ignorance of the local conditions under which tourism development has taken place, which seems to be a result of the highly centralised decision-making process for tourism development in Turkey.



**2- Structural barriers to community participation:** The analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data reveal that there are some structural barriers to community participation in Urgup, which are:

- Lack of financial resources.
- Lack of a legal structure which will encourage community participation in the TDP by securing local people's participatory rights.
- Lack of qualified human resources to work for and invest in the tourism sector.
- Lack of expertise to prepare tourism development programmes and to organise community participation.
- Inadequate knowledge of the local people about tourism development issues.
- Emergence of competition among public bodies to intensify the traditional bureaucratic structure so as to increase their area of influence.
- Domination of well-organised and economically powerful groups in the tourism sector in Urgup.

**3- Cultural barriers to community participation:** It has been found that there are cultural barriers for the local people to take part in the TDP. These are listed below:

- The local people have difficulty in communicating with formal bodies.
- There are low levels of interest in, and awareness of socio-cultural, economic and political issues including tourism development among the local people.
- Lack of knowledge of foreign languages which seems to be essential to work in the tourism sector or operate a business in the tourism industry.
- Non-acceptance of the jobs in the tourism industry by the local people as a career path for cultural and other reasons.

The noted barriers to a participatory tourism development approach are not mutually exclusive, but for a better understanding they were classified under the three main headings.

**Attitudes of the interest groups towards participatory tourism development approach:** The research results suggest that the local bodies have a tendency to support community consultation in relation to tourism development while they strongly oppose a laissez-fair approach. Moreover the local bodies are also

against centralisation of decision making power regarding tourism development and do not have any tendency to support community participation as community power. Additionally, the qualitative data indicates that some of the key persons in local bodies are against the idea of any form of community participation in the TDP including community consultation.

While appointed experts in the central authorities explained their willingness to support community consultation, they implied that the politicians involved with tourism development do not have any tendency to support community participation. However, in the last FYDP it was stated that 'Arrangements shall be made to ensure public participation and supervision in decision making and implementation procedures of local administration' (SPO, 1994: 144). At this point, it should be kept in mind that the development plan in Turkey is prepared by SPO whose staff are appointed rather than elected. That is to say, government may not implement what has been suggested in the FYDP which has been prepared under the previous government. In brief, in the light of special personal knowledge of the researcher, in addition to the quantitative and qualitative data analysis, it may be said that community participation is not an issue which will be easily accepted by politicians in Turkey.

The representatives of the private sector have explicitly indicated their strong opposition to a participatory tourism development approach.

The local community has a strong willingness to participate in the TDP (Table 7.42-7.45). However, it seems not obvious whether community consultation or community participation as a community power is more popularly supported by the local people. By bearing in mind the socio-demographic features of the local community, the researcher tentatively may state that the willingness of the local people to take part in the TDP should be understood as willingness for community consultation. It is likely that the local people do not understand the meaning of community participation.

Based upon the overall research findings Table 8.1 indicates attitudes of interests groups towards participatory tourism development.

**Table 8.1 Attitudes of interest group towards participatory development approach**

Interest Groups	Participation as Community Consultation	Participation as community power	Non-participation
Local bodies	** ?	*	*
Private sector rep.	*	*	***
Central bodies	** -	*	**
Local people	***	**	*

Keys: \* = No support, \*\* = willingness to support, \*\*\* = strong willingness to support, ? = key persons in local bodies oppose to, - = politicians (decision-makers) oppose to any form of community participation in the TDP.

**Structure of Turkey as a developing country from a participatory development viewpoint:** Apart from the above findings, social, political and economic features of Turkey as a developing or newly industrialising country should be examined and taken into account before attempting to develop policy suggestions for the relevant problem areas. Thus, it seems necessary to examine here some of the related issues.

Although there may be various elements which may have impacts on the formulation of participatory tourism development approach in a developing country such as Turkey, only three main issues will be considered here. These are political instability, inconsistency of tourism planning policies and national economic priorities.

**1- Political instability:** As in many developing countries Turkey is a politically unstable country. In a 74 years history of the Republic of Turkey, she has experienced 3 hard military coupes. In addition to these military interventions, since the last democratic general election in 1996, the first 'ill-matched minority coalition disintegrated after only three months in power' (The Economist, 1996: 3), the second coalition has lasted for less than one year and now a third ill-matched coalition is struggling in power. According to the Turkish media, the third coalition will not last long, either.

The political instability seems to be a threat to a participatory tourism development approach. There may be several consequences of the chronic political instability from a participatory development point of view. These may be presented as follows:

- Emergence of strong civil organisations may have been prevented or postponed. Moreover, the civilian governments failed to solve the socio-economic problems and political conflicts in the past, which seemed to be the main reason for the military interventions. The inability of past civilian governments to find solutions for the above problems has lost confidence in civilian governments, which had wider consequences in terms of a pluralistic development approach.
- The political instability has caused a considerable authority gap. As it is stated, 'Turkey has a strong state with an effective bureaucracy ... But ... most recent Turkish governments have been weak' (The Economist, 1996: 3). Hence, many opportunist elites or candidates of new elites have used this authority gap as a chance to increase their interests at the long term expenses of the poorer people who constitute the vast majority of the society. The main consequences of the political instability in this context may be that it has widened the gap among income groups in the country, and thus the poor have found themselves in more disadvantaged positions. That is to say, the chronic political instability and social unrest in the country has made the society lose its interest in and not struggle for their affairs.
- Since elections have been the most important agenda for politicians, other important essential issues for further development including the participatory development approach have not been on the agenda item of the interest groups.
- The political instability has accelerated the inequality and get-rich quick mentality in the society (see Sezer and Harrison, 1994), and the governments have failed to provide and protect equal opportunity right of access to public services such as education, hospital, public funds, etc., which have deteriorated the quality of life of the vast majority of people in the country, but increased the welfare of the minority elites. The implication is that it has become very difficult for poor people to get the opportunity of higher education at good universities, which seems to be a pre-condition to become a bureaucrat or employee with a satisfactory income. If the majority of the people in a community are not free from the three evils of want, ignorance and squalor, implementation of a participatory development approach may be very difficult.

- The high turnover of governments caused decreasing efficiency and effectiveness in the public administration system. A new government means a total change of staff in the highest ranks of the public bureaucracy, whose implication may be that inexperienced politicians are partners with inexperienced bureaucrats. In brief, the end results are that every government has started building the country from the beginning rather than continuing where it has been left. Hence, Turkey has not achieved a higher level of development which she could have. As Dieke (1989: 13) argued, 'Tourism in a developing country will be determined by that country's level or pattern stage of development ... Just as countries are at various levels of development, so too in tourism many countries are at different stages of development'. The implication for Turkey may be that since Turkey did not *achieve a higher* level of national development, she could not have implemented more advanced and sophisticated contemporary tourism development approaches such as community-based or community participation.

In brief, under present political conditions it seems to be very difficult to put a participatory tourism development approach on the agenda of the government, if not impossible. That is to say, '... political and bureaucratic constraints make the pursuit of a coherent participatory policy by government virtually impossible' (Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994: 213). Moreover, even if it is brought to the attention of politicians, it is unlikely to be accepted and supported as a legal right unless enough external pressures are put on them.

**2- National economic priorities and the participatory development approach:** Implementing a participatory tourism development approach may be in conflict with economic priorities and the political economy of the country. For example, a participatory development approach may require small scale tourism development and creating leisure facilities for host communities in local tourist destinations, whereas government is supporting large scale tourism development and avoiding spending money for establishing leisure facilities for poor people. A participatory development approach puts the local people first, which may contradict with priorities and interests of the central government and the private sector.

Moreover, the political economy of the country may not allow the government to implement an alternative forms of tourism development strategy. For example,

when the balance of payments and external debt of Turkey are examined, there is a clear picture that Turkey badly needs foreign currency earning in the short and long term. Thus, Turkey seems to be ready to earn foreign currency at some social-cultural, political and economic costs.

In the balance of payment the current account deficit increased from 0.6 percent of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) in 1992 to 3.9 percent of GDP in 1993. In 1993, the current account deficit of US\$6.4 billion and debt repayment of US\$4.4 billion were largely financed by foreign borrowing. For 1994, foreign debt service was some US\$9.5 billion. The downgrading of Turkey's sovereign credit-rating in January 1994 limited new foreign borrowing to US\$721 million. The immediate mechanical effect of the depreciation of the Turkish Lira (TL) was to raise the foreign debt burden. Consequently, the increase in the debt service ratio raised concerns about Turkey's ability to meet its external commitments without debt rescheduling. Further, the dominant feature of the labour market in Turkey is rapid growth of the working-age population and the large proportion of lower-age groups- implying that strong job creation is needed merely to hold the unemployment rate steady (OECD, 1995). Worker remittances have an important contribution to the balance of payment of the country, but the second generation of Turkish workers abroad have a tendency not to spend or invest their money in Turkey. When this tendency is taken into account, tourism seems to be one of the few main alternatives sources of foreign currency earning (Tosun, 1996).

As a developing country Turkey does not have many alternatives to earn foreign currency and create jobs particularly in the short term. Thus, Turkey seems to have supported the form of tourism which will earn more foreign currency and create more jobs opportunities in the short term without considering whether it will be at the expense of widening the gap between poor and rich or not. In other words, the opportunity to derive foreign exchange from tourism export and employment created by tourism are opportunities not easily ignored (Jenkins, 1982). Thus, if earnings of foreign exchange and jobs creations are national priorities, then these will predominate over secondary objectives and other wider issues such as developing tourism by utilising a participatory development approach which may raise questions about the pattern of distribution of the benefits of the current tourism development,

socio-cultural, economic and political impacts of the tourism development in many local tourist destinations in the country.

**3- Policies of planning for tourism development are inconsistent:** It may be that the most common problem of Turkey is not to have a sustainable planning policy for its development. Every government, minister and even general directors change their personnel in their departments when they are appointed to a new post. This situation is more severe at the Ministry of Tourism since it is a relatively new organisation at cabinet level. Ministry of Tourism (1993c) reported that between 1963 and 1993 23 ministers were appointed to this position. Average span of duty of every Minister of Tourism was one year and three months which was too short to achieve something particularly at national level. Sezer and Harrison (1994:82) stated that 'the historical position of the Turkish state with respect to tourism has been fairly inconsistent', which may be ushered in by appointment of too many ministers in a very short time. The recent severe political instability even further decreased the average span of duty at MT.

As is widely known, high rates of personnel turnover increases the cost of production. As Ozkan 's (1992) research indicated that most of the Ministers of Tourism had backgrounds unrelated to tourism. When they were appointed, they did not know how to operate the sector. Since they replaced the civil servants at their Ministry when they took the position, they commenced learning how to manage tourism from their unskilled and unqualified employees. Brotherton et al (1994) pointed out that the change in government gave birth to something of a political hiatus and re-ordering of priorities, change in policies and personnel. These unstable policies have caused uncertainty.

As will be emphasised in the next sections, community involvement in the TDP require a process approach which may be very difficult, if not impossible, to achieve under this given climate of uncertainty.

**Structure of the international tourism system as a threat to a participatory tourism development approach:** The structure of the international tourism in developing countries is characterised by domination of Transnational Tourism Corporations (TTCs) from relatively advanced wealthy industrialised countries (Britton, 1982, Ascher, 1985, WTO, 1985, Dieke, 1988 and Jenkins, 1994).

It is argued that relatively wealthy advanced industrialised countries generate tourism demand for most developing countries, and the large foreign firms from these generating countries dominate the flow patterns (Jenkins, 1994). Particularly in the absence of unique attraction, tourist demand is largely externally determined (Jenkins, 1980). That is to say, significant decisions as to which destination regions are to be favoured with tourism developments are frequently exercised by travel intermediaries based, not in destination regions, but in the tourist generating countries. 'Given such external control over the fortunes of the tourism industry in destination regions it must be concluded that tourism is too fragile and unpredictable an industry on which to base total economic development of destination regions' (Hall, 1994: 119 quoting Goodall, 1987: 72).

In this context, Britton (1982) studied the international tourism system by likening it to a three-tiered hierarchy. According to Britton, at the first level are the multinational tourism corporations, located in the tourism generating countries, which dominate the industry in its three most important sectors such as hotel chains, airlines and tour operators. It is not surprising that these TTCs are part of large industrial or financial oligopolies in developed countries. The middle level consists of the representatives and corporate subsidiaries of large tourism firms from the generating countries, which are operating in conjunction with domestic tourism firms which represent local elites in many local tourist destinations of developing countries. At the lowest level are the petty local artisans, retail tourist sector and in some developing countries, National Tourism Organisations.

The above discussion may reflect that the level of dependency seems to have accelerated as a result of the tour operators overwhelming bargaining power, as a function of the image makers, and interpreters and co-ordinators of tourism demand in conjunction with the weakness of developing countries in the international tourism system. In the following, dependencies of Turkish tourism and the tourism industry in Urgup will be related to a participatory tourism development approach.

Dependency is defined as 'the subordination of national economic autonomy to meet the interests of foreign pressure groups and privileged local classes rather than those development priorities arising from a broader political consensus' (Britton, 1982: 334). Tourism development in Turkey and in the field study area mirror, to



some extent, the definition of the dependency. Kusluvan (1994:196) stated that 'a few oligopolistic large tour operators, integrated with airlines and/or travel agents, have very significant roles in making Turkey's tourism image, and directing inclusive tours for mass beach holidays to Turkey'. It is also noted that investment in promoting Turkey as a tourist destination has had a very minor impact on international tourist flows to Turkey (Uysal and Crompton, 1984). Ozturk's (1996:278) finding is in line with this view. He reported that 'it is rather difficult to claim that the popularity of Turkey as a tourist destination is not the result of conscious and well planned marketing and promotional efforts of the MT and other related organisations'.

The current pattern of international tourism demand for Turkey supports the above statements regarding dependency of Turkish tourism on foreign tour operators. As EIU (1993: 82) reported, 'over 55 % of all visitors to Turkey travel on all inclusive tour packages tour and 15 % on a part organised basis and 85 % of all charter passenger arrivals travelled by using the companies which are owned and operated by foreigners'. Although Turkey has tried to alter the tourist profile in favour of high-spenders, average expenditure per head basis has been around US\$560 each year, which may reveal the increasing bargaining power of foreign tour operators. Moreover, market dependency is also another result of the dominance of the foreign tour operators. As statistical data showed, western Europe is the major regional market for Turkey. Two out of every three visitors are from this regional market.

As a result, it may be said that the dominance of foreign tour operators and thus market dependency of Turkish tourism may reveal that success of Turkish tourism in future is in the hands of limited number of foreign tour operators. Foreign tour operators have directed the tourism market to Turkey as they desired. In the end, the effort of Turkish authorities in promoting tourism in overseas countries may become neutral or ineffective (Tosun, 1996). In this context, what Tosun and Jenkins (1997) said is valid for Turkish tourism; in the developing countries tourism is an industry developed and run by foreigners for foreigners.

Based upon the above figures and argument, several conclusion can be drawn in terms of this study.

1- For Turkey as a developing country, the implication is that the type, direction, volume and impact of international tourism it develops is determined by external factors outside her control. That is to say, the Turkish's governments' role is to develop ad hoc strategies for tourism to cope with the high bargaining power of international tour operators and adjust policies to the changes caused by the external factors. As Tosun (1997) argues, it is very difficult for Turkey to develop a pro-active planning approach by which to decrease or eradicate the influences of the external actors on the tourism development due to the nature of the international tourism system. Under these conditions, it may be very difficult for Turkey to develop and implement participatory tourism development approach without the co-operation of those external actors.

2- As Cohen (1972: 171) stated 'a tourist infrastructure of facilities based on Western standards has to be created even in the poorest host countries. This tourist infrastructure provides the mass tourist with the protective ecological bubble of his accustomed environment'. This requirement of the international mass tourism demand for developing country including Turkey seems to be in conflict with priorities of the local community in Urgup. While the local people have difficulty in satisfying their basic needs such as having a proper house, accessing education and health facilities, it may be very difficult for the local people to accept the allocation of their scarce resources to provide facilities based on Western standards for tourists, from which there are only alleged benefits for them.

3- The private sector in the tourism industry may not support, as is the case in Urgup, a participatory tourism development approach if the approach conflicts with the interests of foreign tour operators. The reason is obvious. It is not easy for them to make contact with their potential customer since most of them do not have large financial resources for marketing. As is argued,

The final sale of tourism products in several developing countries is currently being handled primarily by international tour operators who contract hotel rooms from domestic hotel and resort owners in advance of the tourist high season. Hotel owners do not have the resources to invest in international advertisement campaigns and depend on tour operators for the sale of rooms in the international markets (Diaz, 1995: 31)

Thus, it may be concluded from the above argument that without the support of the private sector in the tourism industry in Uygur and main tour operators who sell Turkey as a tourist destination, participatory tourism development will not be implemented under the current market conditions.

4- Even if Turkey wants to implement a community responsive or community based tourism development, she cannot achieve it without the co-operation of the international tour operators. It seems to be very difficult, if not impossible, for Turkey to change her image created by external factors as a cheap beach holiday destination in the international tourism market (EIU, 1993). Obviously, there seems to be no persuasive reasons for foreign tour operators to collaborate with Turkish authorities to implement a community based tourism development approach, at least at the moment. On the other hand, community based tourism development may conflict with the principal function of the tour operators as agencies to influence their customers by creating images of destinations (McLellan and Foushee, 1983) and thus to shape their expectations (sea, sun, sand, sex, servility). These images may be inconsistent with reality (Ascher, 1985) to maximise their interests by matching acceptable destinations with and even by manipulating and directing tourist demand.

That is to say, 'the overseas interests are the determining factor in the creation of both the demand and supply of the tourist product. The absence of a substantial domestic tourism market, as in many developing countries, has clearly increased dependency on foreign tour operators interests to keep the industry going' (Hall, 1994: 127). Hence, creating a new image via community participation in the TDP seems to be very difficult, if not impossible, under the current market conditions.

5- The present target markets of Turkish tourism are highly price elastic and there is strong competition from the major players-Spain, Italy, Portugal and Greece. Since there is a relatively greater distance between the target markets and Turkey when compared with major competitors, it is more difficult to get a higher share from these market even in the long term. Thus if Turkey put the local communities' needs first via participatory development approach, it may imply that tourists' needs are subsidiary and thus tourists move on to other alternative locations.

Under the current market conditions if she wants to save her current share of international mass tourism market demand Turkey must accept tourists' needs as the first priority and focus on satisfying them which contradicts a community-based tourism development approach.

In conclusion, it may be said that the development of international tourism, in many developing countries, is based on the interaction of foreign and local elites in pursuit of their own interests and mutual benefits as it is case in Urgup (Hall, 1994: 126 quoting Britton, 1983). There seems to be not enough strong alternative power to defend the interests of the local communities against the oligopolistic power of the foreign firms and the local elites in Urgup. In other words, 'the present travel system is too committed to itself, functionally, and too specialised as an institution to be able to reverse its *raison d'être*. It will continue to operate until drastic changes in traveller behaviour and preferences, or among other elements in the system, occur' (Hall, 1994: 149 quoting Lundgren, 1973: 14). Hence, without collaboration of the tour operators from tourists generating countries and local elites in destination countries, it will be very difficult for many developing countries to implement a participatory tourism development approach which may conflict with the interests of the tour operators.

The noted problems suggest that although a participatory tourism development approach is desirable, it is not practical under current social, political and economic conditions prevailing in the field study area and Turkey. However, doctoral studies, particularly in social science, also involves philosophical work aiming at developing models that guide relevant future development and may be implemented after meeting certain pre-conditions. Thus, this study also has attempted to develop a model for a participatory tourism development approach that may be implemented in future in the field study area or similar local tourist destinations in Turkey when the pre-requisites of community participation are met and the noted obstacles are removed. The model is attached as an appendix since it is not a main objective of this study to develop such a model (see app.16).

## Recommendations for the Problem Areas

‘Winston Churchill is reputed to have said that the Soviet Union was a riddle wrapped in a mystery inside an enigma. This comment could well be applied to community participation in planning inside tourism’ (Pearce et al, 1996: 181). The puzzle-like qualities of community participation in the TDP should require some specific strategies and/or pre-requisites for every specific local tourist destination which has its own political, social, cultural and economic history.

The foregoing literature which has built on decades of theoretical and practical work with community participation in a wide range of applications suggests that there are pre-requisites for the success of community participation in any sector of the economy. For example, according to Smith (1984: 254), there are four main factors which are essential to the conduct of community participation: ‘1- the legal right and opportunity to participate; 2- access to information; 3- resource provision; and 4- representativeness of participants’. Crosby et al (1986) has proposed six criteria for a successful community participation method: 1) the participants should be representative of the broader public and should be selected in a way that is not open to manipulation; 2) the proceedings should promote effective decision making; 3) the proceedings should be fair; 4) the process should be cost effective; 5) the process should be flexible; and 6) the likelihood that the recommendations of the group will be followed should be high.

As the authors themselves confirmed, these criteria contain many normative statements. Therefore they cannot be easily justified and their justifications goes beyond the confines of this study. However, the authors (Crosby et al, 1986) claim that the criteria suggested are sufficiently close to common procedures in the courts and legislatures that they will not strike most readers as controversial.

Green and Isely (1988) have argued that **leadership, positive previous experience in development, and the strength of local organisation** are among the more important factors contributing to successful participatory development projects (quoting UN, 1975, Isely and Hafner, 1983, Esman and Uphoff, 1982, and Green, 1984). Law-Yone (1982), Gow and Vansant (1983), Churchman, 1987), Smith

(1987), Moser (1989) and so on have also suggested similar pre-requisites for the success of the community involvement in development projects.

It seems that the suggested strategies or pre-requisites of community participation in the development process require radical changes to existing bureaucratic structures and planning procedures in order for such recommended strategies to be implemented. Therefore, some of these requirements cannot be met at all by many local tourist destinations in developing countries including Urgup.

