

E-CONTENT: Travel & Tourism Management, Semester-6 (Tourist Behaviour)

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UNIT-1

Tourist behaviour:

Horner and Swarbrooke (1996) define tourist behaviour as the “study of why people buy the product they do, and how they make their decision”

Solomon (1996) has defined tourist behaviour as the “process involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use or dispose of products, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy needs and wants”

Engel, Blackwell and Miniard define tourist behaviour as “Those activities directly involved in obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services including the decision processes that precedes and follows these actions.”

Factors affecting Tourist behaviour:

In order to identify behaviour in relation to tourism, it is crucial to understand what motivates tourist, their perceptions, expectations and also their experiences. This begins with a particular focus on the *perception* of the tourist. Tourism is no longer simply regarded as a universal and homogenous phenomenon, it is essentially a contemporary phenomenon and thus needs to be understood in view of the larger context of modernity (Wang, Yamada & Brothers, 2011).

The tourism, in which the modern lust for visuality and geographical movement, accelerated tremendously with the inventions of cameras; caused a profound multiplication of images and sights; a constitutive part of modernity's traveling cultures. In addition, other factors such human (motivation and travel party) and physical (destination geomorphology) affect tourists' choices of itineraries and provide reasons to support the shaping of the tourist behaviour patterns. Thus, it can be said that contemporary tourism is fundamentally constructed culturally, socially and materially through images and performances of destinations.

Tourist perception:

The term perception refers to a view of the total environment that is cognitively sensed and experienced and becomes the basis for decision-making (Morin, Gates & Zimmerman, 2009). Furthermore, people construct views through space, and organize the acquired knowledge, information and experience through the senses (Lau & McKercher, 2006).

Thus, the *tourist perception* is generally referred to the outcomes that visitors have

constructed for a physical and social environment they have visited. This perception differs between each individual, as there are various perception within individuals depending on their past and present experiences through values, needs, memories, moods, social circumstances, and expectations (Saarinen, 1976).

Pull and Push factors:

Depending on the individual past and present experiences of the tourists, a destination's pull factors, such as their promotional activities, weather, beaches, scenery, facilities and attractions are also important influences in setting expectations, and subsequently, in meeting the needs of tourists.

Tourist Expectations:

Tourists' perception of a destination is also likely to be influenced not only by their own experience but also by their expectations of that destination. These expectations are built on the representations permeating their own culture and absorbed from the media, the advice from friends and relatives, and guidebooks and travel brochures (Jenkins, 2000). However, tourists' expectations of a destination do not necessarily match as what the guidebook or travelogue describes. In short, different expectations held by different tourists in different kinds of environments resulted in different types of behaviours. Expectation derives from a number of sources that include the qualities and perceptions which will be influenced by tourists' cultural backgrounds (Fountain, Espiner & Xie, 2011). Once tourists activated their needs and requirements of travel, motivation is the key factor in the formation of expectations. The expectation, conversely, determines the perception of a performance of the products and services at a destination, and the perception of the experience. Tourist behaviour may have distinctive phases of expectation, partly because tourists have the ability to transform their expectation through their experience. Presumably, the understanding of what to expect at a destination also colours the behaviour that different tourists use to interpret their travel experience.

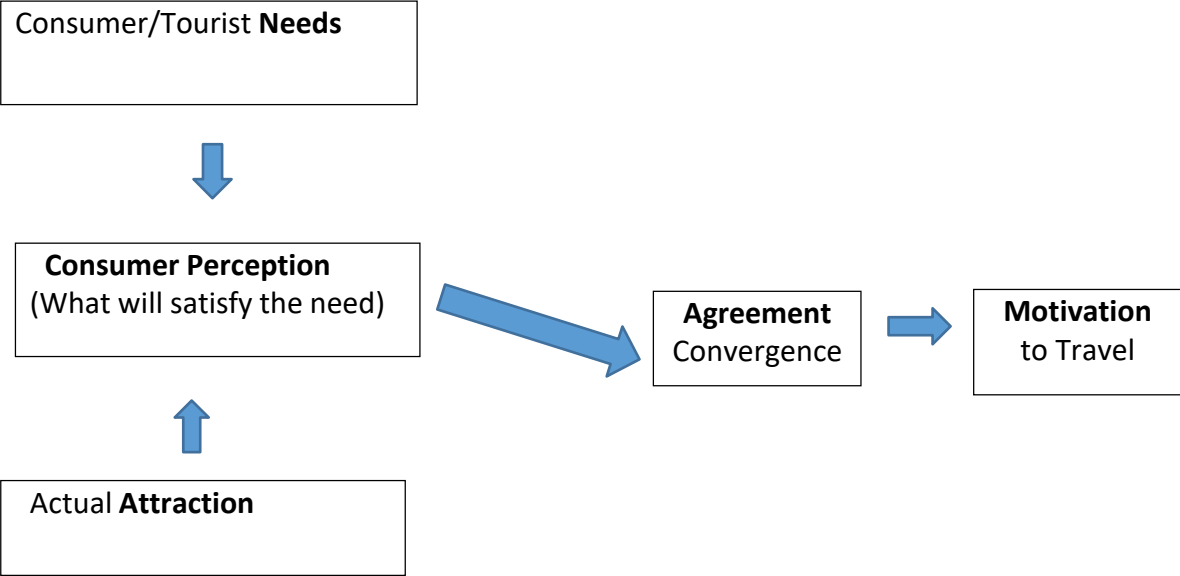
Tourist experience:

The tourist experience comprises everything that tourists have seen, done or felt during their trips (Inglis, 2000). Khalilah (2006) argues that tourist experience is a significant process and outcome of tourism. It will determine whether a visit is successful or not for the tourists, and consequently, how they rate their overall experience will influence their future

travel decisions.