It is suggested that pre-requisites of and strategies for community involvement are largely determined by economic, social, cultural and the political history of the beneficiary community and peculiarities of a sector in a given economy. Moreover, to view participation as a means or end itself may be an important factor for determining the pre-requisites of and strategies for community participation. Hence, there seems little point in re-producing here a further list of strategies or pre-requisites of community participation by quoting other scholars. That is to say; the author shall limit himself to recommending policy suggestions as broad guidance for possible operationalisation of the community participation in the TDP.

**Opportunity to participate should be legalised:** Local bodies and local communities should be given legal right to take part in their affairs. Without this legal right participatory development approach seems to be improbable. But it should be kept in mind that giving a legal right to the local bodies and the local community to participate in their affairs may not be enough for the success of the participatory development approach. That is to say; for the success of the participatory development approach, additional administrative, fiscal and financial policies, and educational strategies may be necessary.

**Decentralisation:** Decentralisation as a strategy for promoting community participation has already discussed in chapters three and seven in this study. A cautionary approach is needed while considering decentralisation as a strategy for promoting participatory tourism development approach. In this regard, the following points may be made. At the early stage of the participatory development approach, decentralisation should take place in the form of ‘administrative decentralisation’ rather than ‘political decentralisation’. Under the present prevailing conditions, political decentralisation seems to be unacceptable and undesirable by the present

power holders who may see it as a threat to their long term interests. Thus, insisting on political decentralisation may jeopardise emergence of participatory development initiatives in Turkey.

Administrative decentralisation can be seen in different forms, but general practice is the delegation of authority to levels of the central administrative hierarchy which may be based locally but controlled by central government (Haper, 1987). Administrative decentralisation has already taken place to some extent in Turkey. What may be needed at this stage is a gradual increase in responsibility and authority of the local government to have more decisive voice in their affairs.

**Establishing non-governmental organisations (NGOs):** Community-based NGOs should be established to stimulate the local people to involve in their affairs and defend the local people's interests. As Stiefel and Wolfe (1994: 205) stated 'NGOs have rapidly gained in importance and numbers throughout the developing world and are becoming respectable partners in the eyes of governments, international organisation and development assistance agencies'

Practical evidence suggests that NGOs have generally performed better than government agencies since they are usually less encumbered by bureaucratic rules and are thus more flexible, have a low-cost management style, their staff work often on a voluntary basis and is more motivated than lower level government staff, and they are more open to participatory development approaches. In this regard, many development theorists seem to agree on the ineffectiveness of the state and the need for institutional alternatives. For a participatory tourism development approach NGOs may be ideal vehicles, agents and key actors in strategies to empower the poor and excluded. It is thus hardly surprising that even the World Bank has begun systematically to increase NGO involvement in the operations it supports, particularly in projects where beneficiary participation and grassroots organisations are considered important factors to ensure efficiency and sustainability of operations (Stiefel and Wolfe, 1994).

**The state and participatory development approach:** The state and its agents should be accepted as key actors in the participatory development process. It should help the excluded achieve gradually more control over their own affairs and future. That is to say, the state should take the role of creating an enabling

environment for community involvement in the TDP by using various instruments. The state through its agents should openly explain its own support for community involvement in the TDP. Without the state's explicit support for community involvement program regarding tourism development, it may be very difficult to persuade the local people to participate in the community consultation process since such action seem to be against the state's policies.

**Training and education:** Training as a strategy for promoting community participation was discussed in chapters three and seven . It seem to be sufficient here to state that training programs should be developed by taking in to account the local socio-cultural and economic conditions. Training program should be tailored to the local needs rather than tailoring the local needs to the pre-designed training programme.

The field research showed that the local people do not have much interest in the education or training programs of the Tourism Education Centre in Urgup. The reasons behind this lack of interest in the tourism training program should be researched and necessary measures should be taken to encourage the local people to take part. One of the policies in this regard may be to increase the possibility of employment in satisfactory jobs in the tourism industry for the local trainee who attend the tourism training program.

**Strengthening communication systems:** The importance of two-way communications and providing understandable information for promoting community participation have already been argued in chapters three and seven. As the research results suggest, there is a need for establishing a two-way communication system between local and central bodies, and local communities to achieve effective community involvement. As popularly accepted, knowledge is power and the source of knowledge is information.

**Avoiding raising exaggerated expectations:** A commonly cited fear is that consulting with the intended beneficiaries about their problems and possible solutions will raise exaggerated expectations of what will be done for them (Uphoff, 1985). Hence, raising unattainable expectations should be avoided.

**To the extent possible existing organisations should be given roles to play in the community involvement process:** As Cernea (1985b) argued, although these



will, of course, vary according to local patterns of social organisation, but in general it seems to be desirable to use existing organisations. If existing organisations are insufficient or inadequate for the purpose, careful analysis should lead to the design of facilitating organisations congruent with local culture

**The existing conflicts among interests group should be taken into account:** As the research results have suggested there are conflicts among interests groups in Urgup regarding tourism development. The local people have been isolated from the tourism development process. They have been put in a situation that they have to live with whatever the problems and burdens of the tourism development are without gaining much benefit.

Within a probable community involvement process, most likely the local people will emphasise these problems and will insist on gaining more benefits from tourism development, which may not be accepted by the existing power holders in the tourism industry. Consequently, existing conflicts will be on the agenda and will take the attention of interest groups. It is crucial not to avoid dealing with these conflicts. Adequate efforts should be made to persuade the private sector to take into account the local conditions and contribute to local development in various ways such as employing more people from the local community, contributing financially to the local welfare development efforts, etc.

**Resource provision:** There must be an explicit and adequate financial commitment to the community involvement in the TDP. In this regard, 'Goodwill is not enough' (Cernea, 1985: 357). As the research results indicated, lack of financial resources at the local level is one of the most important structural barriers to the local community involvement in the TDP.

**Decreasing dependencies of tourism development upon external factors:** Although it is easy to suggest that Turkey should have more voice in and influence on the type, structure and direction of the tourism development that has already taken place in her territories, it seems to be very difficult, if not impossible, to achieve this under the current conditions of the international tourism system. However, the following may be recommended as policies in this regard, at least at the normative level. First, Turkey may collaborate with major tour operators to promote alternative forms of tourism development in the country. In this regard, Turkey should share

related promotion expenses of the tour operators. Second, Turkish authorities should give valuable information and data gathered via extensive research to the international image makers including international tour operators. Turkish authorities should find a way to promote Turkey as a safe, Westernized country in the sense of facilities needed by travelers, but still remains as authentic and intact in terms of cultural, natural and historical resources. Moreover, lobbying activities should be performed at international political, cultural and social platforms, which may promote Turkey's image in a better way. Through this strategy the pattern of international tourism demand for Turkey may change towards more culture base tourism in the long term, which may contribute to create an enabling environment for emergence and operationalisation of alternative forms of tourism development approach such as community participation.

**Flexibility:** 'Participatory capacity cannot be built like a road or dam; it must be developed. Rigid schedules are inappropriate and can lead to initiatives or pressures that impede long-term progress' (Uphoff, 1985: 378). Hence, flexibility is an essential ingredient of any form of participatory development approach; it is part of the requirement of realism in the context of the participatory development approach.

Participatory development requires a process approach rather than once-over rigid development efforts. It should be kept in mind that the host community in the local tourist destination and other various actors in participatory development approach are social entities who have wider political, cultural, physiological dimensions. Carelessness and rigidity may lead these social entities to create complicated problems for the development efforts in the long-term. In fact, flexibility is required to keep the balance among the interest groups or the actors.

**Public bodies should become more accessible to the local people:** The formal bodies should make the local people feel that the state authorities are willing to give information and advise to them. In other words, the states bodies should show that they are for the people and they are equally accessible to everybody whether poor, rich, educated or uneducated.

**Basic needs of the local community must be satisfied before tourism development takes place:** The field research showed that the local community does not have enough education and skills to create its own alternatives and it lives on the

margin of subsistence. Most of the community members, who do not have an expanded range of choices, seem to have dogmatic beliefs and can be ignored by the organised interest groups. Thus, as Thirlwall (1989) and Todaro (1989) argued, it is hard to say that such a community is free. And participation of the community which is imprisoned by its basic needs may not provide reasonable public inputs for the tourism development. As Maslow's theory states that human needs are a form of hierarchy, before one set of needs is satisfied another does not emerge (Boella, 1992 and Mullins, 1992). Basic needs (physiological needs) are in the first hierarchy. Thus, before properly satisfying the physiological needs of any community, it may be not possible to motivate the community to involve in the TDP.

Therefore, it is unrealistic to expect the community to defend its own interests against various groups who want to exploit socio-cultural, political, administrative and environmental balance in the tourist destination. If you ask a community to struggle to have a voice in its affairs, it may not want to do it; because there may be a serious fear to lose what it already has. As popularly stated, if you want your freedom without having your subsistence, you may lose both of them.

The researcher does not claim that the recommended policy suggestions will be a panacea for the problem areas. As noted, some of the problems are part of the limitations to development in general in developing countries, some of which cannot be overcome. It will be oversimplistic to recommend policy suggestions to remove the problem areas without further research and investigation. Hence, the policy suggestions should be considered as a broad guidance for possible operationalisation of community participation in the TDP, rather than a set fixed rules in this regard.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter consisted of two main sections. Section one summarised the research findings and attempted to examine additional problem areas which have been emerged due to the structure of Turkey as a developing country and structure of the international tourism industry. Section two recommended some policy suggestions for these problem areas. It has been implied that some of these problems may not be overcome, at least in the short-term, due to some interrelated, structural, historical.

sociocultural, economic and political problems of Turkey as a developing country. Therefore, it has been emphasised that implementation or emergence of authentic (active, direct) community participation in the TDP seems to be very difficult, if not impossible in the foreseeable future.

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## CHAPTER - 9

### CONCLUSION

#### **Introduction**

This research was an attempt to understand the concept of community participation as a tourism development approach in general. In particular, it was an endeavor to understand this with special references to Urgup in Turkey. Four main objectives were established for this research; 1) To examine the current practice of, and potential for community participation in the tourism development process in Urgup, 2) to determine views of interest groups on various issues of community participation, 3) to find out the expectations of the local community from the tourism development in Urgup, and 4) to develop policy suggestions for community participation in the TDP. As stated previously, this study has adopted an inductive research approach, rather than a deductive one. It does not have any formal hypothesis to test. But, the noted pre-determined research objectives have led and structured the study.

The answers to, and the findings associated with, the objectives have been presented in chapters seven and eight. This chapter will discuss the contributions and limitations of the study. Then, a number of conclusions will be derived based upon the overall discussion and analysis. Finally, it will also offer some suggestion for future research.

#### **Contribution of the Study**

The research makes several contributions to the tourism and development studies, which will be noted in this section.

**Contribution to the Literature of Development Studies:** This study examined community participation from a development studies points of view. By extensively analysing definitions of the related terms such as ‘community’ and ‘participation’, it confirmed that there is a definitional ambiguity in the foregoing literature. Moreover, after examining a wide range of literature, this study identified a

typology of participation. In this context, this study is believed to have expanded the existing body of knowledge on community participation in the development process in general.

**Contribution to the Tourism Literature:** This study is one of a few Ph.D. studies regarding participatory tourism development approach. And , perhaps it may be the first Ph.D. study on community participation in the TDP with special references to a local tourist destination in a developing country. In this regard, it may be seen as pioneer study.

After examining definitions of the community from sociological and development studies points of view, this study developed a definition of 'tourist destination community'. It attempted to answer the question of who are members of a local tourist destination, which may offer better guidance for future research in this field. It also further clarified the concept of community participation in the TDP. Moreover, this study identified, at a theoretical level, a set of barriers to a participatory tourism development approach, which were also examined based on the empirical data collected in the field study.

In brief, this study has offered a better conceptual clarity of the related terms and identified problems of the participatory tourism development approach at theoretical and practical level. It is also believed to have expanded the existing body of knowledge on approaches to the tourism development process at community level.

**Study contribution to public policy makers:** This study offers some information and guidance for public policy makers at local and national levels in developing countries particularly in Turkey. Tourism policy makers and planners in Turkey can use the arguments made in this study to assess the claims for community participation in the TDP.

### **Limitations of the Study**

In appraising the findings of this study, it is important to interpret the results in the light of the following limitations.



**Theoretical limitation:** In the absence of previous contributions at Ph.D. level to this topic, and a lack of theory regarding community participation in the TDP in developing countries, this study has been descriptive in nature.

**Time constraints:** Another limitation of the study was the time constraints on respondents. Many officers in local authorities and central bodies, and representatives of the private sectors, who were interviewed, were very busy. Thus, it was very difficult to schedule interviews with them. The scheduled meetings were changed several times, due to these busy schedules and time conflicts.

In addition, the planning stage of the field work was very time consuming due to the fact that there were no available questionnaires that had been used for a participatory tourism development approach with special references to local tourist destinations in developing countries. Moreover, the period of time for the field work was limited to two months, which is the maximum period for available to a Ph.D. student who received a scholarship from the Higher Education Board of Turkey.

**Financial constraints:** Financial resources for the field research were very limited. The researcher struggled with financial difficulties. Thus, he could not create a better enabling environment to carry out the field research.

**Communication and distance:** This study was conducted in two different countries. The theoretical part was conducted in the UK, and the field work was conducted in Turkey. There were several problems of communicating in obtaining data needed in advance of planning the field research from government bodies in Turkey. The best means of accessing data was requesting it in person, which was not always feasible.

## **Conclusion**

Based upon the overall study, it is possible to draw several general conclusions that may highlight strategic implications for tourist destinations, particularly in developing countries.

First, '[t]he dominant influences on the community participation in planning literature come from legal, administrative, political science, and environmental studies fields' (Pearce et al 1996: 207). Although there is potential to benefit from the

understanding gained in other community participation areas such as health, housing, transportation, rural development, etc., application of participatory development theory to tourism development, particularly in the context of developing countries, seems to be very rare. Thus, it is concluded that there is a considerable theoretical gap in knowledge of participatory tourism development. This may indicate that much more research is needed.

Second, the term developing countries or Third World countries seems to be vague. It refers to many countries that are at different stages of development. Similarly, in a developing country there are many local tourist destinations that are at different levels of development. Thus it may be naive to claim that one form of participatory tourism development strategy will provide a universal model. Local socio-economic and political conditions will determine which forms of participatory tourism development will be more effective, or may suggest that the participatory approach will not work at all under current socio-economic and political conditions. Thus, any intervention must be adapted to the specific environment in which it is to be practiced.

Third, although it is easy and attractive to advocate a participatory tourism development approach, it is unrealistic to claim its universal validity, particularly in developing countries. This study has revealed that there are three main groups of limitations to the participatory tourism development approach. These limitations should be taken into account in tourism development policy formulation. It is suggested that considering these limitations offer a meaningful and realistic guidance for tourism development policy. The limitations to participatory tourism development can be classified as operational limitations, structural limitations and cultural limitations. However, they are not necessarily exclusive, but rather largely inter and intra dependent on each other.

Fourth, the described limitations may not be all the possible obstacles to participatory tourism development in developing countries. There may be other constraints that are not noted in this study. On the other hand, they may not be only specific to tourism development. That is to say that they may be an extension of the prevailing social, political and economic structures that exist in a developing country. As de Kadt (1979b: 45) has strongly contended that '[t]o the extent that problems in

any sector, such as tourism, reflect the existing socio-economic situation, the development of the sector is likely to reinforce the position of the more powerful classes, conforming existing social patterns...'. In this respect, it may be naive to suppose that participatory tourism development policy will change an existing structure of a local tourism industry in a developing country without changing dominant socio-economic and political structure of that locality. Moreover, it may be equally unrealistic to claim that participatory tourism development policy can be considered without any opposition. As Oakley and Marsden (1984) have argued that the current dominant paradigm of development thinking has such a power influence on development practice that it seriously constrains consideration of radical alternatives.

Fifth, the noted problem areas regarding community participation in the TDP suggest that no single tourism development approach possesses all the factors to create a healthy tourism industry. The participatory tourism development approach is not a panacea to solve all the problems of tourism development and sustainability. Therefore, it should not be presented as a superior approach to tourism development. But it may offer a means of lessening excessive and aggressive bureaucratization, centralization and depersonalization of government administered tourism development. Thus it can be employed as a complimentary or additional strategy to integrate tourism development into local, regional and national environments.

Sixth, emergence of a participatory tourism development strategy within Turkey's own dynamics seems unlikely, at least, in the foreseeable future. The analysis of the political economy of Turkey shows that the tourism industry has been given a very high priority for the economic growth of the country. Thus, it is hypothesised that if earnings of foreign exchange and jobs creation are national priorities, then these will pre-dominate over secondary objectives and other wider issues such as developing tourism by utilising a participatory development approach.

Moreover, the dependency of Turkish tourism on market conditions and foreign tour operators suggests that it may to be not easy for Turkish tourism authorities to develop a pro-active development approach involving participatory tourism development (see Tosun, 1997).

Seventh, an emergence and implementation of a participatory tourism development approach requires the re-structuring of the public administration system, and re-distribution of power and wealth, for which hard political choices and logical decisions are sine qua non. This cannot be achieved within the present conditions of many developing countries without the assistance of international aid agencies. Developing and implementing an effective participatory tourism development strategy is not an easy task and there is no single blueprint and a set of fixed rules for this purpose. Thus, a participatory tourism development approach may not be achievable in many developing countries.

Eighth, it is arguable that the participatory tourism development approach has been developed in and by developed countries where different and far better economic, legislative and political structures are in operation than in developing countries. That is to say, the choice of approach to planning assignments will be conditioned by many factors. Perhaps the predominant factors will be related to the stage of political and economic development in the particular country. The approach adopted will usually reflect past experience and current conditions, with budgetary considerations being a major issue. Compromise will have to be found to balance the aims of the exercise with the realism of local conditions and resources.

Hence, adoption of contemporary approaches, emerged and refined in developed countries, to tourism planning is not a panacea for poor planning in developing countries that do not have the basis of the pre-industrial phase experienced last century in Europe and North America. Many developing countries have relatively short histories, as a legacy of being an independent 'State'. They often established their public administrations with systems borrowed from western countries, without having those countries' experiences of democracy and industrial revolution on the road of being an industrial country and modern welfare state. Perhaps, therefore, as de Kadt (1979) stated, adapting the techniques and approaches developed by industrialized countries do not meet developing countries' needs. Thus, a cautionary approach is needed in following what developed countries are doing in the context of tourism development.

## **Recommendation for Future Research**

This study could potentially stimulate related research in the future. The researcher would suggest that: 1- a replication of this study could be done in the coastal local tourist destinations in Turkey, and in another local tourist destination in a developing country in order to compare the research findings, 2-by taking into account the findings of this study, future research should focus on policy suggestions in order to operationalise some forms of participatory tourism development.

## **Final Remarks**

It should go without saying that without the collaboration and the willingness of western governments, international donor agencies and multinational companies to share their accumulated experiences it is unlikely that a participatory tourism development approach will emerge and be implemented in developing countries. In this context, future research should focus particularly on how developing countries can collaborate with these external actors to encourage through community participation tourism to be developed in a sustainable manner. For example, it can be argued that

The developed and other economically advanced countries cannot live in isolated enclaves of prosperity in a world where other countries face growing mass poverty, economic and financial instability and environmental degradation. Not only is this unacceptable on humanitarian grounds; the future well-being of developed countries is linked to economic progress, preservation of the environment and peace and stability in the developing world (Taniguchi 1992: 73)

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**APPENDIX - 1:**  
**Local Bodies' Questionnaire**

## Appendix - 1: Local Bodies' Survey Questionnaire

**INTRODUCTION:** Community participation or involvement in the tourism development process means that local people involvement with central and local authorities, and private sector representatives at the local, district and Ministry of Tourism level. The purposes of this involvement are to discuss tourism development issues, introduce suggestions, attend public meeting, seminar, workshop or conference regarding appropriate type and scale of tourism development, and location of tourism development in a tourist destination. This participation can range from expressing opinions in discussion to actual participation in decision making on scale, type, conditions, rule and regulation, and location of tourism development.

Please answer **ALL** questions as accurately as possible. It is important that every question is answered. If you are unsure about any aspect of the questionnaire and have difficulty interpreting questions or recording responses during the survey, write a brief account of the problem on the questionnaire.

### PART-1: Current situation of community involvement in tourism development:

1- In your opinion, do you think local people's views have been reflected in the tourism development plan? (Please tick as applicable).

To great extent       To some extent       I do not think so

2- Has local people involved in decision making process of any sectoral development programmes in Urgup?

Yes       No       I do not know

3- Is there any types of courses sponsored by private or public bodies to educate local people to take advantage of tourism development?

Yes       No       I do not know

4- Do you think socio-economic impacts of tourism at local level have been taken into account before decisions have been made to develop tourism?.

Yes       No       I do not know

5- Were decisions made by central or local government on tourism development locally advertised in your area? (Please tick all that apply)

by posters?       by exhibition?       by news letter?       by public meeting?

not advertised locally?       by other means? (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

6- In your opinion, what percentage of workers in the tourism industry is from local people? (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

7- How much influence would you say the following bodies have on the tourism development? (Please tick only one box for each choice).

	A great deal of influence	Quite a bit of influence	Some influence	Not much influence
Ministry of Tourism	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Local council	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Local governor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Part-2: Views on community participation in the tourism development process:**

8- Please indicate how strongly do you agree or disagree with these ideas for making decisions on tourism development in Urgup? (1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= in the middle; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree)

	strongly disagree			strongly agree	
	1	2	3	4	5
Ministry of tourism should decide on all aspect of tourism	1	2	3	4	5
Elected local government should decide upon all aspect of tourism	1	2	3	4	5
Appointed local government should decide upon all aspect of tourism	1	2	3	4	5
Elected and appointed local authorities should decide on tourism development by consulting local people,	1	2	3	4	5
A committee elected by thepublic specially for developing, managing and controlling tourism development should decide on all aspect of tourism development in the locality	1	2	3	4	5
Market forces should decide on tourism development	1	2	3	4	5

9- What should be an appropriate role for the community in tourism development? (Please tick all that apply)

- Local people should take the leading role as entrepreneurs and workers at all levels
- Local people should have a voice in the decision-making process of tourism development
- Local people should be asked to explain their views on tourism development and accordingly tourism policies should be re-considered.
- As a general rule, local people should not participate in tourism development process and planning activities

10- How would you describe current knowledge of the community about tourism in Urgup? (Please circle the number or the box that best describes your opinion).  
 very little 1    2    3    4    5 very great extent     I do not know

11- If you were advising the Ministry of Tourism, which of the following options would you support? (please tick as applicable)

- I would strongly encourage community participation in tourism development,
- I would encourage community participation in tourism development
- I would discourage community participation in tourism development
- I would strongly discourage community participation in tourism development
- I do not know.

12- In recent years there has been considerable discussions about the desirability of increasing the amount of local people's PARTICIPATION in government policy making. Do you believe more participation in tourism policy making would be desirable or undesirable?. (Please tick as applicable).

- undesirable     desirable     I do not know

Please indicate how strongly you **AGREE** or **DISAGREE** with the following statements by **CIRCLING ONLY** the answer which best describes your point of views on community participation in the tourism development process. For question 13-42, please use the following scale: 1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= in the middle; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree.

13- Community participation in the decision making process of tourism development would be a better development approach.

strongly disagree    1    2    3    4    5    strongly agree

14- Local people in Urgup should have legal right to be involved in the tourism development process?

strongly disagree    1    2    3    4    5    strongly agree

15- Local people should be consulted about the scale and form of tourism development, but the final decision should be made by the formal bodies.

strongly disagree    1    2    3    4    5    strongly agree

16- Local people should be financially supported to invest in tourism development rather than outsiders.

strongly disagree    1    2    3    4    5    strongly agree

17- If local people invest in the tourism development, this will help much more local development than if outsiders invest in the tourism industry.

strongly disagree    1    2    3    4    5    strongly agree

18- Sufficient consultation and planning at the local level will facilitate acceptance and implementation of tourism development programs.

strongly disagree    1    2    3    4    5    strongly agree

19- The destination community is an important component of tourism product.

strongly disagree    1    2    3    4    5    strongly agree

20- Successful tourism developments depends on strong community support.

strongly disagree    1    2    3    4    5    strongly agree

21- Community involvement represents a technique of limiting negative social impacts.

strongly disagree    1    2    3    4    5    strongly agree

22- Community participation will achieve a better distribution of the benefits of tourism development.

strongly disagree    1    2    3    4    5    strongly agree

23- If local people are involved in the decision making process of tourism development, desires and needs of the local community will be better reflected.

strongly disagree    1    2    3    4    5    strongly agree

24- There is a lack of co-ordination between central authorities and local bodies in Urgup.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

25- There is a lack of co-ordination between local authorities and the private sector in Urgup.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

26- Most residents are not well-informed and lack information related to tourism development issues in Urgup.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

27- Although central bodies have prepared development plans, they do not take into account local conditions under which the plan will be implemented.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

28- There is a lack of a legal structure to involve the community in the tourism development process.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

29- Financing for the tourism development is not available at local level and must come from outside interests.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

30- There is a lack of human resources to invest in, develop and manage tourism development in this locality.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

31- There is lack of expertise in tourism planning in Urgup.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

32- There is a lack of will at central level to develop and implement a participatory tourism development strategy.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

33- Planning and development efforts are 'value-free' or politically neutral exercises. Hence, participation of the community into the development process can only serve to politicise it and lay it aside from its professional base.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

34- Participation of members of the community can demand significant time and effort of professionals to complete projects, thus it should not be implemented.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

35- The community has difficulty in communicating with formal bodies.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 strongly agree

36- There is a low level of interest in and awareness about socio-cultural, economic and political issues including tourism, among local people in Urgup.

strongly disagree      1      2      3      4      5      strongly agree

37- Local people should be helped to develop their capabilities to participate in the management and development of tourism.

strongly disagree      1      2      3      4      5      strongly agree

38- Local people through various courses should be educated to take advantage of tourism development.

strongly disagree      1      2      3      4      5      strongly agree

39- Greater awareness and interest among members of local community may be achieved if meaningful and comprehensible information contained in the tourism reports and plans are to be disseminated in Urgup.

strongly disagree      1      2      3      4      5      strongly agree

40- Delegating some of the planning functions, tasks and authorities from the Ministry of Tourism and the State Planning Organisation to local bodies is necessary for effective community participation in tourism development.

strongly disagree      1      2      3      4      5      strongly agree

**Part-3: A few questions for personal details:**

a- Were you born in this town?                       Yes                       No

b- Roughly how long have you lived in this area? (Please specify): \_\_\_\_\_  
years

c- Education level attained (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

d- How strongly do you feel a sense of belonging to Urgup? (Please circle the number that best describe your opinion).

weak              2      3      4      5              strong

Please add any other comments which you think may be useful for discussion about community participation in tourism development process. **Thank you for your co-operation in participating in this survey.**

**APPENDIX - 2:**  
**Questions of Unstructured Personal Interviews**



## **Appendix - 2: Unstructured Questions for Personal Interviews**

- 1- In your opinion, what is the role of local people in current tourism development?
- 2- How can the role of local people be increased in tourism development?
- 3- What is your opinion about the origin of ownership and operators of tourism companies in Urgup? Are they owned and operated by local people or by non-local people?
- 4- Assuming that most of the tourism establishments are owned and managed by outsiders, what can be done to indigenise these establishments?
- 5- Do you think incentives given to the tourism sector have helped local people become involved in the tourism industry?
- 6- Assume that it is decided that local people will be involved in the tourism development process. How should community involvement take place and how should community involvement be organised?
- 7- In your opinion, what will the barriers to community involvement in the tourism development process be? And how can these barriers be overcome?

**APPENDIX - 3:**  
**Central Authorities' Questionnaire**

### Appendix - 3: Central Authorities' Questionnaire

**Please explain your opinions about the following issues regarding community participation in the tourism development process at local level**

1- In recent years there has been considerable debate over the value of efforts to increase the amount of local participation in government policy making in the tourism policy area. What is your opinion about local people's involvement in the tourism development process?.....

.....

.....

.....

2- In your opinion, what is the best way to get local people involved in tourism development that take place in their locality? .....

.....

.....

.....

3- How can role of local people in tourism development be increased?

.....

.....

.....

4- What must be changed to develop and implement a participatory tourism development strategy?.....

.....

.....

.....

5- In your opinion, what are the barriers to community participation in the tourism development process?.....

.....

.....

.....

6- What are the shortcomings of current tourism development approaches at national and local level? .....

.....

.....

.....

**APPENDIX - 4:**  
**Local Communities' Questionnaire**

## Appendix - 4: Local Community's Survey Questionnaire

**INTRODUCTION:** Community participation or involvement in the tourism development process means that people are involved with central and local authorities, and private sector representatives at the local, district and Ministry of Tourism level. The purposes of this involvement is to discuss tourism development issues, introduce suggestions, attend public meetings, seminar, workshop or conference regarding the appropriate type, scale and location of tourism development in a tourist destination. This participation can range from expressing opinions in discussion to actual participation in decision making.

Please answer **ALL** questions as accurately as possible. It is important that every question is answered. If you are unsure about any aspect of the questionnaire and have difficulty interpreting questions or recording responses during the survey, write a brief account of the problem on the questionnaire.

### Part-1: Potential for and current practice of community participation:

1- Thinking back to the last local and general elections do you remember whether you voted at those elections? (Please tick as applicable)

Local election:  Yes                       No                      General election:  Yes                       No

2- Do you (Please tick all that apply)

- read a local newspaper ( at least 3 times a week)
- follow local news programmes on radio or television (at least 3 times a week)
- read a local weekly newspaper (at least 2 times a month)

3- Have you done either of the following within the last few years? (Please tick all that apply)

- attended a parent's meeting at school     attended a meeting of political party
- Worked actively in a political campaign
- Taken part in any non-violent protest such as picketing, boycott, march, or sit-in

4- How often would you say you have ideas for improving things including tourism in Urgup? (Please tick as applicable).

Frequently                       Occasionally                       Seldom                       Never

5- If you want to see your local representative such as municipal governor and central representative such as your MP, how easy is it for you to see them? (Please tick only one box for each choice).

	local representative	central representative
very difficult	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
difficult	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
moderate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
easy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
very easy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6- Have you ever attended any courses to take advantages of tourism development? (Please tick as applicable).

Yes                       No

7- Have you or any of your acquaintance ever been asked to explain your/their opinions about scale, form and location of tourism development? (Please tick as applicable).

Yes       No

8- Are you, or any immediate member of your family working in the tourism industry in Urgup? (Please tick as applicable).

Yes       No

8a- If yes, please specify the job that you or an immediate member of your family is doing

---

9- How much influence would you say local people like you have on the local issues including tourism development in Urgup? (Please tick as applicable).

A great deal    Some       Very little       None

10- Have you ever received any news letter or report about local tourism development? (Please tick as applicable).

Yes       No

11- Do you think current tourism development reflects your views? (Please tick as applicable)

A great deal    Some       Very little       None

**Part-2: Views on community participation in tourism development process**

12- Would you be interested in attending workshops and meeting to be conducted on the following issues? (Please tick only one box for each choice).

	Sport	Agriculture	Education	Health	Tourism
absolutely yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
undecided	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
absolutely no	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

13- Do you want to know before tourism development takes place in the area? (Please tick as applicable).

Yes       No

14- Would you like the opportunity to personally express your views on tourism? (Please tick as applicable). (pertaining specifically to interest in future involvement)

absolutely yes       undecided       absolutely no

15- If you were advising the Ministry of Tourism, which of the following options would you support? (Please tick as applicable).

- I would strongly encourage community participation in tourism development,
- I would encourage community participation in tourism development
- I would discourage community participation in tourism development
- I would strongly discourage community participation in tourism development
- I do not know

16- Please indicate how strongly do you agree or disagree with these ideas for making decisions on tourism development in Urgup? (1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= in the middle; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree)

	strongly disagree	2	3	strongly agree	4	5
Ministry of Tourism should decide on all aspects of tourism	1	2	3	4	5	
Elected local government should decide upon all aspects of tourism	1	2	3	4	5	
Appointed local government should decide upon all aspects of tourism	1	2	3	4	5	
Elected and appointed local authorities should decide on tourism development by consulting local people,	1	2	3	4	5	
A committee elected by the public specially for developing, managing and controlling tourism development should decide on all aspects of tourism development in the locality	1	2	3	4	5	
Market forces should decide on tourism development	1	2	3	4	5	

17- What is an appropriate role for local people like you be in tourism development? (Please tick all that apply).

- Local people should take the leading role as entrepreneurs and workers at all levels
- Local people should have a voice in decision-making process of tourism development
- Local people should be consulted about scale and form of tourism development, but the final decision should be made by the formal bodies.
- As a general rule, local people should not participate in the tourism development process and planning activities
- Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

18- Which of the following means of involving local people like you in tourism development are suitable? Please arrange in order of priority (please tick all that apply)

- attending seminar, conference  responding to survey  holding referendum
- encouraging local people to invest in and work for tourism industry
- other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

19- Is your area considered as a tourism region by the Ministry of Tourism? (Please tick as applicable).

- Yes  No

20- Do you know what kind of incentives are offered for tourism? (Please tick as applicable).

- Yes  No

21- Please write three official organisation which have authority to decide on giving incentives to tourism related businesses?

- 1- \_\_\_\_\_ 2- \_\_\_\_\_  
3- \_\_\_\_\_

22- Have you done either of the following within the last few years? (Please tick all that apply).

- travelled to somewhere out of Nevsehir  gone on holiday
- visited friends and relatives out of Nevsehir  worked for a tourism related business

23- Some experts say that community does not have enough knowledge to give opinions on tourism development. (Please circle the number that best describe your opinion).

- strongly disagree      1      2      3      4      5      strongly agree

24- How do you gain your knowledge about tourism? (Please tick all that apply).

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> through newspapers                     | <input type="checkbox"/> through the local radio and TV     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> through special tourism newsletters    | <input type="checkbox"/> through friends and relatives      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> through the public meeting and hearing | <input type="checkbox"/> through formal education at school |
| <input type="checkbox"/> by personal experience                 | <input type="checkbox"/> other (please specify) _____       |

Please circle a number that best describe your opinion for question 25-28.

25- We local people should have some training to work for, to invest in and to express our opinions about the tourism industry.

strongly disagree      1      2      3      4      5      strongly agree

26- Formal authorities should directly communicate to encourages us to express our opinions about tourism issues

strongly disagree      1      2      3      4      5      strongly agree

27- There is a lack of adequate information made available to us on tourism issues.

strongly disagree      1      2      3      4      5      strongly agree

28- We do not want to express our opinions about tourism issues to the formal bodies because we feel nothing will be done.

strongly disagree      1      2      3      4      5      strongly agree

### Part-3: Expectation from and views on tourism development:

29- What are your expectations from tourism development? (Please tick all that apply).

- Tourism should create jobs particularly for local people
- Tourism development should create opportunity particularly for local people to invest in
- Type of tourism development should be compatible with local values
- Tourism development should take place out the local settlement
- A community development tax should be taken from business in the tourism industry
- Small scale locally owned tourism establishments should be supported
- Tourists should be informed to act by considering local values

30- In general, what is your feeling about the tourism development? (Please tick all that apply).

- Government authorities do good job
- lacks direction       is not targeted our needs
- is pretty much for the benefit of a few big interests
- government made honest effort to reconcile interests

31- If you were in charge, what would you recommend? (Please tick as apply) I would ...

- strongly encourage tourism development       encourage tourism development
- I do not know       discourage tourism development
- strongly discourage tourism development

32- What do you consider to be the main impacts of foreign tourists on the traditional values of your community? (Please explain)

- Significantly worsen     Worsen somewhat       Not make any difference
- Improve somewhat       Significantly improve     I do not know



33- How satisfied are you with the current tourism development in your locality? (Please circle the number that best describe your opinion)

Extremely dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely satisfied

**Part-4:A few questions for personal details**

a- Were you born in this town?

Yes

No

b- Age \_\_\_\_\_ years;

**Gender:**

Male

Female

c- Marital status:

Married

Single

Divorced

Widowed

d- Roughly how long have you lived in this area? (Please specify): \_\_\_\_\_ years

e- Your occupation (Please specify): \_\_\_\_\_

f- Education level attained (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

g- How many people are there in your household? (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_ persons

h- How many rooms are there in your house?(Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_ rooms

i- How many cars do your family have? (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_ cars

j- Monthly family income (After tax) (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_ Turkish Lira

k- Taking account of the number of people in your household, how adequate is your household's income? (Please tick as applicable).

not enough to survive on

just enough to survive on

enough for a fair standard of living

enough for a good standard of living

l- Which of the following categories does your house fall into. (Please tick as applicable).

Owner Occupied

Local authority

Private Rented

Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

m- Please indicate which of the following amenities your house already has: (Please tick all that apply)

Inside WC.

yes

no

Exclusive

shared

Bath or Shower

yes

no

Exclusive

shared

Hot Water Supply

yes

no

Exclusive

shared

Telephone

yes

no

Exclusive

shared

p- How strongly do you feel a sense of belonging to Urgup? (Please circle the number that best describe your opinion).

weak 1

2

3

4

5

strong

Please add any other comments which you think may be useful for discussion about community participation in tourism development process. Thank you for your co-operation in participating in this survey.

**APPENDIX - 5:**

**Letter from the district governor regarding provision of demographic  
information about Urgup**

T. C.  
ÜRGÜP KAYMAKAMLIĞI  
YAZI İŞLERİ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

SAYI : BO54VLK4505501 / İŞL. 03/363

Tarih : 09 / 4 / 1996

KONU: Dilekçeniz.

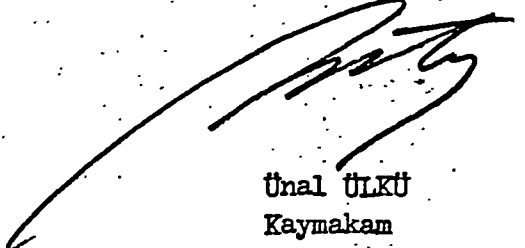
Cevat TOSUN  
Flat 12-5  
35 Pinkston Drive Sighthill  
G21 1YQ Glasgow/U.K.

İçeri: 26 mart 1996 tarihli dilekçeniz.

İlçemizin demografik yapısına ilişkin veriler yazımız ekinde gönderilmiş olup, istemekte olduğumuz diğer verileri temin edebilmeniz için İçişleri Bakanlığı İller İdaresi Genel Müdürlüğü ile Mahallî İdareler Genel Müdürlüğüne başvuruda bulunmanız gerekmektedir.

Bilginizi rica ederim.

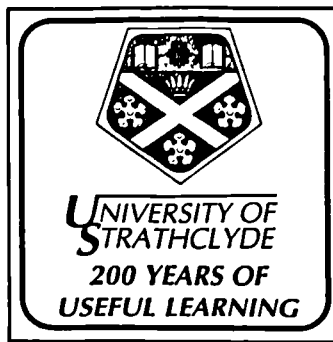
EK: 2

  
Ünal ÜLKÜ  
Kaymakam

**APPENDIX - 6:**

**Letter written to the Educational Counsejor of Turkish Embassy to take  
permission to conduct the field research in Turkey.**

f. CLJ/at



Professor Thomas G Baum PhD  
Professor Carson L Jenkins PhD  
Professor Roy C Wood PhD  
(Head of Department)

9 August 1996

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

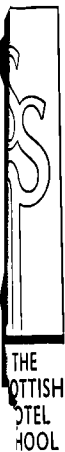
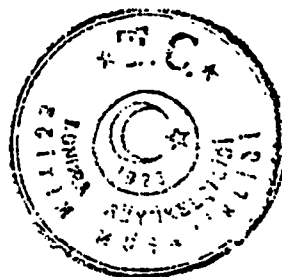
**Re: Mr Cevat Tosun**

As part of his studies leading to the preparation of a thesis for a PhD, Mr Tosun needs to undertake a period of field study in Turkey. This period should permit him to undertake the essential field work which is a necessary input to his study.

I would be most grateful to receive confirmation of your permission for his journey to Turkey.

Yours sincerely

Professor C L Jenkins



Curran Building, 94 Cathedral Street, Glasgow G4 0LG Tel: 0141-552 4400 Fax: 0141-552 2870 Telex: 77472 UNSLIB G

*Professor of International Hospitality Management: Dr Thomas G Baum Professor of International Tourism: Dr Carson L Jenkins  
Professor of Hospitality Management: Dr Roy C Wood Director, Scottish Tourism Research Unit: Anthony V Seaton  
Visiting Professors: The Hon Sir Rocco Forte; Eddie J Friel; Graham K L Jeffrey; David Levin; Leonard J Litkonsh CBE; Udo A Schlenkerh*

**APPENDIX - 7:**

**Letter written by the Educational Counselor of London Turkish Embassy to  
Mustafa Kemal University to recommend the field research to be conducted in  
Turkey.**



Professor Carson L Jenkins PhD  
Professor Roy C Wood PhD  
(Head of Department)

Ref: PUCD/LJM

28 August 1996

Educational Counsellor  
Turkish Embassy  
Camelot House  
76 Brompton Road  
London  
SW3 1EU

Dear Sir

Re: Mr Cevat Tosun

Mr Cevat Tosun is a full-time registered student of this University reading for the degree of PhD. His research programme involves an examination of Local Community Participation in Tourism Development in Urgup, Turkey, which is being carried out under Professor Jenkins' supervision.

We would expect Mr Tosun to visit Turkey later this year to engage in field-work which is an integral part of his studies. I hope that you will grant him the necessary permission to facilitate his research.

If you require further information about Mr Tosun's studies, then I might be contacted at the address below.

Yours faithfully

Dr P U C Dieke  
Director of Research



T.C.  
LONDRA BUYUKELÇİLİĞİ  
EGİTİM MÜŞAVİRLİĞİ

TIGRIS HOUSE 256 EDGWARE ROAD LONDON W2 1DS  
Tel: 0171 724 1511 Fax: 0171 724 9889

sayı: 22.96.1514

2.9.1996

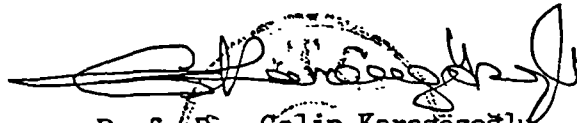

Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Rektörlüğüne  
ANTAKYA

2547 sayılı yasa çerçevesinde Üniversiteniz Araştırma Görevlisi Cevat Tosun'un University of Strachclyde'ta doktora öğrenimine devam ettiği malumunuzdur.

Cevat Tosun'un Araştırma Direktörü Dr. PUC Dieke'den alınan örneği ekte sunulan 28.8.1996 tarihli yazıda da görülebileceği üzere ilgilinin "Yerel Toplumunun Turizm Kalkınma Sürecine Katılması" Konulu tezi ile ilgili araştırmaları yapmak üzere Türkiye'ye gelmesi gerekmektedir.

Cevat Tosun'un Ülkemizle ilgili bu önemli çalışmasını başarıyla tamamlayabilmesi için Ürgüp'e gitmesi Müşavirliğimizce de yarar görülmektedir.

Gereğini arz ve rica ederim.