McIntosh (2003) reported that *gazing and authenticity* are among the dimensions of the tourist experience. Chui, Rahim, Hassan, Musa, Yusof and Hashim (2010) defined tourist experience “as a temporal account of the tourist gaze as to describe the process through which a tourist reminisces the place or experience he or she encounters”. In other words, the gaze is a recollection of the temporal experience which, there is an aura to the fullest extent of the experience. However, tourist’s experiences vary according to the varieties of people and their geographical distribution. At the same time, tourist experience is influenced by different factors such as traveling experience, destination attributes and attractions (Li, 2000). Apparently, destinations can offer and provide more than just one type of tourism experience. In relation to that, to provide a high-quality experience, one must understand what factors can motivate and influence people to travel.

Motivations for Tourist Behaviour:



Factors/Characters affecting/influencing Tourist Behaviour:

1. Personal/Psychological Factors

2. Social/Cultural Factors

3. Situational Factors

1. Personal/Psychological Factors

a) Perception

b) Personality

c) Attitude

d) Self-image

e) Lifestyle – IOAH (Interests, Opinions, Actions, Consumption Habits)

f) Demographics

2. Social/Cultural Factors

a) Societal values

b) Cultural values

c) Family values

d) Peer group

e) Traditions and Taboos

f) Religious orientations

3. Situational/Technological Factors

a) Reference groups

b) Work culture

c) Physical environment

d) Presence of relative and friends

e) Economic conditions

UNIT-II

Push and Pull Factors Theory in Tourist Behaviour

Push-pull theoretical framework is a popular theory to explain the reason why the tourists decide to visit the destination rather than other place, the kind of experience they want to get and the type of activity they want to do.

Push Factors:

The motivating factors, which are generally endemic to an individual's home environment or his/her personal psychological state, and which become the primary force behind his/her travel or holiday, and the particular choice of a destination, or a specific set of activities at a destination are known as push factors. For example, loneliness, boredom, or burnout at home or workplaces are major push factors behind holiday travel. The desire to take a break from routine life, or escape familiar environment is another push factor. Similarly, the uncomfortable weather as well as disturbing situations in home environment are push factors too.

Pull Factors:

The pull factors are those factors which attract a potential tourist to take a particular holiday, or specific activities over others during a holiday. Generally, pull factors constitute the special features of a destination, a holiday, or the facilities which are attractive and therefore entice a potential tourist toward them. For example, the image of a destination as an attractive tourist place, for its natural, cultural, historical or infrastructural distinctiveness. Similarly the local hospitality and quality of services, professionalism and range of services also constitute pull factors.

Maslow's Need Theory:

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a motivational theory in psychology comprising a five-tier model of human needs, often depicted as hierarchical levels within a pyramid.

Needs lower down in the hierarchy must be satisfied before individuals can attend to needs higher up. From the bottom of the hierarchy upwards, the needs are: physiological,

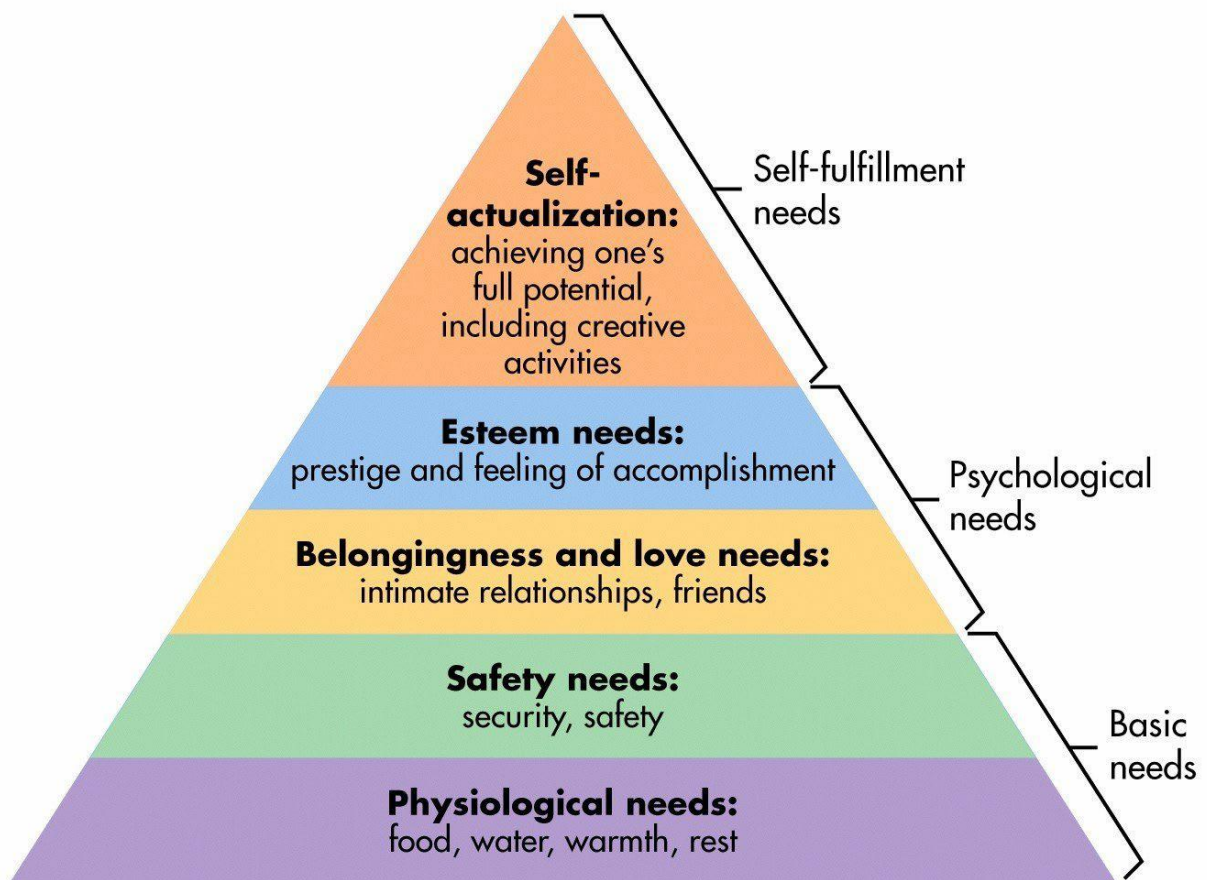
safety, love and belonging, esteem and self-actualization.