  
Prof. Dr. Galip Karagözoğlu  
Eğitim Müşaviri  




**APPENDIX - 8:**  
**The list of interviewees**

## Appendix - 8: The List of Interviewees

	<b>Name</b>	<b>Occupation</b>	<b>Address</b>	<b>Telephone</b>
1	Local Governor	Local Governor	Local Governor 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	
2	K. Kursat Numanoglu	Mayor	Municipality 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	
3	Murat Akbaba	Vice-Mayor, and Member of Municipal Council	Municipality 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843412799 (office) 00 903843414559 (home)
4	Suleyman Dogan	Member of Municipal Council	Dogan Konfeksiyon Acik Pazar Yeri No:19 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843412176 (home) 00 90 3843412410 (office)
5	Ahmet Ozturk	Member of Municipal Council	Girne Kitaathanesi 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843413898 (office) 00 90 3414870 (home)
6	Turgay Yenidunya	Member of Municipal Council	P.K. 5 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843418930 (office) 00 90 3843412546 00 90 3843415353 (home)
7	Ismet Sahin	Member of Municipal Council	Municipality 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843414343 (home)
8	Husnu Sucu	Member of Municipal Council	Hotel Sinasos 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843414343 00 90 3843535009 (office)
9	Ihsan Tahran	Director of Tourism Information Office	Tourism Information Office 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843414059 (office)
10	Yasar Tuzcu	Director of Museum	Director of Museum 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843414082
11	Ahmet Kurkcu	Neighborhood Headman	Alli Kapi Mah 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843414461 (office)
12	Sami Kale	Neighborhood Headman	Suphanverdi Mah 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 903843414834 (home) 00 903843414834 (office)
13	Ibrahim	Neighborhood	Esballi Mah	00 90 3843413039

	Akkaya	Headman	50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	(office)
14	M. Sadik Akilli	Neighborhood Headman	370 Evler Mah 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843414729
15	Suleyman Ozasik	Neighborhood Headman	Imran Mah 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843414768
16	Mehmet Zengin	Neighborhood Headman	Muhtarlar Odasi 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843413039
17	Ismail Kutuk	Neighborhood Headman	Duayeri Mah 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843414306
18	Nuri Eroglu	Neighborhood Headman	Dereler Mah 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	00 90 3843414709 (home)
19	Fehmi Incidis	President of Cappadocia Association of Tourism Operators (KAPTIB)	Manager Hotel-Pressia 50400 Urgup Nevsehir/Turkey	
20	Asuman Yucel	Expert of Tourism Sector	State Planning Organisation Necati Bey Caddesi 06100 Yucetepe Ankara/Turkey	00 90 3122321067 (fax) 00 90 3122308720/ ext: 6255
21	Muzeyyen Acir	Assistant of Genral Director	Ministry of Tourism Ankara/Turkey	
22	Mehmet Bakirci	President of Leading Tourism Investment	Ministry of Tourism Ankara/Turkey	

**APPENDIX - 9:**  
**Some Critical Issues in Data Analysis**

## Appendix - 9: Some Critical Issues in Data Analysis

It is said that

‘there are three kinds of lies: Lies, damned lies and statistics’, which reflects a commonly held belief that statistics (or perhaps even statisticians) should not be trusted. In general statistical techniques are tools that are used to organise information and to make inferences from our data. Like many other tools, statistics can be misused, which may result in misleading, distorted, or incorrect conclusions (Gravetter and Wallnau, 1996: xi).

As argued, quoting the mean (M) when the mode would be a more appropriate average is a perfect illustration of the type of thing which gives statistics a bad name (Clegg, 1990).

The mean or arithmetic average assumes at least an interval level scale underlying the variable measured. Technically, data at ordinal level or nominal level of measurement would not be amenable to mean computations. Due to the fact that the mean is the best known measure of central tendency, there is the tendency on the part of some researchers to apply it to social data indiscriminately, without first considering whether the level of measurement assumption has been met. This is the reason for the most frequent misapplication of mean values in social research (Champion, 1981).

There is actually considerable controversy over using numeric based statistics, like means, on ordinal data. The strict level of measurement rule is that means should never be computed on ordinal data, but such analysis has become common. Those researchers willing to take the mean of ordinal variable argue that there are latent continuous variables (albeit with error at the manifest level) underlying ordinal variables, and that integer scoring of ordinal variables (assigning the score of 1 to the first category, 2 to the second, and so on) usually yields statistical results that would be fairly close to what would be obtained for the true unknown numbered categories. By contrast, statistical purists argue that there is a chance of making a serious statistical fallacy, because results based on integer scoring could be very different from those based on the true underlying data. This controversy is unlikely to be resolved in the near future. In the meantime, it is best to stick close to the level of

measurement of the data as a first step and acknowledge directly when violating that level (Weisberg, 1993).

In order to avoid misusing statistical techniques three factors, which affect how the data are analysed, should be taken into account; 1- the number of variables being examined, 2- the level of measurement of the variables, and 3- whether we want to use our data for descriptive or inferential purposes. In fact, how we analyse data depends on what we want to know. Therefore, before analysing data we must be clear about the question we are trying to answer (de Vaus, 1996).

In this study, most of the variables' level of measurement are nominal or ordinal. To measure central tendency of the distribution scores of nominal variables, mode will be utilised. For ordinal level measurement, median and mode will be employed to determine central tendency. Because dichotomous variables can be treated as nominal, ordinal or interval variables, the mode, median (Mdn) or mean (M) will be used to determine the typical value for a dichotomous variable by taking the distributions of the values on the variable into account.

What has been argued in the above will be applied to the data analysis for this study. But, it goes without saying that it is not always necessary to select a single measure of centre. The different measures provide different pieces of information, and sometimes it is useful to look at these multiple aspects of the data (Weisberg, 1993). This gives the reader an opportunity to evaluate the distribution more effectively. It might be concluded from this that it is better for statistical purposes to have too much information rather than too little (Champion, 1981). Thus as a principle, the three kinds of measures of central tendency will be given alongside with measure of dispersions such as standard deviation (SD), range and variation ratio(v) where it is necessary.

It may be worth stating that the chi-square test for goodness of fit is employed to test hypotheses about the shape or proportions of the population (the local community) distribution by using the sample data. The null hypothesis for all the variables is that there is no preference among the different categories. In other words, 'the null hypothesis states that the population is divided equally among the categories' (Gravetter and Wallnau, 1996: 557). In all cases, except a few variables (see Table

7.18, 7.48, 7.51 and 7.61), the null hypothesis is rejected. That is to say that almost all of the distribution scores of the variables are statistically significant at different degree of freedom. The test result is presented, for example, as  $\chi^2 (1, n = 237) = 187.8253, p < .0000^1$ .

**Note-1:**

'In reporting the results, many behavioural science use guidelines adopted by American Psychological Association (APA), as outlined in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (1994). The APA style typically uses the letter M as the symbol for the sample mean. The median can be reported using the abbreviation Mdn and standard deviation can be reported as SD (Gravetter and Wallnau, 1996: 93-4)'.

'The APA style specifies the format for reporting the chi-square statistic in scientific journals (Gravetter and Wallnau, 1996: 557)'. According to this style, the results of the chi-square test for goodness of fit in Table 7.1 might be stated as follows:  $\chi^2 (6, n = 224) = 91, p < .0000$ . Where  $\chi^2$  stands for chi-square, 6 for degree of freedom, n for valid cases and p for level of significant respectively.

This research will use the style of reporting research results developed by the APA.

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- Champion Dean, J. (1981), Basic Statistics for Social Research. London: Collier Macmillan Publishers.
- Clegg Frances (1990), Simple Statistics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- de Vaus, D. A. (1996), Survey in social Research. London: UCL Press.
- Gravetter, F. J. and Wallnau, L. B. (1996), Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences. New York: West Publishing Company.

**APPENDIX - 10:**

**This Appendix contains 61 tables (Table 7.1 - 7.61) that show descriptive statistical figures regarding variables included in the survey questionnaires.**



## Appendix - 10: Tables Regarding Statistical Figures as Output of SPSS

### Demographic Information about the Local Community

Table 7.1: Age profile of the respondents

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum. Percent
19-25 years old	1	25	10.5	11.2	11.2
26-30 years old	2	8	3.4	3.6	14.7
31-35 years old	3	38	16.0	17.0	31.7
36-40 years old	4	75	31.6	33.5	65.2
41-45 years old	5	39	16.5	17.4	82.6
46-50 years old	6	24	10.1	10.7	93.3
51-56 years old	7	15	6.3	6.7	100
more than 57 years old	8	0	0	0	
Missing value	99	13	5.5	Missing	
	Total	237	100.0	100.0	

<sup>1</sup>Mode = 4; Mdn = 4; M = 4.013; Range = 6; SD = 1.592;  $\chi^2(6, n = 224) = 91, p < .0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.2: Education level attained

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum. Percent
illiterate	1	1	0.4	0.4	0.4
primary school	2	124	52.3	53.4	53.9
secondary school	3	33	13.9	14.2	68.1
high school	4	51	21.5	22.0	90.1
undergraduate	5	23	9.7	9.9	100.0
postgraduate	6	0	0	0	
Missing value	99	5	2.1	Missing	
	Total	237	100.0	100.0	

Mode = 2; Mdn = 2; M = 2.875; Range = 4; SD = 1.076;  $v = 47.7$ ;  $\chi^2(4, n = 232) = 190.3276, p < .0000$ .

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.3: Monthly family income (Millions Turkish Lira)

Value Label (Millions Turkish Lira)	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum. Percent
5	1	4	1.7	2.1	2.1
6-15	2	62	26.2	32.6	34.7
16-25	3	75	31.6	39.5	74.2
26-35	4	29	12.2	15.3	89.5
36-45	5	17	7.2	8.9	98.4
46-55	6	2	0.8	1.1	99.5
56-64	7	1	0.4	0.5	100
missing value	99	47	19.8.0	Missing	
	Total	237	100.0	100.0	

Mode = 3; Mdn = 2.876; M = 3.016; Range = 6; SD = 1.051;  $n = 190$ ;  $\chi^2(6, n = 190) = 201.2632, p < .0000$ .

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.4: Perceived adequacy of household's income

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum. Percent
not enough to survive	1	131	55.3	55.3
just enough to survive	2	1	0.4	55.7
enough for a fair standard of life	3	96	40.5	96.2
enough for a good standard of life	4	9	3.8	100
Missing value	99		Missing	
	Total	237	100.0	

Mode = 1; Mdn = 1; M = 1.928; Range = 3; SD = 1.053;  $\chi^2(3,n=237)=209.5654, p<.0000$ .

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.5: Which of the following categories does your house fall into?

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum. Percent
owner occupied	1	166	70.0	71.9	71.9
local authority	2	10	4.2	4.3	76.2
private rented	3	50	21.1	21.6	97.8
other	4	5	2.1	2.1	100
Missing value	99	6	2.5	Missing	
	Total	237	100.0	100.0	

Mode = 1; Mdn = 1; M = 1.541; Range = 3; SD = 0.903;  $\chi^2(3,n=231)=291.6147, p<.0000$ .

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.6: Please indicate which of the following amenities does your house have?

Amenities of the houses	Yes (%)	No (%)	Mode	M	SD	The chi-square test for goodness of fit
WC inside	83	17	1	1.170	0.337	$\chi^2(1,n=235)=102.2340, p<.0000$ .
bath or shower	93.2	6.8	1	1.068	0.253	$\chi^2(1,n=234)=174.3761, p<.0000$ .
hot water supply	66	34	1	1.340	0.475	$\chi^2(1,n=235)=23.9362, p<.0000$ .
telephone	88.6	11.4	1	1.199	1.395	$\chi^2(1,n=236)=327.8729, p<.0000$ .

Value: yes = 1; no = 2

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

### Current Practice of Community Participation in the TDP

Table 7.7: Reflection of local people's views in the tourism development

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
to great extent	1	1	4.5	4.5	4.5
to some extent	2	11	50.0	50.0	54.5
I do not think so	3	10	45.5	45.5	100.0
Total		22	100	100	

Mode = 2; Mdn = 2.429; M = 2.409; Range = 2; SD = .590; n = 22

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Table 7.8: Involvement of local people in decision making process of sectoral development programmes in Urgup**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
yes	1	2	9.1	9.1	9.1
I do not know	2	3	13.6	13.6	22.7
no	3	17	77.3	77.3	100
Total		22	100	100	

Mode = 3; Mdn = 2.750; M = 2.682; Range = 2; SD = .646; v = .227; n = 22

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Table 7.9: Is there any types of courses sponsored by private or public bodies to educate local people to take advantages of tourism development?**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
yes	1	11	50.0	50.0	50.0
I do not know	2	2	9.1	9.1	59.1
no	3	9	40.9	40.9	100.0
Total		22	100	100	

Mode = 1; Mdn = 1.846; M = 1.909; Range = 2; SD = 0.971; v = .50; n = 22

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Table 7.10: Do you think socio-economic impacts of tourism at local level have been taken into account before decisions have been made to develop tourism?**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
yes	1	2	9.1	9.1	9.1
I do not know	2	5	22.7	22.7	31.8
no	3	15	68.2	68.2	100.0
Total		22	100	100	

Mode = 3; Mdn = 2.650; M = 2.591; Range = 2; SD = 0.666; v = .318

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Table 7.11: Local people's share in the employment of tourism industry**

Value Label (%)	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
10-20	1	4	18.2	19.0	19.0
21-30	2	7	31.8	33.3	52.3
31-40	3	4	18.2	19.0	71.4
41-50	4	2	9.1	9.5	81.0
51-60	5	3	13.6	14.3	95.2
61-70	6	1	4.5	4.8	100
Missing value	99	1	4.5	Missing	
Total		22	100	100	

Mode = 2; Mdn = 2.545; M = 2.810; Range = 5; SD = 1.504; n = 22

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Table 7.12: Various bodies' influences on tourism development.**

Value Label	Value	Local Council %	Local Governor %	Ministry of Tourism %
a great deal	1	31.8	10.0	9.5
quite a bit	2	36.4	35.0	4.8
some	3	27.3	35.0	42.9
not much	4	4.5	20.0	42.9
Missing Value	99	----	Missing	Missing
	Total	100	100	100
Mdn*		2	2.643	3.333
Ranking		1	2	3

\* The lower the Mdn score, the higher the influence is.

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Local People's Views on Current Practice of Community Participation in the TDP**

**Table 7.13: Local people's views on current practice of community participation in the TDP**

The questions that were asked to examine current practice of community participation	Yes (%)	No (%)	M Mode	SD n
*q6- Have you ever attended any courses to take advantages of tourism development?	5.5	94.5	1.945 2.000	0.228 237
**q7- Have you or any of your acquaintance ever been asked to explain you/their opinions about form and location of tourism development?	5.5	94.5	1.945 2.000	0.229 236
***q8- Are you, or any immediate member of your family working in the tourism industry in Urgup?	32.9	67.1	1.671 2.000	0.471 237
****q10- Have you ever received any news letter or report about local tourism development?	0.8	99.2	1.992 2.000	0.092 237

Value: 1 = yes; 2= no; \*  $\chi^2(1, n=237) = 187.8523, p<.0000$ ; \*\*  $\chi^2(1, n = 236) = 186.8644, p<.0000$ ;  
 \*\*\*  $\chi^2(1,n=237)=27.6835, p<.0000$ ; \*\*\*\*  $\chi^2(1,n=237)=229.0675, p<.0000$ .

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research.

**Table 7.14: Sorts of jobs given to local people in the tourism industry**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
not applicable	0	158	69.6	69.6
managerial	1	0	0	69.6
supervisory	2	11	4.8	74.4
clerical	3	21	9.3	83.7
unskilled	4	32	14.2	
owner of a firm	5	5	2.2	100
missing		10	missing	
Total		237	100	

Mode = 0; Mdn = 0; M = 1.048; Range = 5; SD = 1.657;  $\chi^2(4,n=227)= 358.3524, p<.0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research.

Table 7.15: Level of influence of the local people on local issues.

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
a great deal	1	3	1.3	1.3	1.3
some	2	39	16.5	16.5	17.7
very little	3	56	23.6	23.6	100.0
none	4	139	58.6	58.6	
Total		237	100	100	

Mode = 4; Mdn = 4; M = 3.397; Range = 3; SD = .560;  $\chi^2(3, n=237)=167.8439$ ,  $p<.0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.16: Do you think current tourism development reflects your views?

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
a great deal	1	3	1.3	1.3	1.3
some	2	25	10.5	10.6	11.9
I do not know	3	24	10.1	10.2	22.0
very little	4	27	11.4	11.4	33.5
none	5	157	66.2	66.5	100.0
Missing Value	99	1	0.4	Missing	
	Total	237	100	100	

Mode = 5; Mdn = 5; M = 4.314; Range = 4; SD = 1.101;  $\chi^2(4, n=237)=327.3051$ ,  $p<.0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.17: Voting at local and general elections

	Yes (%)	No (%)	M	Mode	Mdn	SD	n
*Local election	95.7	4.3	1.043	1.000	1.000	0.202	235
**General election	97.4	2.6	1.026	1.000	1.000	0.161	227

Value: yes = 1; no = 2;  $\chi^2(1, n=235)=196.7021$ ,  $p<.0000$ ;  $\chi^2(1, n=227)=203.6344$ ,  $p<.0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.18: Profile of following media

	Yes (%)	(No %)	M	Mode	Mdn	SD
?*read a news paper three times a week	48.5	51.5	1.515	2.000	2.000	0.501
**following local news on radio or television three times a week	86.9	13.1	1.131	1.000	1.000	0.339
***read a weekly local newspaper two times a month	12.7	87.3	1.873	2.000	2.000	0.333

Value: yes = 1; no = 2;  $\chi^2(1, n=237)=.2068$ ,  $p<.6493$ ;  $\chi^2(1, n=236)=128.2881$ ,  $p<.0000$ ;  $\chi^2(1, n=237)=132.1899$ ,  $p<.0000$ ;

? The chi-square test for goodness of fit shows that the null hypothesis is not rejected. In other words, distribution scores of these variables do not likely exist in the population. Thus, they cannot represent the whole population (the local community in Urgup).

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.19: Interest in participatory activities among local people

	Yes (%)	No (%)	M	Mode	Mdn	SD
<sup>1</sup> attended a parent's meeting at school	82.5	17.5	1.177	1.000	1.000	0.383
<sup>2</sup> attended a meeting of political party	22.4	77.6	1.776	2.000	2.000	0.418
worked actively in a political campaign	8.0	92.0	1.920	2.000	2.000	0.272
<sup>3</sup> taken part in a non-violent protest such as picketing, boycott, march, or sit-in	4.2	95.8	1.958	2.000	2.000	0.201

Value: yes = 1; no = 2; <sup>1</sup>  $\chi^2(1,n=237)=98.7721, p<.0000$ ; <sup>2</sup>  $\chi^2(1,n=237)=72.4093, p<.0000$ ;  
<sup>3</sup>  $\chi^2(1,n=237)=167.0928, p<.0000$ .

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.20: Having ideas for improving things including tourism in Urgup.

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
frequently	1	60	25.3	25.3	25.3
occasionally	2	80	33.8	33.8	59.1
seldom	3	82	21.9	21.9	81.0
never	4	45	19.0	19.0	100
Total		237	100	100	

Mode = 2; Mdn = 2; M = 2.346; Range = 3; SD = 1.057,  $\chi^2(3,n=237)=11.5907, p<.0089$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.21: Accessibility of representative of public

Value Label	Value	*Municipal Governor (%)	**Member of Parliament (%)
very difficult	1	21.9	50.8
difficult	2	10.1	19.9
moderate	3	14.8	13.1
easy	4	31.6	8.9
very easy	5	21.5	7.2
Total		100	100
Mode; Mdn; M; SD		2; 2; 3.207; 1.457	1; 1; 2.017; 1.285
Valid Cases; Missing cases		237; 0	236; 1

\* $\chi^2(4,n=237)=31.5865, p<.0000$ ; \*\* $\chi^2(4,n=237)=151.7119, p<.0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

### Willingness of Local Bodies to Support Community Participation in the TDP

Table 7.22: If you were advising the Ministry of Tourism, which of the following options would you support?

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly encourage CP* in TDP	1	11	50	50
encourage CP* in the TDP	2	11	50	50
discourage CP* in the TDP	3	-	-	100
strongly discourage CP* in TDP	4	-	-	100
do not know	5	-	-	100
missing		-	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 1; Mdn = 1.5; M = 1.5; Range = 1; SD = 0.512; \*CP= community participation

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.23: Do you believe more participation in tourism policy making would be desirable or undesirable?.

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
undesirable	1	-	-	-
desirable	2	22	100	100
do not know	3	-	-	100
missing		-	-	100
		-	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 2; M = 2; Range = 0.0; SD = 0.0;

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.24: Community participation in the decision making process of tourism development would be a better development approach to tourism development

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	-	-	-
disagree	2	1	4.5	4.5
in the middle	3	-	-	4.5
agree	4	17	77.3	81.8
strongly agree	5	4	18.2	100
missing		-	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 4; Mdn = 4.143; M = 4.091; Range = 3; SD= 0.610

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

### Local Bodies' Views on Benefits of the Community Participation in the TDP

Table 7.25: If local people invest in tourism development, this will help much more local development than if outsiders invest in the tourism industry

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	2	9.1	9.1
disagree	2	3	13.6	22.7
in the middle	3	-	-	22.7
agree	4	5	22.7	45.5
strongly agree	5	12	54.5	100
missing		-	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 5; Mdn = 4.412; M = 4; Range = 4; SD= 1.414

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.26: Sufficient consultation and planning at the local level will facilitate acceptance and implementation of tourism development programs

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	-	-	-
disagree	2	1	4.5	4.5
in the middle	3	-	-	4.5
agree	4	16	72.7	77.3
strongly agree	5	5	22.7	100
missing		-	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 4; Mdn = 4.190; M = 4.136; Range = 3; SD= 0.640

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Table 7.27: Destination community is an important component of the tourism product**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	-	-	-
disagree	2	-	-	-
in the middle	3	1	4.8	4.8
agree	4	12	57.1	61.9
strongly agree	5	8	38.1	100
missing		1	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 4; Mdn = 4.350; M = 4.333; Range = 2; SD= 0.577

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Table 7.28: Successful tourism developments depends on strong community support.**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	-	-	-
disagree	2	-	-	-
in the middle	3	-	-	-
agree	4	9	40.9	40.9
strongly agree	5	13	59.1	100
missing		-	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 5; Mdn = 4.591; M = 4.591; Range = 1; SD= 0.503

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Table 7.29: Community involvement represents a techniques of limiting negative social impacts.**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	-	-	-
disagree	2	-	-	-
in the middle	3	1	4.8	4.8
agree	4	15	71.4	76.2
strongly agree	5	5	23.8	100
missing		1	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 4; Mdn = 4.2; M = 4.190; Range = 2; SD= 0.512

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Table 7.30: Community participation will achieve a better distribution of the benefits of tourism development.**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	-	-	-
disagree	2	-	-	-
in the middle	3	1	4.5	4.5
agree	4	9	40.9	45.5
strongly agree	5	12	54.5	100
missing		-	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 5; Mdn = 4.524; M = 4.5; Range = 2; SD= 0.598

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research



Table 7.31: If local people are involved in the decision making process of tourism development, desires and needs of local community will be better reflected

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	-	-	-
disagree	2	3	13.6	13.6
in the middle	3	1	4.5	18.2
agree	4	10	45.5	63.6
strongly agree	5	8	36.4	100
missing		-	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 4; Mdn = 4.222; M = 4.045; Range = 3; SD= 0.999

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

### Expected Nature of Community Participation by the Local Bodies

Table 7.32: Who should make decisions on tourism development in Urgup?