Deficiency needs vs. growth needs

This five-stage model can be divided into deficiency needs and growth needs. The first four levels are often referred to as deficiency needs (*D-needs*), and the top level is known as growth or being needs (*B-needs*).

Deficiency needs arise due to deprivation and are said to motivate people when they are unmet. Also, the motivation to fulfill such needs will become stronger the longer the duration they are denied. For example, the longer a person goes without food, the more hungry they will become.

Maslow (1943) initially stated that individuals must satisfy lower level deficit needs before progressing on to meet higher level growth needs. However, he later clarified that satisfaction of a needs is not an “all-or-none” phenomenon, admitting that his earlier statements may have given “the false impression that a need must be satisfied 100 percent before the next need emerges” (1987, p. 69).



Plog's Model of Tourists Behaviour

Plog classifies tourists into three categories as described below –

- *Allocentric* (The Wanderers) – A tourist who seeks new experiences and adventure in a wide range of activities. This person is outgoing and self-confident in behavior. An allocentric person prefers to fly and to explore new and unusual areas before others do so. Allocentrics enjoy meeting people from foreign or different cultures. They prefer good hotels and food, but not necessarily modern or chain-type hotels. For a tour package, an allocentric would like to have the basics such as transportation and hotels, but not be committed to a structured itinerary. They would rather have the freedom to explore an area, make their own arrangements and choose a variety of activities and tourist attractions.

- *Psychocentric* (The Repeater) – A tourist falling in this category is usually non-adventurous. They prefer to return to familiar travel destinations where they can relax and know what types of food and activity to expect. Such tourists prefer to drive to destinations, stay in typical accommodations, and eat at family-type restaurants.

- *Midcentric* (Combination) – This category of tourists covers the ones who swing between the above said two types. Henley Centre Model of Holidaymaking
A British Consultancy of Futurology, Henley Center has divided the tourists into four phases –

- Phase I- Bubble Travelers – They do not have much money as well as knowledge. They prefer packaged tours. They long to observe different cultures without being a part of it. They travel mostly out of curiosity.

- Phase II- Idealized Experience Seekers – They are confident tourists with the experience of foreign tours. They are flexible and comfortable. They prefer tour offers made for individuals.

- Phase III- Seasoned Travelers – These tourists are more affluent than the idealized-experience seekers. They are more confident to experiment and experience different places and environments. They are more adventurous and prefer individualistic tours.

- Phase IV- Complete Immersers – These tourists have an intention of immersing completely into the foreign culture, heritage, culinary experience, and language. Their holidaying is well-planned but not well-structured.

Global Shifts in Tourist Behaviour and Travel Consumption Patterns

There are a variety of tourism trends that are based on more general changes in consumer behaviour, like the need for healthy and organic food & drinks, sustainability, personalized service the rising demand of digitalisation and the use of technology. Below, you'll be able to learn more about these more general tourism trends.

1. Voice Search & Voice Control

With home smart speakers growing in popularity, as well as mobile assistants like Siri, Google Assistant and Bixby, more and more tourism customers are turning to voice search. For those in the tourism industry, it is important to capture these guests by structuring website content properly so it appears in voice search and to allow for voice bookings.

Tourist information is a key part of the customer experience with many companies and voice control and AI can be invaluable here. Moreover, hotel rooms can include smart speakers or other IoT devices that are compatible with voice control, allowing users to more easily turn devices on and off, or change settings within their rooms.

2. Virtual Reality Tourism Trends

Virtual reality is another of the major tourism trends disrupting the industry and capitalising on the technology can give you an edge over rivals who have not yet adopted it. Through online VR tours, customers can experience hotel interiors, restaurant interiors, outdoor tourist attractions and more, all from their home. Crucially, they are able to do this at the decision-making phase of the customer journey. This can then be the difference between customers completing a booking or backing out and VR is especially useful within the context of COVID, where customers may have second thoughts and may need extra encouragement to press ahead with their plans.

Most modern VR tours are also web-based, meaning they can be viewed through any mainstream web browser. The quality of the VR tour and the extent of immersion can then be improved further through VR headsets. Find more detailed information and examples about how virtual reality can benefit your business in the article "How Virtual Reality is Transforming the Travel Industry".

3. Solo Travel

Leisure travel used to be a family affair or something that couples undertook together. While that's still the case for many, more and more people are choosing to strike out on their own. Enjoying a solo trip is no longer so unusual and tourist trends increasingly

reflect this. The needs of solo travellers are diverse. Some simply want to travel without the distraction of a companion. Others are young singles looking for social activities or to find a partner. Some widowed seniors even use long-term hotel stays or cruises as a luxurious alternative to conventional elder care. These tourism trends are set to grow and grow.

4. Eco Travel

Tourism trends are heavily influenced by the concerns and mores of the customer base. As a new generation becomes increasingly relevant in the marketplace, the ideals driving their purchasing decisions create new tourism trends. Eco travel is just one example of these tourism trends, reflecting a growing concern among today's travellers for ethical and sustainable tourism options. Eco travel includes simple changes, such as the availability of carbon credits when booking a flight or the option to rent an electric instead of a conventional vehicle. More sophisticated examples might include tourism with a volunteer element, perhaps working on a nature reserve or engaging in conservation work.

5. Local experience

Today's tourists don't want to be insulated from the places they visit inside a cultural bubble. They want to engage with and participate in the local culture. From enjoying local cuisine to celebrating regional festivals and holidays, local experiences are set to become some of the top tourist trends to watch. One example of a popular local experience would be visiting Japan during a major festival, renting formal Japanese clothes to wear, consuming regional delicacies and engaging in traditional games or cultural activities. Another might be a long stay with a host family in the destination country as a means to learn more about the local culture.

6. Personalisation

You're probably familiar with those ads that pop up on social media and certain other websites, ads related to things you've looked at or purchased online. This is just one example of personalisation. As well as in marketing tourism more effectively, personalisation can apply to every aspect of the tourist experience. Today's consumers expect experiences that closely match their personal preferences, from destinations to accommodation and the kinds of activities they'll engage in. The more closely an experience can be tailored to a client's desires and expectations, the more likely they are to return and to use the same service again.

6. Robots, chatbots and automation

One of the more eye-catching examples of these particular tourism trends is Connie, the Hilton Hotel chain's robot concierge. Other hotels have also got in on the robot-staff trend, installing interactive robots to handle certain reception duties or even having them serve food and drink to visitors. This kind of novelty application, however, is far from the only one. Many customers now book their travel and accommodation with the help of internet chatbots, specifically tailored AI who can handle queries and assist customers with useful information when human operators are unavailable.

7. Artificial intelligence

As well as the aforementioned chatbots, artificial intelligence is becoming increasingly important to the tourism industry. Machine learning technology is now firmly entrenched in the marketing of the tourism sector, with AI helping to personalise the experience of finding and booking tours and trips. AI is also increasingly valuable in contexts such as smart hotel rooms, identifying the likely needs of guests and fine-tuning the environment and services to fit the guest's needs and preferences. Artificial intelligence is finding applications everywhere, from customer service to security. Future AI tourism trends to watch out for might include self-driving vehicles and virtual guides for tourism.

8. Recognition technology

Recognition technology is one of those increasingly important travel and tourism trends that's starting to creep into a multitude of different areas. One of the most familiar applications of recognition technology for a frequent traveller is the bank of automatic gates at some borders. The gates are capable of reading the data on the traveller's passport or ID card and matching it to their face using a camera and facial recognition technology. Recognition technology is one of the big tourism trends in the hospitality industry too, with voice recognition becoming more and more popular as a method of control in smart hotel rooms.

9. Internet of things (IoT)

IoT is relevant to many tourism trends. IoT devices are gadgets equipped with a microprocessor and some form of digital connectivity, allowing them to connect to, and be controlled from, the internet. IoT devices include heating and cooling systems, entertainment systems and other items often found in a hotel room, giving rise to "smart" hotel rooms. The IoT is also used to integrate services in a hospitality setting, for example by allowing guests to book activities (a session in the hotel's spa, swimming in the pool, training in the gym etc) or request such things as room service or extra linen via a hub or a

smartphone application.

10. Augmented reality (AR)

Where VR simulates entire environments and experiences, augmented reality combines real- world experiences and virtual elements. A familiar example would be the smartphone game Pokémon Go, where imaginary creatures are superimposed on real-time footage of the player's environment. In the tourist industry, this is obviously very useful: instead of fantasy monsters. AR smartphone apps can show tourists information about the area they're exploring. This could be historical details about buildings and landmarks, or listings and menus for entertainment venues and local eateries. Museums make increasing use of AR, allowing visitors to view artefacts with their original appearance as a virtual overlay. Other augmented reality applications might include internet-enabled virtual maps.