Decision makers	n	*M	Mdn	Ranking	SD
Ministry of Tourism	20	2.3	2	5	1.4
Elected local government	20	2.65	2.5	3	1.3
Appointed local government	20	2.5	2	4	1.2
Appointed and elected government by consulting local people	20	3.75	4	1	1.4
A committee elected by public for specially developing and managing tourism	20	3	3	2	1.5
Market forces	20	1.55	1	6	0.759

Value & Value Label: 1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= in the middle, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree

\*The higher the M score, the stronger the agreement is.

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.33: What is an appropriate role for the community be in tourism development?

Value Label	n	yes %	no %	m mode	SD	v*
*LP should take the leading role as entrepreneurs and workers	19	68.4	31.6	1.3 1	0.478	0.32
*LP should have a voice in decision-making process of tourism development	19	26.3	73.7	1.7 2	0.452	0.26
*LP should be consulted, and accordingly tourism policies should be re-considered	19	52.6	47.4	1.4 1	0.513	0.47
*LP should not participate by any means	19	5.3	94.7	1.9 2	0.229	0.05

Value: 1 = yes, 2 = no; \*LP = local people;

v\* = The higher the variation ratio (v) the more poorly the mode reflects overall distribution.

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.34: Local people should have a legal right to be involved in tourism development process

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	-	-	-
disagree	2	-	-	-
in the middle	3	2	9.5	9.5
agree	4	9	42.9	52.4
strongly agree	5	10	47.6	100
missing		1	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 5; Mdn = 4.421; M = 4.381; Range = 2; SD= 0.669

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.35: Local people should be consulted about the scale and form of tourism development, but the final decision should be made by the formal bodies

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	1	4.5	4.5
disagree	2	1	4.5	9.1
in the middle	3	4	18.2	27.3
agree	4	10	45.5	72.7
strongly agree	5	6	27.3	100
missing			missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 4; Mdn = 4; M = 3.864; Range = 4; SD= 1.037

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.36: Local people rather than outsiders should be financially supported to invest in tourism development

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	-	-	
disagree	2	-	-	
in the middle	3	1	4.5	4.5
agree	4	12	54.5	59.1
strongly agree	5	9	40.9	100
missing			missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 4; Mdn = 4.381; M = 4.364; Range = 2; SD= 0.581

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

## Local Bodies' Views on Barriers to Community Participation in the TDP

Table 7.37: Barriers at operational level

Value Label	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	n SD	Mdn M
There is a lack of co-ordination between central authorities and local bodies	13.6	18.2	9.1	36.4	22.7	22 1.39	3.6 3.3
There is a lack of co-ordination between local authorities and private sector	9.1	27.3	9.1	50	4.5	22 1.2	3.3 3.1
Most residents are not well-informed and lack of information contained in the TDP	4.5	4.5	18.2	45.5	27.3	22 1.0	4 3.9
Central bodies do not take into account local conditions under which the plan will be implemented	-	14.3	9.5	66.7	9.5	21 .845	3.9 3.7

Value & Value Label: 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= in the middle, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.38: How would you describe the current knowledge of the community about tourism

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
very little	1	-	-	-
little	2	6	28.6	28.6
moderate	3	11	52.4	81
great	4	4	19	100
very great	5	-	-	100
missing		1	missing	
Total		22	100	

Mode = 4; Mdn = 2.882; M = 2.905; Range = 2; SD= 0.700

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.39: Structural Barriers to Community Participation in the TDP

Value Label	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	n SD	Mdn M
lack of legal structure to involve community in tourism development process	-	9.1	9.1	40.9	40.9	22 .941	4.27 4.13
Financing for tourism development is not available at local level	4.8	14.3	4.8	47.6	28.6	21 1.16	4 3.8
lack of human resources to invest in, develop and manage tourism development	9.1	18.2	13.6	36.4	22.7	22 1.3	3.6 3.5
lack of expertise in tourism planning	9.1	4.5	4.5	63.6	18.2	22 1.11	4 3.77
lack of will at central level	4.5	31.8	13.6	36.4	13.6	22 1.19	3.27 3.22
CP* into development process can only serve to politicize it and lay it aside from its professional base.	4.5	36.4	27.3	22.7	9.1	22 1.09	2.85 2.95
CP* can demand significant time and effort of professionals to complete projects, thus it should not be implemented.	9.1	45.5	22.7	13.6	9.1	22 1.29	2.53 2.68

Value & Value Label: 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= in the middle, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree

\*CP= community participation

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.40: Cultural barriers

Value Label	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	n SD	Mdn M
Community has difficulty in communicating with formal bodies	22.7	18.2	-	40.9	18.2	22 1.52	3.23 3.13
low level of interest in and awareness about socio-cultural, economic and political issues including tourism among local people.	13.6	18.2	27.3	31.8	9.1	22 1.21	3.15 3.04

Value & Value Label: 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= in the middle, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree

\*CP= community participation

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

### Local Bodies' Views on Promoting Community Participation in the TDP

Table 7.41: Strategies to promote participatory tourism development

Value Label	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	n SD	Mdn M
*LP should be helped to develop their capabilities to participate in the TDP	-	-	-	72.1	27.3	22 .45	4.27 4.27
*LP should be educated to take advantage of tourism development	-	9.1	-	59.1	31.8	22 .83	4.35 4.13
Greater awareness and interest among members of local community may be achieved if meaningful and comprehensible information contained in the reports and plans is disseminated	-	-	4.5	45.5	50	22 .59	4.47 4.55
Delegating some of the planning functions, tasks and authorities from MT and SPO to local bodies is necessary for effective community participation in the TDP	-	4.5	-	54.5	40.9	22 .71	4.38 4.38

Value & Value Label: 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= in the middle, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree

\*CP= community participation; \*LP = local people.

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

### Willingness of the Local Community to Participate in the TDP

Table 7.42: Interests in attending workshops and meeting on the following issues

	1%	2%	3%	n	SD	M	Mdn	Ranking
<sup>a</sup> Sport	26.3	26.3	47.3	237	.834	2.2	2.3	4
<sup>b</sup> Agriculture	43.1	21.1	35.9	237	.888	1.9	1.9	3
<sup>c</sup> Education	80.5	9	10.4	237	.648	1.3	1.2	1
<sup>d</sup> Health	79.1	12.3	8.6	237	.619	1.3	1.2	1
<sup>e</sup> Tourism	72.2	10.1	17.6	237	.776	1.5	1.3	2

Value & value label: 1 = absolutely yes, 2 = I do not know, 3 = absolutely no

<sup>a</sup>  $\chi^2$  (2, n = 205) = 18.0390, p < .0001; <sup>b</sup>  $\chi^2$  (2, n = 209) = 15.7990, p < .0004; <sup>c</sup>  $\chi^2$  (2, n = 221) = 221.7104, p < .000

<sup>d</sup>  $\chi^2$  (2, n = 220) = 207.7182, p < .0000; <sup>e</sup>  $\chi^2$  (2, n = 227) = 156.5903, p < .0000

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.43: Do you want to be informed before tourism development take places in the area?

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
yes	1	217	91.9	91.9
no	2	19	8.1	100
missing value	99	1	---	
Total		237		100

Mode = 1; Mdn = 1; M = 1.081; Range = 1; SD= .273; v = .81;  $\chi^2(1, n = 236) = 166.1186, p < .0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.44: Would you like the opportunity personally to express your views on tourism?

Value label	Value	Frequency	Valid percent	Cum Percent
absolutely yes	1	178	75.2	75.2
undecided	2	50	21.3	96.5
absolutely no	3	8	3.5	100
Missing	99	1	---	---
Total		237		100

Mode = 1; Mdn = 1; M = 1.321; Range = 2; SD= .817;  $\chi^2(3, n = 237) = 341.0422, p < .0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.45: If you were advising the Ministry of Tourism, which of the following options would you support?

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly encourage CP* in TDP	1	79	33.5	33.5
encourage CP* in the TDP	2	129	54.7	88.1
I do not know	3	22	9.3	97.5
discourage CP* in the TDP	4	3	1.3	98.7
strongly discourage CP* in TDP	5	3	1.3	100
missing	99	1	---	
Total		237		100

Mode = 2; Mdn = 1.755; M = 1.822; Range = 4; SD = 0.751; \*CP= community participation  
 $\chi^2(4, n = 236) = 259.4237, p < .0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

## Expected Nature of Participation by the Local Community

Table 7.46: Who should make decisions on tourism development in Urgup?

Decision makers	n	*M	Mdn	Ranking	SD
Ministry of Tourism $\chi^2(4, n = 236) = 199.4237, p < .0000$	236	1.839	1	6	1.159
Elected local government $\chi^2(4, n = 234) = 170.5299, p < .0000$	234	1.936	2	5	1.023
Appointed local government $\chi^2(4, n = 235) = 135.1915, p < .0000$	235	2.021	2	4	1.111
Appointed and elected local government by consulting local people $\chi^2(4, n = 236) = 261.7119, p < .0000$	236	4.305	5	1	0.981
A committee elected by public for specially developing and managing tourism $\chi^2(4, n = 233) = 188.7811, p < .0000$	233	4.107	4	2	1.168
Market forces $\chi^2(4, n = 235) = 120.9787, p < .0000$	235	2.055	2	3	.979

Value & Value Label: 1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= in the middle, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree; \*The higher the M score, the stronger the agreement is.

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.47: What is an appropriate role for the community in tourism development?

Value Label	n	yes %	no %	M mode	SD	v*
*LP should take the leading role as entrepreneurs and workers $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 88.7131, p < .0000$	237	80.6	19.4	1.194 1	.396	.19
*LP should have a voice in decision-making process of tourism development $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 120.5106, p < .0000$	237	85.7	14.3	1.43 1	.351	.14
*LP should be consulted, and accordingly tourism policies should be re-considered $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 55.8017, p < .0000$	237	25.7	74.3	1.743 2	.438	.26
*LP should not participate by any means $\chi^2 = \text{Only one cell generated. Test abandoned}$	237	4.6	95.4	1.954 2	.211	.046

Value: 1 = yes, 2 = no; \*LP = local people;

v\* = The higher the variation ratio (v) the more poorly the mode reflects overall distribution.

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.48: Which of the following means of involving local people like you in tourism development are suitable?

Value Label	n	yes %	no %	M	mode	SD	v*
? attending seminar, conference $\chi^2(1, n = 236) = 2.0508, p < .15$	236	45.3	54.7	1.547	2	.499	.453
responding survey $\chi^2(1, n = 236) = 69.4237, p < .000$	236	22.9	77.1	1.771	2	.421	.229
holding referendum $\chi^2(1, n = 236) = 140.3539, p < .000$	235	62.6	37.4	1.374	1	.485	.374
encouraging LP* to invest in and work for tourism industry $\chi^2(1, n = 236) = 14.8128, p < .0001$	236	88.6	11.4	1.114	1	.319	.114

Value: 1 = yes, 2 = no; \*LP = local people;

v\* = The higher the variation ratio (v) the more poorly the mode reflects overall distribution.

? The chi-square test for goodness of fit shows that the null hypothesis is not rejected. In other words, distribution scores of these variables do not likely exist in the population. Thus, they cannot represent the whole population (the local community in Urgup).

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

### Local People's Views on Barriers to Community Participation in the TDP

Table 7.49: Views of local people on barriers to community participation in the TDP.

Value Label	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	n	SD	Mdn
lack of adequate information made available to us on tourism issues $\chi^2(4, n = 235) = 275.2340, p < .0000$	.9	3.8	2.6	43.4	49.4	235	.786	4
We do not want to express our opinions about tourism issues to the formal bodies because we feel nothing will be done $\chi^2(4, n = 236) = 60.3136, p < .0000$	12.3	13.6	10.2	28.4	35.6	236	1.4	4

Value & Value Label: 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= in the middle, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

### Local People's Views on Promoting Community Participation in the TDP

Table 7.50: Views of local people on strategies to promote community participation in the TDP.

Value Label	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	n	SD	Mdn
We should have some training to work for, to invest in and to express our opinions about the tourism industry $\chi^2(4, n = 236) = 160.9491, p < .0000$	5.9	6.8	7.6	44.9	34.7	236	1.11	4
Formal authorities should directly communicate to encourage us to express our opinions about tourism issues $\chi^2(4, n = 234) = 169.0342, p < .0000$	3	5.6	10.3	41.9	39.3	234	.992	4

Value & Value Label: 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= in the middle, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

## Expectations of the Local Community from Tourism Development

Table 7.51: What are your expectations from tourism development?

Value Label	n	yes %	no %	M Mode	SD	v*
Tourism should create jobs for LP* $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 141.3038, p < .0000$	237	88.6	11.4	1.114 1	.318	.114
?Tourism development should create opportunity particularly for LP* to invest in $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 2.2321, p < .14$	237	45.1	54.9	1.549 2	.499	.451
Type of tourism development should be compatible with local values $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 27.6835, p < .0000$	237	67.1	32.9	1.329 1	.471	.329
Tourism development should take place out of the local settlement $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 81.5232, p < .0000$	237	20.7	79.3	1.793 2	.406	.207
A community development tax should be taken from business in the tourism industry $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 33.4219, p < .0000$	237	68.8	31.2	1.312 1	.464	.312
Small scale locally owned tourism establishments should be supported $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 39.7004, p < .0000$	237	70.5	29.5	1.295 1	.457	.295
?Tourists should be informed to act by considering local values $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = .2068, p < .65$	237	51.5	48.5	1.485 1	.501	.485

Value: 1 = yes, 2 = no; \*LP = local people;

v\* = The higher the variation ratio (v) the more poorly the mode reflects overall distribution.

? The chi-square test for goodness of fit shows that the null hypothesis is not rejected. In other words, distribution scores of these variables do not likely exist in the population. Thus, they cannot represent the whole population (the local community in Urgup).

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

## Views of the Local Community on Tourism Development in General

Table 7.52: In general what is your feeling about the tourism development?

Value Label	n	yes %	no %	M Mode	SD	v*
Government authorities do good jobs $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 221.2700, p < .0000$	237	1.7	98.3	1.983 2	.129	.017
Lacks direction $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 187.8523, p < .0000$	237	94.5	5.5	1.055 1	.228	.055
<sup>+</sup> It is not targetted our needs $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 177.3207, p < .0000$	237	93.2	6.8	1.068 1	.251	.065
It is pretty much for the benefit of a few big interests $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 433.0886, p < .0000$	237	97	3	1.068 1	.667	.03
Government made an honest effort to reconcile interests $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 217.4219, p < .0000$	237	2.1	97.9	1.979 2	.144	.021

Value: 1 = yes, 2 = no; \*LP = local people; <sup>+</sup>1 = yes, it is not targetted our needs, 2 = no, it is targetted our needs; v\* = The higher the variation ratio (v) the more poorly the mode reflects overall distribution.

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research



**Table 7.53: If you were in charge, what would you recommend?**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly encourage tourism dev.	1	99	41.8	41.8
encourage tourism development	2	96	40.5	82.3
I do not know	3	35	14.8	97
discourage tourism development	4	7	3.0	100
strongly discourage tourism dev.	5	—	—	
missing	99	—		
Total			100	100

Mode = 1; Mdn = 2; M = 1.789; Range = 3; SD = 0.801;  $\chi^2(3, n = 237) = 105.4641, p < .0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Table 7.54: What do you consider to be the main impacts of foreign tourists on the traditional values of your community?**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
significantly improve	1	3	1.3	1.3
improve somewhat	2	21	8.9	10.1
I do not know	3	37	15.6	25.7
not make any difference	4	59	24.9	50.6
worsen somewhat	5	81	34.2	84.8
significantly worsen	6	36	15.2	100
Missing	99	—	—	
Total		237		100

Mode = 5; Mdn = 4.4; M = 4.3; Range = 5; SD = 1.227;  $\chi^2(5, n = 237) = 96.0886, p < .0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**Table 7.55: How satisfied are you with current tourism development?**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Extremely dissatisfied	1	113	47.9	47.9
dissatisfied	2	73	30.9	78.9
in the middle	3	20	8.5	87.8
satisfied	4	26	11	98.3
Extremely satisfied	5	4	1.7	100
Missing	99	1	—	
Total		237		100

Mode = 1; Mdn = 2; M = 1.877; Range = 4; SD = 1.071;  $\chi^2(4, n = 236) = 170.5678, p < .0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

### Local People's Knowledge of Tourism

**Table 7.56: Is your area considered as a tourism region by MT?**

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid percent	Cum percent
yes	1	200	84.4	84.4
I do not know	2	34	14.3	98.7
no	3	3	1.3	100
Missing value	99	—		
Total		237		100

Mode = 1; Mdn = 1.158; M = 1.169; Range = 2; SD = .408;  $\chi^2(2, n = 237) = 284.0760, p < .0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.57: Do you know what kind of incentives are offered for tourism?

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid percent	Cum percent
yes	1	19	8.1	8.1
no	2	217	91.9	100
Missing value	99	1	--	---
Total		237		100

Mode = 2; Mdn = 2; M = 1.919; Range = 1; SD = .273;  $\chi^2(1, n = 236) = 166.1186, p < .0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research.

Table 7.58: Please write three official organisation which have authority to decide on giving incentives to tourism related business?

Value Label	n	yes %	no %	M Mode	SD	v*
Ministry of Tourism $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 10.1308, p < .0015$	237	39.7	60.3	1.603 2	.490	.397
State Planning Organisation $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 221.2700, p < .0000$	237	1.7	98.3	1.983 2	.129	.017
Development Bank $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 221.2700, p < .0000$	237	1.7	98.3	1.983 2	.129	.017

Value: 1 = yes, 2 = no; v\* = The higher the variation ratio (v) the more poorly the mode reflects overall distribution.

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.59: Have you done either of the following within the last few years?

Value Label	n	yes %	no %	M Mode	SD	v*
gone on holiday $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 229.1646, p < .0000$	237	21.5	78.1	1.869 2	1.376	.215
visited freinds and relatives out of Nevsehir $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 2.6371, p < .10$	237	55.3	44.7	1.447 1	.498	.447
worked for a tourism related business $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 281.6202, p < .0000$	237	15.6	84	1.848 2	.371	.156

Value: 1 = yes, 2 = no; v\* = The higher the variation ratio (v) the more poorly the mode reflects overall distribution.

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.60: Some experts say that community does not have enough knowledge to give opinions on tourism development

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
strongly disagree	1	44	18.6	18.6
disagree	2	103	43.6	62.3
in the middle	3	40	16.9	79.2
agree	4	40	16.9	96.2
strongly agree	5	9	3.8	100
missing		1	missing	
Total		237	100	100

Mode = 2; Mdn = 2; M = 2.436; Range = 4; SD = 1.092,  $\chi^2(4, n = 236) = 99.2966, p < .0000$

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

Table 7.61: How do you gain your knowledge about tourism?

Value Label	n	yes %	no %	M Mode	SD	v*
trough newspaper $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 44.0847, p < .0000$	236	28.4	71.6	1.716 2	.452	.284
through the local radio and television $\chi^2(1, n = 236) = 3.3220, p < .07$	236	55.9	44.1	1.441 1	.498	.441
through special tourism newsletters $\chi^2(1, n = 236) = 92.8136, p < .0000$	236	18.6	81.4	1.814 2	.390	.186
through friends and relatives $\chi^2(1, n = 237) = 73.8305, p < .0000$	236	22	78	1.780 2	.415	.22
through public meeting and hearing $\chi^2(1, n = 236) = 143.4576, p < .0000$	236	11	89	1.890 2	.314	.11
through formal education at school $\chi^2(1, n = 235) = 115.8511, p < .0000$	235	14.9	85.1	1.851 2	.357	.149
? by personal experience $\chi^2(1, n = 236) = 2.0508, p < .15$	236	45.3	54.7	1.547 2	.499	.453

Value: 1 = yes, 2 = no; v\* = The higher the variation ratio (v) the more poorly the mode reflects overall distribution.

? The chi-square test for goodness of fit shows that the null hypothesis is not rejected. In other words, distribution scores of these variables do not likely exist in the population. Thus, they cannot represent the whole population (the local community in Urgup).

Source: SPSS Output from data collected through field research

**APPENDIX - 11:**  
**The Relationships Between Variables Related to Objective Two and Some  
Other Variables**

## **Appendix - 11: The Relationships Between Variables Related to Objective One and Some Other Variables**

To examine the relationships between dependent variables such as the accessibility of public representatives, involvement in participatory activity, etc. and independent variables such as age, education level attained, income groups etc., a chi-square statistical measure was performed. In order to determine direction and strength of the relationships between variables, Cramer's V or Kendall's Tau-c correlation coefficients were employed. In the following these relationships will be looked at in some detail.

**The relationship between accessibility of public representative and level of income and education:** The chi-square statistical measure indicate that there is a relationship between accessibility of members of parliament and level of income ( $\chi^2$  (24, n = 237) = 36, p = .05). The result of the Cramers' V (.43, p = .05) correlation analysis shows that this relationship is positive and at moderate level. That is to say, the higher the level of income of the local people, the more accessible the members of parliament.

However, it is found that there is no association between accessibility of municipal governor and income groups. The chi-square correlation analysis shows that there are no associations between level of education of the respondents from the local community and accessibility of the public representatives such as member of parliament and the municipal governor in Urgup.