11. Healthy and organic food

Healthy food and the kind of fare consumed by tourists used to be antonyms in the minds of many travellers, with holidays traditionally representing a chance to break one's diet and indulge in forbidden treats. Today's travellers know that delicious and nutritious are not exclusive concepts. Demand for excellent cuisine with a view to better nutrition is driving new tourism trends. The modern tourist wants to know that the food they're eating is as healthy as it is delicious. The organic food movement is also affecting tourism trends, with more eateries and hotels offering organic options. Other special diets are also represented.

12. Customer Experience

Of course, the customer experience has always been central to the tourist industry. With new technologies and an ever-broadening array of options for tourists, enhancing the customer experience has never been more vital. In the final analysis, customer experience is what will make or break your business. Fine-tuning the experience can make the difference between creating a loyal repeat customer who boosts your business via word of mouth, and one who drops out at the booking stage. Everything from the web interface where your clients book their trips to the very last day of their journey needs to be as enjoyable as possible.

UNIT – IV

Culture and Subculture

Culture is part of the external influences that impact the consumer. That is, culture represents influences that are imposed on the consumer by other individuals.

The definition of culture offered in one textbook is “That complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man person as a member of society.” From this definition, we make the following observations:

- Culture, as a “complex whole,” is a system of interdependent components.
- Knowledge and beliefs are important parts. In the U.S., we know and believe that a person who is skilled and works hard will get ahead. In other countries, it may be believed that differences in outcome result more from luck. “Chunking,” the name for China in Chinese, literally means “The Middle Kingdom.” The belief among ancient Chinese that they were in the center of the universe greatly influenced their thinking.
- Other issues are relevant. Art, for example, may be reflected in the rather arbitrary practice of wearing ties in some countries and wearing turbans in others. Morality may be exhibited in the view in the United States that one should not be naked in public. In Japan, on the other hand, groups of men and women may take steam baths together without perceived as improper. On the other extreme, women in some Arab countries are not even allowed to reveal their faces. Notice, by the way, that what at least some countries view as moral may in fact be highly immoral by the standards of another country. For example, the law that once banned interracial marriages in South Africa was named the “Immorality Act,” even though in most civilized countries this law, and any degree of explicit racial prejudice, would itself be considered highly immoral.

Culture has several important characteristics: (1) Culture is comprehensive. This means that all parts must fit together in some logical fashion. For example, bowing and a strong desire to avoid the loss of face are unified in their manifestation of the importance of respect. (2) Culture is learned rather than being something we are born with. We will consider the mechanics of learning later in the course. (3) Culture is manifested within boundaries of acceptable behavior. For example, in American society, one cannot show up to class naked, but wearing anything from a suit and tie to shorts and a T-shirt would usually be acceptable. Failure to behave within the prescribed norms may lead to sanctions, ranging from being hauled off by the police for indecent exposure to being laughed at by others for wearing a suit at the beach. (4) Conscious awareness of cultural

standards is limited. One American spy was intercepted by the Germans during World War II simply because of the way he held his knife and fork while eating. (5) Cultures fall somewhere on a continuum between static and dynamic depending on how quickly they accept change. For example, American culture has changed a great deal since the 1950s, while the culture of Saudi Arabia has changed much less.

- *Dealing with culture.* Culture is a problematic issue for many marketers since it is inherently nebulous and often difficult to understand. One may violate the cultural norms of another country without being informed of this, and people from different cultures may feel uncomfortable in each other's presence without knowing exactly why (for example, two speakers may unconsciously continue to attempt to adjust to reach an incompatible preferred interpersonal distance).

Warning about stereotyping. When observing a culture, one must be careful not to over-generalize about traits that one sees. Research in social psychology has suggested a strong tendency for people to perceive an "outgroup" as more homogenous than an "ingroup," even when they knew what members had been assigned to each group purely by chance. When there is often a "grain of truth" to some of the perceived differences, the temptation to over-generalize is often strong. Note that there are often significant individual differences within cultures.

Cultural lessons. We considered several cultural lessons in class; the important thing here is the big picture. For example, within the Muslim tradition, the dog is considered a "dirty" animal, so portraying it as "man's best friend" in an advertisement is counter-productive. Packaging, seen as a reflection of the quality of the "real" product, is considerably more important in Asia than in the U.S., where there is a tendency to focus on the contents which "really count." Many cultures observe significantly greater levels of formality than that typical in the U.S., and Japanese negotiators tend to observe long silent pauses as a speaker's point is considered.

Cultural characteristics as a continuum: There is a tendency to stereotype cultures as being one way or another (e.g., individualistic rather than collectivistic). Note, however, countries fall on a continuum of cultural traits. Hofstede's research demonstrates a wide range between the most individualistic and collectivistic countries, for example—some fall in the middle.

Hofstede's Dimensions. Gert Hofstede, a Dutch researcher, was able to interview a large number of IBM executives in various countries, and found that cultural differences tended to center around four key dimensions:

- Individualism vs. collectivism: To what extent do people believe in individual responsibility and reward rather than having these measures aimed at the larger group? Contrary to the stereotype, Japan actually ranks in the middle of this dimension, while Indonesia and West Africa rank toward the collectivistic side.