**The relationship between involvement in participatory activities and level of education:** There is an association between working actively in a political campaign and level of education ( $\chi^2$  (4, n = 232) = 14.19379, p = .001, cell with expected frequency less than 5 is 50 percent<sup>2</sup>). But the strength of this association is weak (Cramers' V .25, p = .007). However there is no relationship between attending a meeting of a political party and parent's meeting at school and level of education.

**The relationship between having ideas to improve things including the tourism industry and working in the tourism industry:** The analysis shows that there is an association between having ideas to improve things including the tourism industry in Urgup and working in the tourism sector ( $\chi^2$ , (3, n = 237) = 10.17120, p =

.025). The correlation coefficient of Kendall's Tau-c (.22 significant at  $p = .002$ ) indicates that it is a positive weak association.

Based upon the above correlation analysis, it can be inferred that the people who worked for the tourism industry have more ideas on how to improve the tourism industry than the people who did not work for the tourism industry. It may be further inferred that increasing the number of the local people as employees will increase the interests of the local people in tourism development.

**The relationship between having ideas to improve things including the tourism sector and attending courses to take advantage of the tourism development:** There is an association between these two variables ( $\chi^2 (3, n = 237) = 6.46787, p = .09$ , cells with expected frequency less than 5 is 50 percent<sup>2</sup>), but according to correlation coefficient of Kendall's Tau-c (.07), the strength of this correlation is negligible

The relationships between some of the other variables related to objective one were also analysed, but the results of the analysis were not presented here since there was no association between them or the results were statistically insignificant. Moreover, the chi-square statistical test was not utilised since some of the distribution scores of variables could not meet the assumptions of chi-square statistical test<sup>2</sup>.

**Note-2:**

Kinnear and Gray (1994:165) and Norusis, 1986 stated that 'We recommend an additional option for computing the expected cell frequencies. This enables the user to check that the prescribed minimum requirements for the valid use of chi-square have been fulfilled. Although there has been debate about these, the practice of leading authorities has been to proscribe the use of chi-square when:

- 1- In 2 x 2 tables, any of the expected frequencies are less than 5.
- 2- In larger tables, any of the expected frequencies is less than 1 or more than 20 % are less than 5'.

**APPENDIX - 12:**  
**The Relationships Between Variables Related to the Local Bodies' Views on  
Community Participation in the TDP and Some other Variables**

## **Appendix - 12: The Relationships Between Variables Related to the Local Bodies' Views on Community Participation in TDP and Some Other Variables**

To examine the relationships between some dependent and independent variables regarding the local bodies views' on various issues of community participation in the TDP and some other variables, a bivariate correlation analysis (Spearman correlation ( $r_s$ )) Cramer's V statistic and a chi-square statistical measure were performed. In the following these relationships will be looked at in some detail.

**The relationship between the willingness of the local bodies and the length of residency:** The correlation analysis indicates that there is a strong relationship (Cramer's V .55,  $p = .19$ ) between the willingness of the local bodies to support community participation in TDP (q11) and the length of residency of the respondents in Urgup. Moreover, the correlation between the variable 'Community participation in decision making process of tourism development would be a better development approach to tourism development' (q13) and the length of residency of the respondents is found as very strong<sup>3</sup> (Cramer's V = .68,  $p = .05$ ).

Based upon the correlation analysis between the willingness of the local bodies to support participatory tourism development approach and the length of residency of the members of the local bodies, it can be said that the longer the members of the local bodies stay in Urgup, the more they support community participation in TDP.

**The relationship between willingness of the local bodies and barriers to community participation in TDP:** Correlation analysis shows that there are negative weak relationships between the willingness of the local bodies to support participatory tourism development approach (q11) and the variables<sup>5</sup> (q24, q26 and q27) regarding the barriers at operational level. Their correlation coefficients are - .21 ( $p = .35$ ), - .03 ( $p = .93$ ) and - .12 ( $p = .16$ ) respectively. Only variable<sup>5</sup> q25 is correlated positively with q11, but at a very negligible level<sup>3</sup> ( $r_s = .021$ ,  $p = .93$ ).

Although it can be inferred that the more the members of the local bodies feel the existence of the barriers at operational level, the less they want to support participatory tourism development approach, this interpretation may not be creditable since the associations between variables are weak.



The correlation analysis reflects that the associations between the variables<sup>6</sup> regarding the structural barriers (q29 and q31-35) and the willingness of the local bodies (q11) are negligible with exceptions of q30 and q10. The correlation coefficient<sup>3</sup> of q11 and q30 (financing for the tourism development is not available at local level and must come from outside interests) is .40 ( $p = .08$ ). The correlation coefficient<sup>3</sup> of q11 and q10 (how would you describe current knowledge of community about tourism in Urgup) is .32 ( $p = .18$ ).

Based upon the correlation coefficient of q11 and q30, it can be argued that the more the respondents are aware of lack of financial resources at local level, somehow the more they support the community participation. Moreover, as can be understood from  $r_s$  of the q11 and q10, the more the respondents feel that the knowledge of the local community on tourism is satisfactory, the more they want to support the community participation.

The correlation analysis also mirrors that there is a positive *strong relationship* ( $r_s = .51$ ,  $p = .03$ ) between the variable (q37) 'there is a low level of interest in and awareness about socio-cultural, economic and political issues including tourism among local people in Urgup' regarding the cultural barriers and the willingness of the local bodies to support participatory tourism development approach (q11). The relationship between the statement (q36) 'community has difficulty in communicating with formal bodies' and variable q11 is moderate<sup>3</sup> ( $r_s = .34$ ,  $p = .15$ ).

Based upon the correlation analysis between the cultural barriers and willingness of the local bodies to support the community participation, it can be said that the more the members of the local bodies are aware of existence of the cultural barriers, somehow the more willingly they support the community participation.

The correlation analysis shows that there are moderate associations between variable q8e (representing community participation as citizen power) and variables<sup>7</sup> q18, q19, q20, q21 and q22. The correlation coefficients are .33 ( $p = .18$ ), .28 ( $p = .26$ ), .35 ( $p = .16$ ), .38 ( $p = .13$ ), and .30 ( $p = .23$ ) respectively. This means that at a moderate level the more the respondents believe in the variables regarding the benefits of the participatory tourism development approach, the more they support community participation as citizen power<sup>3</sup>.

The correlation ( $r_s = -.51$ ) between variables q8f and q18 indicates that the more the respondents believe in the statement q18 'Sufficient consultation and planning at the local level will facilitate acceptance and implementation of tourism development program', the more they do not support the statement 'Market forces should decide on tourism development'.

The correlation analysis (Spearman correlation) reveals that there are positive moderate to strong associations between these variables<sup>5</sup> q24, q25 and q27 regarding the barriers at operational level and the variable q8d 'Elected and appointed local authorities should decide on tourism development by consulting local people'. The correlation coefficients<sup>3</sup> ( $r_s$ ) are .43 ( $p = .08$ ), .50 ( $p = .04$ ) and .40 ( $p = .10$ ) respectively. In other words, the more the respondent recognised the existence of the barriers at operational level, the more they support community consultation.

The associations between variables<sup>6</sup> q29, q30 and q32 regarding the structural barriers to community participation in TDP and variable q8e 'A committee elected by the public specially for developing, managing and controlling tourism development should decide on all aspect of tourism development in the locality' indicate that the more the respondents perceive the existence of the structural barriers, the more they support community participation as citizen power. The correlation coefficients<sup>3</sup> ( $r_s$ ) are .49 ( $p = .04$ ), .41 ( $p = .10$ ) and .58 ( $p = .02$ ) respectively. Associations between variables<sup>6</sup> q30, q32 and q33 regarding the structural barriers and the variable q8d show that the more the respondents perceive the existence of the barriers, the more they support community participation as community consultation. The correlation coefficients<sup>3</sup> ( $r_s$ ) are .43 ( $p = .08$ ), .43 ( $p = .08$ ) and .43 ( $p = .09$ ) respectively. Moreover, associations between the variables<sup>6</sup> q29, q31, q32 and q34 regarding the structural barriers, and the variable q8a (Ministry of tourism should decide on all aspect of tourism) indicate that the more the respondents perceive the existence of the barriers, the less they support centralisation of the management of the tourism development issues. The correlation coefficients<sup>3</sup> are -.32 ( $p = .21$ ), -.29 ( $p = .26$ ), -.36 ( $p = .15$ ) and -.52 ( $p = .03$ ) respectively.

The correlation analysis also shows that there are moderate relationships between the variables<sup>8</sup> q8a, q8b, q8d, q8e and q8f regarding the expected nature of community participation and sense of belonging to Urgup (q49). More clearly, the

correlation analysis indicates that there are no clear pattern of relations between expected nature of community participation and (q49) sense of belonging to Urgup. The correlation coefficients<sup>3</sup> are .24 (p =.32), .36 (p =.12), .04 (p =.88), .35 (p =.13), .30 (p =.19) and .23 (p =.33) respectively.

There is a moderate relationship<sup>3</sup> (Cramer's V = .43, p = .66) between the statements<sup>8</sup> q8d and q47 'Education level attained' while there is a strong relationship (Cramer's V .84, p =.003) between variable<sup>8</sup> q8e and q45 'place of birth of the respondents'. There is also a strong relationship (Cramer's V .63, p =.04) between variable<sup>8</sup> q8e and variable q47 'Education level attained'.

There is a moderate relationship<sup>3</sup> (Cramer's V .47, p =.35) between length of residency of the respondents in Urgup and the statement q14 'Local people in Urgup should have a legal right to involve in the tourism development process'. There is a strong relationship<sup>3</sup> (Cramer's V = .52, p =.17) between length of residency of the respondents and q15 'Local people should be consulted about scale and form of tourism development, but the final decision should be made by the formal bodies'. There is a strong relationship<sup>3</sup> (Cramer's V = .59, p =.07) between the length of residency of the respondents and the statement q16 'Local people should be financially supported to invest in tourism development rather than outsiders'.

**Note-3:**

In the case of the local bodies' survey the questionnaires were applied to the whole population which is the local bodies in Urgup. Thus, the result of the statistical test of significance can be ignored. But these associations cannot be generalised at the nation wide in Turkey. As de Vaus (1996: 192) argued '... measures of association and tests of statistical significance provide different information ... a measure of association describes the extent of association between two variables. The significance test tells us whether that relationship is likely to be due simply to chance (sampling error) or whether it is to hold in the population from which the sample was drawn'.

**Note-5:**

q24- There is a lack of co-ordination between central authorities and local bodies in Urgup.

q25- There is a lack of co-ordination between local authorities and private sector in Urgup.

q26- Most residents are not well-informed and lack of information contained in the tourism development issues in Urgup.

q27- Although central bodies have prepared development plan, they do not take into account local conditions under which the plan will be implemented

**Note-6:**

q29- There is a lack of legal structure to involve community in tourism development process.

q31- There is a lack of human resources to invest in, develop and manage tourism development in this locality

q32- There is lack of expertise in tourism planning in Urgup.

q33- There is a lack of will at central level to develop and implement participatory tourism development strategy.

q34- Planning and development efforts are 'value-free' or politically neutral exercise. Hence, participation of community into development process can only serve to politicise it and lay it aside from its professional base.

q35- Participation of members of community can demand significant time and effort of professionals to complete projects, thus it should not be implemented.

**Note-7:**

q18- Sufficient consultation and planning at the local level will facilitate acceptance and implementation of tourism development program

q19- Destination community is an important component of tourism product.

q20- Successful tourism developments depends on strong community support.

q21- Community involvement represents a techniques of limiting negative social impacts.

q22- Community participation will achieve a better distribution of the benefits of tourism development.

**Note-8:**

q8a- Ministry of tourism should decide on all aspect of tourism

q8b- Elected local government should decide upon all aspect of tourism

q8d- Elected and appointed local authorities should decide on tourism development by consulting local people,

q8e- A committee elected by public specially for developing, managing and controlling tourism development should decide on all aspect of tourism development in the locality

q8f- Market forces should decide on tourism development

**APPENDIX - 13:**

**The Relationships Between Variables Regarding the Local Community's Views  
on Community Participation and Some other Variables**

### **Appendix - 13: The Relationships Between Variables Regarding the Local Community's Views on Community Participation in the TDP**

To examine the relationships between some dependent and independent variables, a bivariate correlation analysis (Spearman correlation ( $r_s$ ), Kendall-tau and Cramer's V statistic) and a chi-square statistical measure were performed. In the following these relationships will be looked at in some detail.

**The relationship between the willingness of the local community to participate in the TDP and demographic variables:** The correlation analysis of Kendall-tau shows that there is almost no relationship between the variable age (q36) and the variables q12e and q15 representing the willingness of the local community to participate in the TDP. The correlation coefficients are  $-.04$  ( $p = .44$ ) and  $.019$  ( $p = .77$ ) respectively. The chi-square statistical measure indicate that there is no association between the variable q40 representing occupation and the variables 12e and 15 representing the willingness of the local community to participate in the TDP. The Kendall-tau correlation analysis also reflects that there are no relationships between the variable education level attained (q41) and the variables q12e and q15 ( $-.074$ ,  $p = .22$  and  $-.088$ ,  $p = .14$  respectively).

The Spearman correlation analysis depicts that there is a weak negative relationship ( $r_s = -.20$ ,  $p = .006$ ) between the variable income (q45) and the variable q15. The relationship between the variable q45 and the variable 12e is negligible and statistically insignificant (Kendall-tau =  $-.08$ ,  $p = .22$ ).

Moreover there are negligible and statistically insignificant relations between variable q49 representing 'sense of belonging to Urgup' and the variables 12e and q15 representing the willingness of the local people to participate in the TDP (Kendall-tau =  $-.07$ ,  $p = .26$  and  $r_s = -.03$ ,  $p = .65$  respectively).

There is a weak relationship between the variable q34 representing frequency of using the tourism facilities in Urgup and the variable 12e (Kendall-tau =  $.17$ ,  $p = .009$ ) while there is a negligible and statistically insignificant relationship between the variable q34 and q15 (Kendall-tau =  $.06$ ,  $p = .33$ ).

As can be understood from the above figures regarding the correlation analysis, the relationships between the demographic variables and the variables

representing the will of the local community to participate in the TDP is not strong enough and statistically significant to infer some concrete conclusions.

**The relationship between potential for community participation in the TDP and the willingness of the local community:** The Spearman correlation analysis shows that there are negligible and statistically insignificant relationships between variables regarding the accessibility of the local (q5a) and central representatives (q5b) and variable q15. ( $r_s = -.012$ ,  $p = .85$  and  $r_s = .036$ ,  $p = .59$  respectively). The relationship between accessibility of the local representative (q5a) and variable 12e is also negligible and statistically insignificant (Kendall-tau =  $-.012$ ,  $p = .83$ ). The relationship between accessibility of central representative (q5b) and the variable q12e is weak, but statistically significant (Kendall-tau =  $.21$ ,  $p = .000$ ),

The correlation analysis depicts that there are not considerable relationships between the variables q12e and q15, and the variables q3a-q3e (see note-9). However, the chi-square statistical measure shows that there is an association between the variable q12e and q3c ( $\chi^2 (2, n = 227) = 16.223$ ,  $p = .04$ ), but Cramer's V ( $.17$ ,  $p = .04$ ) correlation analysis reflects that this association is weak.

**The relationship between the willingness and the current practice of community participation in the TDP:** The chi-square statistical measure depicts that there is no relationship between variable q15 and q6 'Have you attended any courses to take advantages of tourism development?' ( $\chi^2 (4, n = 236) = 2.58167$ ,  $p = .63$ ). The  $r_s$  also supports the result of chi-square statistical measure ( $r_s = .10$ ,  $p = .12$ ).

The chi-square statistical measure indicate that there seems to be an association between variable q12e and q6 ( $\chi^2 (2, n = 227) = 5.29727$ ,  $p = .07$ ). But Cramer's V statistic reflects that this association is weak (Cramer's V =  $.15$ ,  $p = .07$ ).

It was found that there is no relationship between variable q15 and q8 'Are you or any immediate member of your family working in the tourism industry in Urgup?' (Kendall-tau =  $.0065$ ,  $p = .92$ ). The chi-square statistical measure reflects that there is no association between variable q15 and q8a 'the type of jobs done by the respondents or their immediate member of family in the tourism industry' ( $\chi^2 (28, n = 226) = 32.55049$ ,  $p = .26$ ). On the other hand, there is a weak negative relationship

between variable q15 and q11 'Do you think current tourism development reflects your views?' (Kendall-tau = -.29, p =.000).

It was found that there is a very weak negative correlation between variable q12e and variable q9 'How much influence would say the local people like you have on the local issues including tourism development in Urgup' (Kendall-tau = - .12, p =.062) while the relationship between variable q15 and q9 is negligible ( $r_s = .044$ ,  $p = .49$ ).

The chi-square statistical measure depicts that there are not considerable and statistically significant association between the variables (q12e and q15) regarding the willingness of the local community to participate in the TDP, and the variables<sup>10</sup> (q29a- q29g) regarding the expectation of the local community from the tourism development.

**Note-10:**

29- What are your expectations from tourism development?

- Tourism should create jobs particularly for local people
- Tourism development should create opportunity particularly for local people to invest in
- Type of tourism development should be compatible with local values
- Tourism development should take place out the local settlement
- A community development tax should be taken from business in the tourism industry
- Small scale locally owned tourism establishments should be supported
- Tourists should be informed to act by considering local values



**APPENDIX - 14:**  
**The Relationships Between Variables Regarding Objectives Three and Some  
Other Variables**

## **Appendix - 14: The Relationship Between Variables Regarding Objectives Three and Some Other Variables**

To examine the relationships between some dependent and independent variables, a chi-square statistical measure and Cramer's V statistic were performed. In the following these relationships will be looked at in some detail.

**The relationship between variables regarding local community's views on the tourism development and demographic variables:** The chi-square test of statistical measure indicates that there is no relationship between the variable (q30) 'Government authorities do a good job' and the demographic variables such as marital status, occupation, age; level of education and income.

The chi-square test of statistical measure depicts that there is a relationship between marital status and the variable 'touristic development lacks of direction' ( $\chi^2$  (3, n = 232) = 8.34337, p = .04). But Cramer's V statistic (.19, p = .04) reveals that this relationship is weak.

The chi-square test of statistical measure shows that there is no relationship between the variable 'tourism development lacks direction' and some demographic variables such as education level attained, age and level of income.

The chi-square test of statistical measure mirrors that there are no or not considerable relationships between the variable 'the tourism development is not targeted at our needs' and demographic variables such as marital status, occupation and level of education attained.

However, there is a relationship between the variable 'tourism development is not targeted our needs' and age of the respondents ( $\chi^2$  (6, n= 224) = 20.68648, p = .002). According to Cramer's V statistic (.30, p = .002), this association is at a moderate level. Age groups of 26-30 (37.5 %), 36-40 (10.7 %) and 51-56 (13.3 %) relatively tend to state that 'the tourism development targeted their needs when compared with age groups of 19-25, 31-35, 41-45 and 46-50.

The chi-square test of statistical measure shows that there is no or not considerable (weak or negligible) relationship between variable 'tourism development is pretty much for benefit of a few big interests and demographic variables, and

between the variable 'government has made honest effort to reconcile interests' and the demographic variables.

The relationships between variables regarding objective three and the other variables were examined by employing the chi-square test of statistical measure and Spearman correlation analysis, but there seems not to be considerable and sensible relationship between the variables.

**APPENDIX - 15:**

**Multivariate Data Analysis: This Appendix contains factor analysis and multiple regression analysis of the local community's survey questionnaire.**

## **Appendix - 15: Multivariate Data Analysis of the Local Community's Survey**

To this point, descriptive data analysis such as measures of central tendencies (mode, mean and median), measure of dispersion (standard deviation, variation ratio and range) and to some extent some explanatory analysis such as chi-square statistical measure and correlation analysis have been done. This section will be an attempt to further explaining data analysis by utilising multivariate data analysis techniques such as factor analysis and multiple regression.

The main aim of this section is to give further insights into the relationships between the variables in the local community's survey. Factor analysis will be employed to reduce the number of variables by loading several variables on a factor which will be treated as a new variable to represent the original set of variables. The new variables created by the factor solution will be used for multiple regression. Since the local bodies' survey has not met the sample size or observed cases requirement of factor analysis and multiple regression, they were not employed for analysing the data regarding the local bodies' survey. In this context, it may be useful to provide a brief explanation of factor analysis and multiple regression.

### **Factor Analysis**

Factor analysis is a general label given to a group of multivariate statistical methods whose main purpose is to define the underlying structure in a data matrix (Hair et al, 1995). Indeed, it is a mathematically complex method of reducing a large set of variables to a smaller set of underlying variables designated as factors (de Vaus, 1996). Fortunately computer packages, particularly SPSS and Minitab, can handle the complicated calculations, so the researcher will focus on the logic and steps of factor analysis.

It has been stated that factor analysis as a multivariate data analysis technique recently was being increasingly used in tourism literature (Reid and Anderek, 1989). The primary aim of factor analysis is to find a way of condensing

the information contained in a number of original variables into smaller set of variables new with minimum loss of information(Lehmann, 1989 and de Vaus, 1996). In brief, factor analytic techniques can meet the following functions (Hair et al, 1995):

- Determine the structure of relationships by examining correlation among variables. In other words, it identifies a set of dimensions that are difficult to observe (latent) in a relative large set of variables. This common type of factor analysis is referred to as R factor analysis.
- Factor analysis also may be applied to a correlation matrix of individual respondents based on their characteristics, which referred to as Q factor analysis.
- Identify representative variables from a much larger set of variables for use in subsequent multivariate analyses such as multiple regression, correlation, or discriminant analysis.

Create a totally new set of variables, much smaller in number, to partially or completely replace the original set of variables for employing in subsequent statistical analysis such as dependence methods of regression, correlation, discriminant, or cluster analysis.

The researcher's main aim of using factor analysis is to reduce the number of variables by creating a new set of a much smaller number of variables for inclusion in subsequent multivariate analysis such as multiple regression. Thus, the R-type factor analysis approach was utilised.