The U.S., Britain, and the Netherlands rate toward individualism.

- Power distance: To what extent is there a strong separation of individuals based on rank? Power distance tends to be particularly high in Arab countries and some Latin American ones, while it is more modest in Northern Europe and the U.S.

- Masculinity vs. femininity involves a somewhat more nebulous concept.

“Masculine” values involve competition and “conquering” nature by means such as large construction projects, while “feminine” values involve harmony and environmental protection. Japan is one of the more masculine countries, while the Netherlands rank relatively low. The U.S. is close to the middle, slightly toward the masculine side. (The fact that these values are thought of as “masculine” or “feminine” does not mean that they are consistently held by members of each respective gender—there are very large “within-group” differences. There is, however, often a large correlation of these cultural values with the status of women.)

- Uncertainty avoidance involves the extent to which a “structured” situation with clear rules is preferred to a more ambiguous one; in general, countries with lower uncertainty avoidance tend to be more tolerant of risk. Japan ranks very high.

Few countries are very low in any absolute sense, but relatively speaking, Britain and Hong Kong are lower, and the U.S. is in the lower range of the distribution. Although Hofstede’s original work did not address this, a fifth dimension of long term vs. short term orientation has been proposed. In the U.S., managers like to see quick results, while Japanese managers are known for take a long term view, often accepting long periods before profitability is obtained.

High vs. low context cultures: In some cultures, “what you see is what you get”—the speaker is expected to make his or her points clear and limit ambiguity. This is the case in the U.S.—if you have something on your mind, you are expected to say it directly, subject to some reasonable standards of diplomacy. In Japan, in contrast, facial expressions and what is not said may be an important clue to understanding a speaker’s meaning. Thus, it may be very difficult for Japanese speakers to understand another’s written

communication. The nature of languages may exacerbate this phenomenon— while the German language is very precise, Chinese lacks many grammatical features, and the meaning of words may be somewhat less precise. English ranks somewhere in the middle of this continuum.

Ethnocentrism and the self-reference criterion. The self-reference criterion refers to the tendency of individuals, often unconsciously, to use the standards of one's own culture to evaluate others. For example, Americans may perceive more traditional societies to be "backward" and "unmotivated" because they fail to adopt new technologies or social customs, seeking instead to preserve traditional values. In the 1960s, a supposedly well read American psychology professor referred to India's culture of "sick" because, despite severe food shortages, the Hindu religion did not allow the eating of cows. The psychologist expressed disgust that the cows were allowed to roam free in villages, although it turns out that they provided valuable functions by offering milk and fertilizing fields. Ethnocentrism is the tendency to view one's culture to be superior to others. The important thing here is to consider how these biases may come in the way in dealing with members of other cultures.

It should be noted that there is a tendency of outsiders to a culture to overstate the similarity of members of that culture to each other. In the United States, we are well aware that there is a great deal of heterogeneity within our culture; however, we often underestimate the diversity within other cultures. For example, in Latin America, there are great differences between people who live in coastal and mountainous areas; there are also great differences between social classes.

Language issues. Language is an important element of culture. It should be realized that regional differences may be subtle. For example, one word may mean one thing in one Latin American country, but something off-color in another. It should also be kept in mind that much information is carried in non-verbal communication. In some cultures, we nod to signify "yes" and shake our heads to signify "no;" in other cultures, the practice is reversed. Within the context of language:

- There are often large variations in regional dialects of a given language. The differences between U.S., Australian, and British English are actually modest compared to differences between dialects of Spanish and German.
- Idioms involve "figures of speech" that may not be used, literally translated, in other languages. For example, baseball is a predominantly North and South

American sport, so the notion of “in the ball park” makes sense here, but the term does not carry the same meaning in cultures where the sport is less popular.

- Neologisms involve terms that have come into language relatively recently as technology or society involved. With the proliferation of computer technology, for example, the idea of an “add-on” became widely known. It may take longer for such terms to “diffuse” into other regions of the world. In parts of the World where English is heavily studied in schools, the emphasis is often on grammar and traditional language rather than on current terminology, so neologisms have a wide potential not to be understood.
- Slang exists within most languages. Again, regional variations are common and not all people in a region where slang is used will necessarily understand this. There are often significant generation gaps in the use of slang. Writing patterns, or the socially accepted ways of writing, will differ significantly between cultures.

In English and Northern European languages, there is an emphasis on organization and conciseness. Here, a point is made by building up to it through background. An introduction will often foreshadow what is to be said. In Romance languages such as Spanish, French, and Portuguese, this style is often considered “boring” and “inelegant.” Detours are expected and are considered a sign of class, not of poor organization. In Asian languages, there is often a great deal of circularity. Because of concerns about potential loss of face, opinions may not be expressed directly. Instead, speakers may hint at ideas or indicate what others have said, waiting for feedback from the other speaker before committing to a point of view.

Because of differences in values, assumptions, and language structure, it is not possible to meaningfully translate “word-for-word” from one language to another. A translator must keep “unspoken understandings” and assumptions in mind in translating. The intended meaning of a word may also differ from its literal translation. For example, the Japanese word *hai* is literally translated as “yes.” To Americans, that would imply “Yes, I agree.” To the Japanese speaker, however, the word may mean “Yes, I hear what you are saying” (without any agreement expressed) or even “Yes, I hear you are saying something even though I am not sure exactly what you are saying.”

Differences in cultural values result in different preferred methods of speech. In American English, where the individual is assumed to be more in control of his or her destiny than is the case in many other cultures, there is a preference for the “active” tense

(e.g., “I wrote the marketing plan”) as opposed to the passive (e.g., “The marketing plan was written by me.”)

Because of the potential for misunderstandings in translations, it is dangerous to rely on a translation from one language to another made by one person. In the “decentering” method, multiple translators are used.

The text is first translated by one translator—say, from German to Mandarin Chinese. A second translator, who does not know what the original German text said, will then translate back to German from Mandarin Chinese translation. The text is then compared. If the meaning is not similar, a third translator, keeping in mind this feedback, will then translate from German to Mandarin. The process is continued until the translated meaning appears to be satisfactory.

Different perspectives exist in different cultures on several issues; e.g.:

- Monochronic cultures tend to value precise scheduling and doing one thing at a time; in polychronic cultures, in contrast, promptness is valued less, and multiple tasks may be performed simultaneously. (See text for more detail).
- Space is perceived differently. Americans will feel crowded where people from more densely populated countries will be comfortable.
- Symbols differ in meaning. For example, while white symbolizes purity in the U.S., it is a symbol of death in China. Colors that are considered masculine and feminine also differ by culture.
- Americans have a lot of quite shallow friends toward whom little obligation is felt; people in European and some Asian cultures have fewer, but more significant friends. For example, one Ph.D. student from India, with limited income, felt obligated to try buy an airline ticket for a friend to go back to India when a relative had died.
- In the U.S. and much of Europe, agreements are typically rather precise and contractual in nature; in Asia, there is a greater tendency to settle issues as they come up. As a result, building a relationship of trust is more important in Asia, since you must be able to count on your partner being reasonable.
- In terms of etiquette, some cultures have more rigid procedures than others. In some countries, for example, there are explicit standards as to how a gift should be presented. In some cultures, gifts should be presented in private to avoid embarrassing the recipient; in others, the gift should be made publicly to ensure that no perception of secret bribery could be made.

The Relationship between Host Community and Tourist/Guest

Tourism is a product that relies totally upon simultaneous production and consumption. The implication of this for the destination's host community is that it will come into contact with an alien population during the production process. This contact can be beneficial or detrimental to the host community depending upon the difference in cultures and the nature of the contact. Tourism can develop and grow when host community has a positive attitude toward it and when they see their role in the process of the tourism development. At the point when a tourism destination is born, the quality of life of the local hosts goes through radical changes, which are not necessarily negative. Literature suggests that tourism development has created both positive and negative impacts on communities. As a consequence, community residents hold different attitudes towards tourism development. Residents who do not support the development of tourism have been identified in almost all segmentation studies concerning attitudes towards tourism, namely 'Haters' (Davis et al. 1988; Madrigal 1995), 'Cynics' (Williams and Lawson 2001) or 'Somewhat Irritated' (Ryan and Montgomery 1994). Host communities do see new business opportunities in tourism and are motivated to explore them. At the same time, they know that some negative physical, cultural, social and economic impacts will emerge. The most complex problems that accompany tourism development, reside in the relationship between local host and tourist.

Furthermore, there are limits of tourism growth that are closely associated with the place capacity and with the quality of life in the local community. The most complex problems that accompany tourism development, reside in the relationship between tourists and local host. Furthermore, there are limits of tourism growth that are closely associated with the place capacity and with the quality of life in the local community. When these limits are exceeded, local residents develop negative attitudes towards tourism. When negative attitudes become beliefs, tourism development obstacles appear. The beliefs of the local hosts become the most reliable indicator of the limits to the growth of tourism.

Host community

According to Sherlock (1999), it is difficult to define the term "community" precisely; nevertheless, the word can be used to refer to a group of people who exist in one particular location. Aramberri (2001) suggests that "host societies are in fact communities, made of one piece". For Williams and Lawson (2001) community is defined as "a group of people who share common goals or opinions". "Host Community" is

particular is defined by Mathieson and Wall (1982) as the “Inhabitants of the destination area”. Similarly, Swarbrooke (1999) defines it as “all those who live within a tourist destination”. According to Gursoy et al.(2002) and Williams and Lawson (2001), the community consists of different groups of people who live in the same geographical area, which does not mean they necessarily belong to the same ‘community’. In the light of the previous definition, it can be concluded that a host community consists of all those people in the destination, whether they are homogeneous or heterogeneous and regardless of whether the impacts of tourism are beneficial or otherwise.

Tourism is an industry which uses the host community as a resource to sell it as a product, and in the process affects the lives of everyone (Murphy, 1980). The community is a product of amalgam of the destination’s resources. As such the tourism industry is dependent on the host community’s hospitality, and therefore it should be developed according to the community’s needs to desires. Before host communities begin development of tourism resources, it is imperative to gain an understanding of host’s opinions regarding development. Tourism development in a community is not simply a matter of matching product supply with tourist demand, local acceptability must also be considered (Menning, 1995).