Having given a broad perspective of factor analysis, it seems to be necessary to touch upon the assumptions under which factor analysis should be performed.

**Assumptions of factor analysis:** There are three main requirements which must be met before performing factor analysis (Kinnear and Gray, 1993, Hair et al, 1995 and de Vaus, 1996). These are as follows:

- the minimum number of cases, as a general rule, must be at least five times more than the number of variables to be employed in factor analysis (Hair et

al, 1995). The local community's survey with 237 respondents and 12 variables had fulfilled this requirement.

- **Bartlett Test of Sphericity**, which is a statistical test for the overall significance of all correlation within a correlation matrix, must be significance. In other words, if the associated probability is less than .05, Bartlett Test of Sphericity will be treated as significance. This means that the correlation matrix is suitable for further analysis (Kinnear and Gray, 1993, Hair et al, 1995). The Bartlett Test of Sphericity for the local community's survey is significance at .0000 (see Table 7.62).

Another requirement of factor analysis is the measure of sampling adequacy (MSA). This index ranges from zero to one, reaching one when each variable is perfectly predicted without errors by other variables. The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklun MSA must not be below .60. If it is below .60, it means factor analysis may be inappropriate for that set of variables. Dropping some variables that do not correlate well with any others should help (Kinnear and Gray, 1993, Hair et al, 1995 and de Vaus, 1996). The Kaiser-Meyer-Oklun MSA obtained for this study is .65 (see Table 7.62).

By taking into account the above assumptions of factor analysis, the R-type factor analysis approach will be used since this study is to group variables rather than respondents. At this point, it seems to be beneficial to provide a brief explanation about stages in factor analysis.

### **Steps in Factor Analysis**

There are four main steps in factor analysis which have been pursued in order to achieve the objectives of the analysis; data reduction. The four steps are:

- 1. Select the variables to be factor analysed:** It is based on correlation between variables that have nothing in common conceptually. The selected variables to be factor analysed should not be casually correlated. Instead, correlation between the variables are assumed to be produced by some third, common factor. In other words, when selecting variables to be analysed it should be avoided including

variables that are likely to be causes of others in the analysis. Moreover, the variables to be analysed should have at least a reasonable correlation with some other variables in the analysis (de Vaus, 1996). Hence, at the variable selection stage the correlation matrix of the variables was provided and inspected. Then some of the variables have been excluded since they were not correlated with any others in the analysis.

As mentioned, there is a statistic called KMO which ranges from 0 to 1. If this statistic yields high values above .60, then the correlation, on the whole, are sufficient to make factor analysis suitable (de Vaus, 1996). The statistics of KMO for the factor analysis regarding this study were above .65.

**2. Extracting an initial set of factors:** One common way of determining which factors to keep is to use a statistic called the eigenvalue. The higher the eigenvalue, the more variance it explains. To be retained, factors must have an eigenvalue greater than 1 (Hair et al, 1995). As recommended, the factors whose eigenvalues were greater than one were retained for further analysis.

**3 Extract a final set of factors by rotation:** The initial extraction of factors does not make it clear which variables belong most clearly to which factors. In an unrotated example, many variables can load on several factors and some factors will have almost every variable loading on them. Rotation can make more clear which variables belong to which factors. Hence, it can make the factors more interpretable. One of the most widely used methods of rotation is varimax rotation (Hair et al, 1995 and de Vaus, 1996). Although there are several other rotation methods such as equamax, quartimax and direct oblimin, the author preferred varimax rotation method by following the suggestions of leading authorities.

**4. Interpreting factor matrix and naming the factors:** It has been stated that as a rule of thumb, factor loadings greater than .30 are considered significant, loadings of + 0.40 or greater are considered more important and + 0.50 or greater as very significant (Hair *et al.* 1995). Factor loadings produced from factor analysis are used to indicate the correlation between each variable or attribute and each score. The higher the factor loading, the more significant is the attribute in interpreting the factor matrix. In this respect, the sign on a factor loading does not reflect anything about the strength of the relationship between the variable and the factor. The signs are interpreted just as with any other correlation



coefficients. On each factor, like signs reveal the variables are positively related, and opposite signs mean the variables are negatively related (de Vaus, 1996).

As suggested by the leading authorities, the analyst started with the first variable on the first factor and moved horizontally from left to right, looking for the highest loading for that variable in any factor in order to interpret the factor matrix. Even though loadings of at least 0.3 can be used (Child, 1970; Norusis, 1988 and de Vaus, 1996), the analyst had decided to use loadings of at least .40 as the cut-off point for assigning variables to factors as suggested by Walsh (1989).

It may be useful to note that 'the ability of the researcher to assign some meaning to the factors, or to interpret the nature of the variables, becomes an extremely important consideration in determining the number of factors to extract'. Variables with higher loadings are considered more important and have greater influence on the name or label selected to represent a factor (Hair et al, 1995: 388).

### **Factor Analysis of the Local Community Survey**

After a satisfactory factor solution had been derived, the analyst interpreted each factor and attempted to assign a logical name to each of them based on their component variables and the pattern of factor loadings in order to facilitate the presentation and understanding of the factor solution. While a brief explanation of how the names or labels of the factors derived by factors solutions are presented in the following, a simplified picture of the factor solutions and their names are given in Table 7.62.

As can be seen from Table 7.62, the variables related to the expected nature of the participation by the local community were loaded on Factor 1 reflected 'elected local government should decide upon all aspect of tourism', 'appointed local government should decide upon all aspect of tourism', 'Ministry of tourism should decide on all aspect of tourism' and 'Market forces should decide on the tourism development issues'. Therefore, this factor may be labeled 'non-participation'. The variables loaded on Factor 2 are related with the strategies to promote the community

participation. Therefore, Factor 2 can be labeled 'strategies'. Factor 3 is termed as 'barriers' due the fact that the loaded variables on this factor reflect the barriers to the community participation. Factor 4 was labeled 'accessibility of public representatives' since the two variables accessibility of local representatives and accessibility of central representatives seem to go together. Final factor, Factor 5 with two significant loadings on sense of belonging to Urgup and community knowledge of tourism to explain opinions of tourism development. According to Hair et al (1995), a variable with a higher loading influences to a great extent the name or label selected to represent a factor. Thus, the final factor can be labeled 'sense of belonging'.

**Table 7.62: Factors and Loadings**

<b>Factor 1: non-participation</b>	<b>Loadings</b>
Elected local government should decide upon all aspect of tourism	.84202
Appointed local government should decide upon all aspect of tourism	.77125
Ministry of tourism should decide on all aspect of tourism	.76619
Market forces should decide on the tourism development issues	.43617
<b>Eigenvalue (% 19.6 of variance)</b>	<b>2.35673</b>
<b>Factor 2: Strategies</b>	<b>Loadings</b>
the local people should have some training to work for, to invest in and to express our opinions about the tourism industry	.83352
formal authorities should directly communicate to encourages us to express our opinions about tourism issues	.77013
<b>Eigenvalue (% 12.2 of variance)</b>	<b>1.46247</b>
<b>Factor 3: Barriers</b>	<b>Loadings</b>
We do not want to express our opinions about tourism issues to the formal bodies because we feel nothing will be done.	.74858
There is a lack of adequate information made available to us on tourism issues.	.70872
<b>Eigenvalue (% 10.8 of variance)</b>	<b>1.29619</b>
<b>Factor 4: Accessibility of public representatives</b>	<b>Loadings</b>
accessibility of local representative	.72550
accessibility of central representative	.70678
<b>Eigenvalue (9.7 % of variance)</b>	<b>1.15959</b>
<b>Factor 5: Sense of belonging</b>	<b>Loadings</b>
Sense of belonging to Urgup	-.76576
Community knowledge of tourism to explain their opinions of tourism issues	.61779
<b>Eigenvalue (9.2 % of variance)</b>	<b>1.10737</b>

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = .64714

Bartlett Test of Sphericity = 315.59884; significance = .00000

% of explained cumulative variance = 61.5

12 variables loaded on five factors in the above factor analysis. These five factors will be treated as five new variables substitution for the 12 variables employed

in the factor analysis. Only factor 1 will be utilised as a dependent (criterion) variable (DV) and the other factors will be used as independent (predictor) variables (IVs) in the following multiple regression analysis.

### **Multiple Regression Analysis**

Multiple regression analysis is a powerful multivariate statistical technique that allows researchers to assess the relationship between one DV (dependent variable) and several IVs (independent variables). Multiple regression analysis is especially useful because it does not require that IVs be uncorrelated with one another. That is to say, one can assess the relationship between several IVs and one DV (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1983 and Erickson and Nosanchuk, 1992). It is also known as general linear modeling. Multiple regression can be used for two main research problems: prediction and explanation. These research problems are not mutually exclusive (Howell, 1997).

This research will employed multiple regression analysis to assess the degree and character of the relationship between DV and IVs by forming the variate of independent variables. Interpretation of the variate may rely on any of three perspectives: the importance of the IVs, the types of relationship found, or the interrelationships among the IVs (Hair et al, 1995). In brief, this study will utilise multiple regression analysis to explain selected dependent variables in the local community's survey.

Multiple regression has three main assumptions: normality, constant variance (heteroscedasticity) and linearity (see Norusis, 1990 and Hair et al, 1995). There is a sample size requirement for multiple regression. For example Howell (1997) notes that sample size (N) should exceed p (predictors, IVs) at least 50, or as a more liberal approach, it should be at least  $N = p + 40$ . However, Hair et al (1995: 105) suggested that 'a general rule is that the ratio should never fall below five, meaning that there should be five observation for each independent variable in the variate'.

The local bodies' survey did not meet the sample size or observed case size requirement of multiple regression analysis. Thus, this multivariate data analysis technique was not used for the local bodies' survey.

## Multiple Regression Analysis for the Local Community's Survey

The local community's survey satisfactorily met the sample size requirement of the multiple regression analysis. Four dependent variables have been determined for multiple regression analysis to represent willingness of the local community for participation in TDP, non-participation, consultation and active participation. A set of IVs has been employed to explain each of these DVs.

**Willingness of the local community for participation in TDP:** By keeping the sample size limitation in mind, 20 independent variables were employed to explain the DV willingness of the local community for participation in TDP.

**Table 7.63: Multiple regression for willingness of the local people to participate in TDP**

Significant Variables in the Equation	Beta	Tol.	VIF	Sig T
Frequency of having ideas for improving things including tourism in Urgup.	.22	.80	1.2	.004
Family income	-.20	.71	1.4	.01
Willingness to encourage tourism development	.31	.75	1.3	.0000
Tourism should create jobs particularly for the local people.	-.21	.87	1.2	.003

R Square ( $R^2$ ) = .33; Significance F = .0000

As presented in Table 7.63, significance  $t$  values of the variables in the multiple regression equation show that only four independent variables have statistically significant contribution to explain the DV. The F statistics indicates that the regression equation as whole is statistically significance at 0.0000. Tolerance values<sup>12</sup> (Tol) and variance inflation factors<sup>13</sup> (VIF) of each independent variables reflect that the multiple regression equation does not suffer from collinearity or multicollinearity<sup>11</sup>. According to Hair et al, tolerance value should be above .19 and VIF should be below 5.3 since very small tolerance values and very large VIF denote high collinearity or multicollinearity.

R square depicts that 33 % of variation in the independent variable was explained by the set of independent variables. In other words, 67 % of variation in the dependent variables were not explained. As standardized regression coefficients (beta coefficients) reveal that level of family income and tourism development should create jobs particularly for the local people as significance IVs in the multiple regression

equation are negatively correlated with the DV. The willingness of local people to encourage tourism development seems to be the most important IV since its standardised regression coefficient is the highest one among the four IVs. The IV frequency of having ideas for improving things including the tourism development is the second important IV with .22 beta weight.

The main suggestion of this multiple regression equation may be that these four significance IVs should be taken into account in order to increase the willingness of the local people to take part in TDP. It may be further argued that the more the local people would like to encourage tourism development and the more frequent local people have ideas for improving things, including tourism development in Urgup, the more they want to take part in the TDP. On the other hand, the lower the family income of the local people, the more the local people want to take part in the TDP. However, the more the local people want that tourism development should create jobs, particularly for local people, the less they want to participate in the TDP. It should be kept in mind that the set of IVs in multiple regression equation have explained only 33% of variation in the DV and 67% of the variation in the DV has remained as an unknown. Hence, the final remark in this regard may be that further research is needed to explain a higher per cent of variation in the DV.

It may be worth noting that some of the demographic variables such as gender, age, occupation and education level attained have not got any statistically significant contribution to explain the dependent variable. Accessibility of public representatives, variables regarding potential for and current practice of community participation, community knowledge of tourism, satisfaction with current tourism development have not had significance contribution either.

**Non-participation as expected nature of community participation by the local people:** The overall test of statistical significance (significance F) shows that the multiple regression equation is statistically significance at .0003. T values of IVs in regression equation reveal that only 2 predictors are statistically significance. 34 per cent of the total variance was explained and 66 per cent of the variation in the DV was left as unexplained. Additionally, tolerance values<sup>12</sup> (Tol.) and variance inflation factors<sup>13</sup> (VIF) of each independent variables reflect that the multiple regression equation does not suffer from collinearity or multicollinearity<sup>11</sup>.

The beta weights indicate that more variance has been explained by the IV 'level of influences of the local people on the local issues including the tourism development when compared with the IV 'reflection of the local people's views in TDP' in the regression equation. Both of them are negatively correlated with the DV. In brief, this multiple regression equation may suggest that the more the local people have influence on the local issues including tourism development, and the more the local people reflected their views on tourism development, the less they expect non-participation in the TDP.

**Table 7.64: Multiple regression for non-participation as expected nature of participation**

Significant Variables in the Equation	Beta	Tol.	VIF	Sig T
reflection of the local people's views in TDP	-.25	.62	1.6	.006
level of influences on the local issues including tourism	-.28	.62	1.6	.002

R Square ( $R^2$ ) = .34; Significance F = .0003

**Active participation as expected nature of community participation by the local people:** Significance F (.004) test indicates that the overall multiple regression equation is statistically significance. T values of IVs in regression equation reveal that only 3 predictors out of 28 are statistically significance. 30 per cent the variance is explained. Additionally, tolerance values<sup>12</sup> (Tol.) and variance inflation factors<sup>13</sup> (VIF) of each independent variables reflect that the multiple regression equation does not suffer from collinearity or multicollinearity (see Table 7.65).

The beta weight indicates that a change of one standard deviation in the IV 'tourism development is pretty much for the big interests' will produce a change of .24 standard deviations on the DV while a change of one standard deviation in the IV 'the willingness of the local people to know before the tourism development take place' will bring a change of .20 of a standard deviation in the DV. However, the IV 'voting at the last general election, which is negatively correlated with the DV, seems to be the most important IV in determining the DV.

It may be worth stating that statistical test of significance for each regression components show that 25 IVs including some of the demographic variables such as occupation, education, income and age do not have any significance contribution to explain the variation in the DV.

The regression equation regarding active community participation may suggest that the people who felt that the tourism development is pretty much for benefit of a few big interests want to take an active role in the TDP. In the same direction, people who wanted to know before tourism development takes place expect active community participation in the TDP to take place. However, the people who voted at the last general election do not expect active community participation in the TDP to take place.

**Table 7.65: Multiple regression analysis for active participation**

Significant Variables in the Equation	Beta	Tol.	VIF	Sig T
tourism dev. is pretty much for benefit of a few big interests	.24	.50	1.7	.002
willingness to know before tourism dev. take places	.20	.62	1.6	.03
voting at the last election	-.29	.60	1.7	.02

R Square ( $R^2$ ) = .30; Significance F = .004

**Multiple regression analysis for community consultation as expected nature of community participation by the local people:** F test indicates that the overall multiple regression equation is statistically significance at 0.0000. T values of IVs in regression equation reveal that only 5 predictors out of 29 are statistically significance. 41 per cent of the total variance is explained. Additionally, tolerance values<sup>12</sup> (Tol.) and variance inflation factors<sup>13</sup> (VIF) of each independent variables reflect that the multiple regression equation does not suffer from collinearity or multicollinearity<sup>11</sup>.

The beta weights indicate that the most important factor in determining the DV is 'receiving news letters about the tourism development in Urgup', which is negatively related with the DV. A change of one standard deviation in the IV 'the local people's perception of governments authorities do good jobs regarding the tourism development or not' will produce a change of -.23 standard deviations in the DV while a change of one standard deviation in the IV 'wishing to know before tourism development take place' will bring a change of only -.26 of a standard deviation in the DV. However, the IV 'willingness of the local people to participate in the TDP' is negatively correlated with the DV 'community consultation as expected nature of the participation'. Its beta weight is -.24 while the beta weight of the IV 'feeling of having influences on the local issues including the tourism development' is .19.

The 24 IVs including some demographic variables such as education, age, occupation and family income, variables regarding potential for and current practice of community participation, sense of belonging to Urgup, accessibility of public representatives and community knowledge of tourism in the multiple regression equation do not have statistically significance contribution.

**Table 7.66: Multiple regression analysis for community consultation**

Significant Variables in the Regression Equation	Beta	Tol.	VIF	Sig T
receiving news letters about the tourism dev.	-.27	.71	1.4	.0009
wishing to know before tourism dev. take place	-.26	.62	1.604	.003
the local people willingness to participate in TDP	-.24	.70	1.433	.003
feeling of having influences on the local issues	.19	.64	1.574	.03
Government authorities do good jobs	-.23	.64	1.574	.007

R Square ( $R^2$ ) = .41; Significance F = .0000

**Note-11:**

**Collinearity:** ‘Expression of the relationship between two (collinearity) or more independent variables (multicollinearity). Two predictor variables are said to exhibit complete collinearity if their correlation coefficient is 1 and a complete lack of collinearity if their correlation coefficient is 0. **Multicollinearity** occurs when any single predictor variable is highly correlated with a set of other predictor variables’ (Hair et al, 1995: 80).

**Note-12:**

**Tolerance:** ‘Commonly used measure of collinearity and multicollinearity, the tolerance of variable(TOL<sub>i</sub>) is  $1 - R^2_i$ , where  $R^2_i$  is the coefficient of determination for the prediction of variable I by the other predictor variables. As the tolerance value grows smaller, the variable is more highly predicted (collinear) with the other predictor variables’(Hair et al, 1995: 85). Very small tolerance values denote high collinearity. As a rule of thumb, tolerance value should not be smaller than 0.19 (Hair et al, 1995 see pp.127)

**Note-13:**

**Variance inflation factor (VIF<sub>i</sub>):** Indicator of the effect that the other predictor variables have on the variance of a regression coefficient, directly related to the tolerance value ( $VIF_i = 1/ R^2_i$  ). Large VIF values also indicate a high degree of collinearity or multicollinearity among the independent variables (Hair et al, 1995: 85). Large VIF values denote high collinearity. As a rule of thumb, variance inflation factor should not be bigger than 5.3 (Hair et al, 1995 see pp.127)

**Dummy variable:** ‘Independent variable used to account for the effect that different levels of a nonmetric variable have in predicting the criterion variable (dependent variable). To account for L levels of an independent variable, L-1 dummy variables are needed. For example, gender is measured as male and female and could be represented by two dummy variables ( $X_1$  and  $X_2$ ). When the respondent is male,  $X_1 =$



1 and  $X_2 = 0$ . Likewise, when the respondent is female  $X_1 = 0$  and  $X_2 = 1$ . However, when  $X_1 = 1$ , we know that  $X_2$  must equal to 0. Thus we need only one variable, either  $X_1$  or  $X_2$ , to represent the variable gender. We cannot include both variables, because one is perfectly predicted by the other and the regression coefficients cannot be estimated. If a variable has three levels, only two dummy variables are needed. We always have one dummy variable less than the number of levels of the variable used' (Hair et al, 1995: 81)

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**APPENDIX - 16:**

**A Model for Participatory Tourism Development Approach: with Special  
References to Urgup in Turkey.**

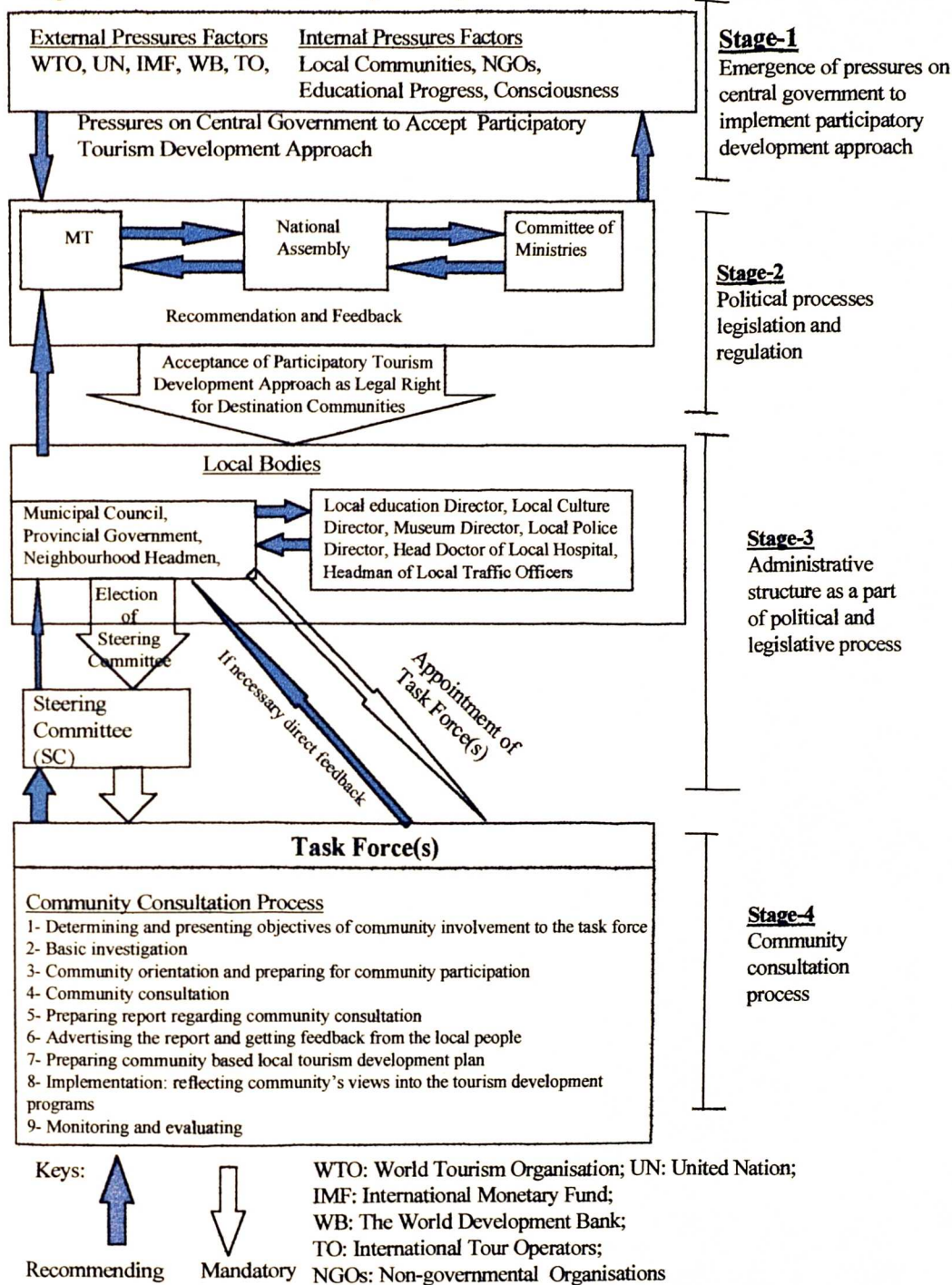
## **Appendix - 16: A Model for Community Involvement in the TDP**

As can be seen from Figure 8.1, the proposed model for community involvement in the tourism development process has four main stages: 1) Emergence of pressures from external and internal factors on central government to accept, support and facilitate implementation of a participatory development approach, 2) political process, legislation and regulation, 3) administrative structure at operational level as a part of political and legislative process and 4) the actual community consultation process.

**Stage-1:** Who will initiate community participation in the TDP? In this regard, the role of government is essential. Particularly, central government will have to accept, support and legalise community participation. Otherwise it seems to be impossible to formulate and implement. But one can rightly ask why central government should do this?. Previous studies on the participatory development approach have showed that 'The concept of participation as empowering ... faces formidable barriers and that it is ... difficult to imagine governments and local established structures offering other than powerful opposition' (Oakley and Marsden, 1984: 27). The past experiences of community involvement practices suggest that some pressures or push factors seem to be necessary to initiate a participatory development approach (Oakley and Marsden, 1984, UNDP and WTO, 1992 (cited in Inskip, 1994)). The qualitative and quantitative data analysis, and personal knowledge of the researcher regarding socio-cultural, economic and political structure of Turkey and Urgup suggest that emergence of a participatory development approach from Turkey's internal dynamics seem to be very difficult in the foreseeable future without some exogenous pressures.

The historical, political and economic situation of Turkey may recommend that the possible external pressures factors would be various departments of the United Nations (UN), the World Development Bank (WB), International Monetary Fund (IMF), European Union (EU), World Tourism Organisation (WTO), international tour operators and multinational companies, etc.

**Figure 8.1: Model for Community Participation in the TDP**



As Stiefel and Wolfe (1994: 212) stated; international organisations, the international lending institutions, major donor countries and development co-operations agencies increasingly have become the prime force behind community development programmes, community involvement and development of self-help

initiatives at the grassroots level. In other words, most developing states have probably not much choice but to follow what these prime forces recommend.

Most of the international organisations have already made substantial contributions to the current socio-economic and political structure of Turkey. Particularly, IMF and WB have played very active and important roles in determining strategies for the economy of Turkey by structuring economic adjustments packages. But as the current political crisis in Turkey has shown, the present strategies have isolated the vast majority of people from their affairs and almost put them out of the economic and political system of the country. As a result, an unexpected political shift has emerged in the society, which is not compatible with western interests. Hence, there seems to be enough good reasons for some of those international organisations to put pressures on the Turkish government to initiate participatory development approach as an alternative development strategy. The IMF and WB can encourage Turkey to implement a participatory development approach by using outstanding external debt of the country as a pressure tool. They can require this as a pre-conditions of loans. Presently, Turkey is eager to joining in the European Union (EU). Thus, the EU has the opportunity to put pressure on Turkish governments to change their attitudes towards development.

**Stage-2:** The second stage in the proposed model is the process of acceptance of the participatory development approach by the central government. As UN (1981: 6) emphasised,

‘A necessary condition for the effectiveness of popular participation in development is its endorsement as a national policy. Popular participation in development increases in scope when the Government and other national institutions go beyond this ‘acceptance in principle’ and give it political legitimacy and legal standing by facilitating its inclusion in development activities. In promoting popular participation, Governments must be prepared to accept its consequences, among which could be a realignment of political and economic power at the local, intermediate and national levels’

Bradley and Karunadasa (1989) have supported the above quotation from the UN. They have argued that the lack of success in a significant proportion of failed projects has not been the failure of the community participation process but failure of the relevant institutions to support the projects, particularly at operational level.

This stage has two important sub-stages. The first is the political process within which the approach will be proposed and discussed among and between various ministries in the national assembly. The second is a legislative and regulative process. This process seems to be very important since it will structure and give guidelines for implementation of the participatory development approach at operational level.

As Smith (1984: 254) has argued, the legal right and opportunity to participate is one of the pre-requisites for community participation in the development process. It goes without stating that there is a substantial distinction between the legal right to participate and discretionary opportunity afforded participation by decision-makers. Experiences regarding community participation in Canada showed that 'wide participation was often precluded by the locus standi provision of tort law'. Thus the legal right to participate in development and TDP should not be discretionary, but should be mandatory.

The MT and SPO should prepare comprehensive proposals for legislation and regulation of participatory development approach with collaboration of each other, experts at universities, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and private sectors. At this point, lessons should be derived from the participatory development programs supervised by international aid agencies such as WB, UN and WTO. If necessary, views of those experts should be taken. Pilot-test of participatory development approach should be done by implementing the approach in a few local tourist destinations. Based upon the test results, the legislation and regulation should be revised and improved.

**Stage-3:** It involves administrative structuring at operational level, which should be specified by legislation and regulation at stage two. This stage is also a crucial role in effectiveness and efficiency of the community involvement in TDP. Members of the municipal council, provincial government and neighbourhood headmen should establish a steering committee (SC) whose members should be elected from the members of the municipal council, provincial government and neighbourhood headmen. Only these local bodies should have a mandatory legal right to manage and control the participatory development process at the local level, the other local bodies should have right to take part in the participatory development

process at a non-decisive level (see Figure 8.1). This SC may be named as Urgup Development Organisation (UDO). The member composition of this organisation may be specified as follows: 3 neighborhood headmen, 3 members from municipal council and 1 person representing provincial government.

A task force, whose members should work under the management and supervision of the UDO, should be appointed by the local bodies to conduct community consultation. The task force should consist of professional people from different disciplines. The following list may be given regarding members of the task force: a tourism planner, a sociologist, a psychologist, a land-use planner, a town planner and an economist. The local bodies should approach universities, SPO, MT, Ministry of Settlement and Re-structuring, NGOs and private sector to get experts to be employed as members of the task force for a certain period of time.

There should be two way communication and continuous feedback between the task force and UDO. Members of UDO should personally join in the community consultation activities. If there is conflict between UDO and the task force, the local bodies should resolve the problems.

Emergence of the steering committee and the task force will bring about the followings advantages: (1) there will be a certain group of people responsible for tourism development, management and control, (2) the committee may use effectively potential political power of the host community to meet the needs of the local people in Urgup, (3) the committee may prevent various interest group from exploiting the host community and (4) the committee may help local authorities impose the laws and regulations by learning from their experience.

But, it should be kept in mind that while the SC provides much valuable input into tourism development, it may be that this community group tends to act more like traditional planners who ignore preferences of the community as they become more informed or sophisticated about the tourism development issues (Syme and Eaton, 1989).

**Stage-4:** The final stage of the model is to practice an actual community consultation process. The efficiency and effectiveness of this stage will substantially determine quantity and quality of community input that will be considered during the decision-making process of the tourism development. Hence, SC should be in

continuous touch with the task force during the community consultation process and members of SC should personally be involved in the community consultation process. The community consultation process may seem to be a topic on its own. Thus, it will be considered in further detail in the following section.

### **Community Consultation Process**

A literature review regarding community participation practice and theory has shown that there is no standardised community participation or involvement procedures. As Bradley and Karunadasa (1989:132) stated that 'Despite the many examples of projects involving various degrees of community participation, there are no clearly defined community participation procedures which will guarantee a successful project in every situation'. Although the process of community involvement in development efforts differ according to sectors of the economy in a country and prevailing local conditions under which community involvement will be practiced (see Alterman, 1982, Chetkov-Yanoov, 1986, Crosby et al, 1986, Churchman, 1987, Paul, 1987, Green and Isely, 1988, Pacione, 1988, Bamberger, 1991 and Skelcher, 1993), there seems to be no examples of a community participation process developed for the tourism sector at practical or normative levels.

The absence of a standardised community participation process may be desirable. Attempts to produce standard steps for the community involvement process may severely limit the flexibility necessary to satisfy community requirements and to meet actual site conditions (Bradley and Karunadasa, 1989). The approaches and methods for operationalising community participation may vary by sector and sub-sector. There is a need, therefore, to develop and disseminate sector-related guidelines or at least advise on the use of community participation in projects relevant to specific country contexts (Paul, 1987).

In the light of the qualitative and quantitative data analysis, the literature review and special knowledge of the author on Turkey and the field study area, the following 9 steps may be suggested as a community consultation procedures to be followed as part of the proposed participatory model. The author does not claim that following those steps will guarantee a successful community involvement. But he





considered. First, there may be three levels of objectives for community involvement; objectives of central government, objectives of local bodies and objectives of the local communities. The legislation and regulation regarding community involvement in the TDP should determine a general framework. Under those general guidelines, MT, local bodies and the local community should determine their own objectives. MT should determine objectives of community involvement in general, which should be compatible with objectives of tourism development at national level and objectives of national development in general.

The local bodies should also determine their objectives under the guidelines specified by the participatory legislation. Some objectives of central government and local bodies may have equivalents among participants from the local community. For example, while central government may have as its objectives to educate the local community regarding the tourism development process, the participants from a destination community may also have as their objective to learn about tourism development issues. However, there may be many objectives at national level which are not likely to have any equivalent at local level. SC should present those objectives of community involvement to the task force with the participatory legislation and regulation. The task force should conduct community consultation by taking into account those objectives of the MT and local bodies and try to integrate the objectives of the local community into them. That is to say;

*'A serious attempt should be made to take into account the possible goals of the other major agencies and public groups. Each such group will likely have a different set of goals. But one demarcation line is likely to occur in all or most participation programs: the demarcation between decision - makers and agencies on the one hand, and the participants on the other hand. For a participation programs to succeed not only on paper but during implementation as well, the planners should be able to identify agency goals that will at the same time tap and fulfill the goals of the potential participants. The participants must be motivated to participate; that is, they must view participation as fulfilling some of their own goals as well. Otherwise, the recruiting problem of low attendance and weak intensity of participation will occur' (Alterman, 1982: 305).*

Second, it should not be assumed that the objectives are static, and they can be defined once and for all as a basis for planning or ex post evaluation. Rather, objectives do change as the interests of the actors in a participatory game change.

Even if the actors designing a participatory program are able to explicitly determine its set of objectives - and that is often not the case- such objectives are likely to change or to be deflected during the implementation process when the strategies of the various groups unfold (Alterman, 1982).

Third, the objectives of community involvement will influence type, mode and output of the process. In this sense, a broad distinction can be drawn in the vast amount of literature and practice of participation between participation as a means or as an end. Where 'participation' is interpreted basically as a means it is essentially describing a state or an input into a development programs (Oakley and Marsden, 1984). In this regard, it generally becomes a form of mobilisation to get things done. This can be state directed, top down mobilisation (sometimes enforced) to achieve specific objectives (Moser 1989). Where it is interpreted as an end in itself, it refers to a process the outcome of which is meaningful participation' (Oakley and Marsden, 1984).

Participation as an end is the inexorable consequence of the process of empowering and liberation. The state of achieving power and of meaningful participation in the development process is in fact the objective of the exercise. There is no necessary notion of fixed quantifiable development goals. Therefore, participation in the sense of empowering and liberation is not easy to perceive. The end itself becomes difficult to determine in definite terms since it is related to the qualitative processes of achieving power and the resulting ability to take independent action. Because of its insubstantial nature, it is difficult to characterise and to witness. It essentially occurs over time, and only prolonged observation can help in its understanding (Oakley and Marsden, 1984 and Moser, 1989).

There is controversy, of course, as to whether 'participation' as means or end is compatible or whether there can be any unity between them. It is a fundamental distinction and one which has enormous implications for the nature of 'participation' and the approaches adopted for its achievement. Ideally participation should incorporate both extremes, but it is difficult to see how these extremes can be reconciled (Oakley and Marsden, 1984).

Fourth, objectives should be specific enough for the selection of particular methods of participation. The greater operationalisation of objectives, the easier to

match objectives to methods of involvement. Objectives of community involvement should be clearly determined for the purpose of efficiency. It should be noted that objectives of community involvement differ according to subjects or fields of involvement. For example, objectives of community involvement in TDP should be different from objectives of community involvement in design of railroad or health issues. Alterman (1982) viewed goals and objectives of involvement as one set of decisions in the design of participatory strategies. He argued that alternative participatory programs are motivated by different goals (quoting Burke, 1979 and Yin, 1975). Thus goals and objectives of community involvement should be determined prior to the selection of particular methods of participation.

**Basic investigation and data collection stage:** This step will facilitate the other steps of community involvement. Hence, the task force should collect all relevant information. In brief, the task force should do the following things:

- Evaluation of previous projects in similar cultural/socio-economic settings in order to determine strengths and weaknesses of prior approaches, if any.
- Visit the field study area to become acquainted with the local people and local institutions.
- Detailed study of existing socio-cultural, economic and political conditions in the community, and attitudes towards level of tourism development in order to design the long term tourism education interventions necessary to influence behaviour patterns. For example, collecting data regarding distribution of wealth, power relation in the community and identify the last ten years elected persons in the local bodies and in the central governments (MPs), and education level of community may give a general idea about structure of the community.
- Assessment of true community leadership. Experience in Sri Lanka (see Bradley and Karunadasa, 1989) has shown that apparently leaders do not necessarily have a high degree of community affiliation. Thus, it is necessary to determine the true dynamic leaders who are affiliated with the community and can be relied on to sustain community participation.

- Assessment of existing community participatory flows in everyday life so that the bases for motivation and co-operation, perhaps through community cliques and groups, can be channeled to community participation in the TDP.
- Assessment of community capacity, both socio/cultural and economic, and knowledge of community regarding tourism development issues to sustain a long-term involvement in the existing and future tourism development projects.
- Determining methods of information dissemination.
- Assessing attitudes of the local community towards tourism development and tourists.
- Determining types of training needed for community and community leaders to participate in consultation process.

This step will function as infrastructure for the next steps in the community involvement process.

**Community orientation and preparation for community involvement:**

Step one and two should be used as guidelines for at this stage. The following should also be done:

- Clear, understandable and essential information should be disseminated to the local people free through local media, special news letters, open public hearing, community forums, etc. Through this information dissemination the interest of the local community should be stimulated. Free telephone line should be opened in order to answer any question regarding tourism development issues. As Patterson (1984) stated that mobilisation for establishing a high level of community participation necessitate the initiation of continuous, repetitive, and cyclical sequences of action entailing: 1- the stimulation of public interest; 2- widespread announcement of significant events; 3- extensive education concerning the issues; 4- an input/feedback system for securing public reactions to these issues; 5- evaluations of the public responses; and 6-determination of the next viable course of action based on those evaluations.

The local people should have permanent access to any information regarding tourism development. And the SC should be responsible for providing any information needed by the local people. Particularly, information about incentives for tourism

sector, information on operating a business in the tourism industry, socio-cultural, economic and environmental impact of tourism development should be provided. Moreover the reasons and need for tourism development should be explained to the local people. This may give the local community a better opinion about tourism development and may help them develop a better attitude towards tourism and tourists. In brief, as Skelcher (1993) argued increased information provision should offer the opportunity to the local community to become better informed and hence potentially better able to ask questions and assess performance.

- A number of orientation meetings should be held in the community involving all the formal and informal community leaders, representatives of private sectors, etc. Objectives of the community consultation regarding the tourism development should be presented and the interest of the community should be awakened through emphasis on improved facilities, benefits of the tourism development, etc. Apart from formal meetings, many more informal meeting should be held on an ad-hoc basis. These meetings may clarify demarcation of authority and prevent future conflicts in the community and among the actors of community consultation process.

This step should achieve the following instrumental aims:

- Increase knowledge of the community about their affairs,
- Stimulate them to participate in their affairs,
- Make the local people aware that the government bodies do want them to be involved in their affairs. In other words, the local people should be assured that it is desirable and politically safe for them to take part.
- Should clarify not just of the form of involvement but also the dimensions of power in which the local community will be engaged.
- Should lead the task force to tailor the techniques and modes of community participation to fit the issues and characteristics of the local community.

**Community consultation:** This step will be an extension of step three; but more concrete and systematic community consultation activities should be performed by taking into account the experiences in step three. The following modes of community consultation may be recommended for Urgup:

- A questionnaire can be posted to the local people in order to learn their views about desired type of tourism development, expectation from tourism development, satisfaction from current tourism development, complaints about current tourism development and their opinion about developing a better form of tourism development, etc.
- Open public hearing, meeting and forum can be organised
- Free telephone line can be established.
- Participant observation can be made.

**Preparing report regarding community involvement:** The task force and SC should prepare a report regarding the community consultation process and output by this point. The report should include;

- desired types of tourism development by the local community
- expectations of the local community from tourism development
- attitudes of the local community towards tourists and tourism
- views of the local community about developing a better tourism
- views of local community about alternative forms of development in their locality
- what kind of jobs the local community wants to do in the tourism industry
- sensitive issues regarding tourism development among the local people

Apart from reflecting the community's views regarding tourism development issues, the task force and SC should state their views regarding the above issues. Then this report should be submitted to the local bodies. The local bodies should examine the report, discuss and negotiate it among each other. If it is required, the task force should be invited to explain some points in further details.

**Advertising the report and getting feedback from the local people:** After confirmation of the report , the local bodies should advertise the report in public places and local media. Copies of the report should be available free. If it is possible, a copy of the report should be delivered to each of household in Urgup. A cover letter should be attached to the report, which should aim at encouraging local people to give feedback regarding the content of the report and other issues related to the local tourism development in Urgup. The report should be revised according to the local people's feedback.

**Preparing a community-based tourism development plan:** The task force should prepare a tourism development plan by taking into account the output of the community consultation process. The tourism development should reflect views of the local actors. The task force should also take into account the political and economic conditions of the country while they prepare the community based tourism development plan. As Tosun (1997: 329) states 'Any planning model should be both politically acceptable and desirable in a developing country such as Turkey if it is to be implemented'.

After the confirmation of the local bodies, the plan should be advertised in the public places and in the local media. Copies of the plan should be made available for the local people free. At this step, the local people should be encouraged to give feedback regarding the community based local tourism development plan. If the plan does not generate a satisfactory feedback from the local people, the plan should be introduced to the local people through more direct modes of communication.

The plan should be revised according to the local people's feedback. Then the plan and the report should be submitted to the central bodies such as MT and SPO. A copy of the report and the plan should also be sent to the local MPs and bureaucrats who are originally from Urgup. They should be asked to create pressure on the central authorities for implementation of the proposed report and plan.

**Implementation: reflecting the local community's views into the tourism development plan:** MT and SPO should examine the report and the plan. Then, they should explain their views about the report and the plan to the local bodies in Urgup. The implication of the report and the plan submitted to MT and SPO may be that MT and SPO should prepare a specific tourism development plan for Urgup by taking into account the report and the plan or MT should confirm the plan for the tourism development in Urgup and support its implementation.

**Monitoring and evaluating:** SC with collaboration of the task force and the available qualified staff in the local bodies should monitor the tourism development in the locality. The local people should be encouraged to report their concerns continuously about the tourism development to the local bodies and SC.



Actors in tourism developments should have an opportunity to sue each other if there is any inappropriateness regarding the participatory tourism development legislation. For example, the local people should have right to sue local bodies or MT due to the their actions which are not compatible with the participatory tourism development legislation which is supposed to be acted by the central government.

### **Few Words Regarding the Model for Community Involvement in the TDP**

The proposed model for community involvement in the TDP is not a model for community participation in a real sense. Thus, the word 'involvement' is deliberately used in order to emphasise community based actions rather than direct participation of the community. Grima (19..) distinguished between: 'involvement' as a generic term for all forms of public input; 'intervention', to connote litigation and legal referrals; and 'participation', as direct public involvement in decision processes (cited in Smith, 1987: 227). It is not difficult to develop an idealistic theoretical community participation model, but such a model may remain as an unimplementable blue print under the current conditions in Urgup. For example, to propose an authentic participatory model may be meaningless due the fact that the actors' attitudes towards participatory tourism development approach imply an indirect or non-decisive level of community involvement in the TDP.

Moreover, it may be naive to claim that even the proposed model for community involvement in the TDP will work without any confrontation or opposition. That is to say, the proposed model is not a magic tool to achieve an efficient and effective community involvement in the TDP. Rather, it is an attempt to develop a guideline for a participatory development approach by taking into account the prevailing conditions in Urgup and Turkey. It should be emphasised that operationalisation of the model depends upon, to large extent, solution of the problem areas summarized in chapter eight.

**Note-1:** Hence a brief introduction regarding meaning of the community participation was given at the beginning of the questionnaire.

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