Moreover, it is the host community to who has a voice in concluding which tourism impacts are acceptable and which impacts are problems. However, the host is community is often the last to be notified of tourism development (Thyne and Lawson,2001) and quite often they are not given a chance or encouraged to give their opinion on tourism issues.

Relationship between Host Community and Guest

A good relationship between local hosts and tourist is essential for the long term development of tourism destination. (Ap and Crompton, 1998). The relationship between host community and tourists is mainly affected by the socio-cultural impacts that are caused due to tourism development (Smith, 1995). The variation in the relationship between hosts and tourists depends on the level to which the benefits of tourism are perceived to exceed costs (Faulkner and Tideswell 1997).

In other words, this means that if the tourism industry brings in benefit rather than cost to the host community, the relationship between both parties would be much more stronger. Smith (1989) conclude that contacts between tourist and host community if different cultural background take the form of direct face to face encounters between tourists and

host of different cultural groups. The interaction between hosts and international guests raises another issue linked to cultural tolerance.

As argued by Bochner (1982), the mutual understanding between cultures can create an opportunity for acquaintance leading towards enhanced understanding and tolerance and, consequently, reduce prejudice, conflict and tension between hosts and tourists. This type of contact is experienced by tourists when they travel from home culture to a host culture by hosts when they serve tourists from a foreign culture. That is, both tourist and the host community participate in exploring each other's culture. Tourist exploring the host culture by learning and exploring it and on the other hand the host community is interacting with tourists, who are of foreign cultures.

Host community perception towards tourism development

Research has been conducted for the convenience of tourists, while local community perceptions and attitudes towards the industry have been given less of a priority (Murphy 1985). Butler (1980) claimed that there is a correlation between the development of tourism and the attitude of the domestic people towards the tourists. The domestic people show a very positive attitude towards the increasing number of tourists in the region at the beginning because they have high expectations from the tourist in long term basis.

However this positive attitude is gradually replaced by the negative attitude as the time passes. Local residents' perceptions are strongly influenced by the benefits and costs of tourism development. Those who received benefit from tourism stated that they are dependent on tourism, but the case was contrary for those who received nothing.

For instance, destination communities have been inconvenienced by congestion and some other negative impacts brought by tourism (Brunt and Courtney 1999).

Any impacts from tourism causing annoyance or anger in the host community may lead to problems for the long-term development of the industry. Therefore, Murphy (1985: 133) argued 'if tourism is to merit its pseudonym of being "the hospitality industry", it must look beyond its own doors and employees to consider the social and cultural impacts it is having on the host community at large'. Studying host community attitudes and the antecedents of resident reaction can help both residents and planners (Williams and Lawson 2001). Williams and Lawson argued that it was possible to select those developments that can minimize negative impacts and maximize support for the industry. By doing so, on one hand the quality of life of residents can be maintained or enhanced; and, on the other hand, the negative impacts of tourism in the community will be reduced.

Tourism Impacts

Researchers in the early years of the twenty first century list an impressive range of both positive and negative impacts on the host community as a result of tourism development (Fredline and Faulkner, 2000; Upchurch and Teivane, 2000; Gursoy et al., 2002; Besculides et al., 2002). The study of impacts from tourism on local communities takes in a range of literature that includes both the positive and negative effects of hosting tourists to a community. Andereck and Vogt (2000) point out that residents of a tourist community differ with respect to the impacts resulting from tourism development. However, researchers agree that a necessary condition of successful tourism development strategy is the inclusion of residents of the entire community if tourism investment is to yield substantial returns (Allen et al., 1988, 1993; Jurowski & Uysal, 1997; Long et al., 1990; Snepenger & Johnson, 1991).

Socio-cultural Impacts

Tourism is a socio-cultural event for both the guest and host (Murphy, 1985) and the contact between host and tourists can be beneficial or detrimental to the host community depending upon the difference in cultures and the nature of the contact. Tourism development also affects the social, cultural and environmental aspects within a destination. Socio-cultural impacts are concerned with the “ways in which tourism is contributing to changes in value systems, individual behaviour, family relationships, collective lifestyles, moral conduct, creative expressions, traditional ceremonies and community organization” (Pizam & Milman, 1984, cited in Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996, p.503).

Host community has always been viewed as victims having to accept the social and cultural changes that are brought by tourism development (Sharpley and Telfer, 2002), while guest who imposes their own values on the host communities are viewed as the villain. Socio-cultural aspects within a destination may be positively affected through increased tourism Research (Ap & Crompton, 1998; Easterling, 2004) suggests that tourism brings an increased understanding of other cultures, and strengthens the cultural identity of the host destination and increases community pride.

Furthermore, tourism development increases and promotes cultural exchange between tourists and residents. Tourism can also be a force to preserve and revitalize the cultural identity and traditional practices of host communities and act as a source of income to protect heritage sites (Easterling, 2004). Tourism on the socio-cultural aspects can contribute to the revitalisation of arts, crafts and local culture and to the realization of

cultural identity and heritage. In order to attract more tourists, architectural and historical sites are restored and protected (Inskeep, 1991).

According to a study by Isik (2005) in Denmark, it was common that local people are not happy because tourism narrowed their alternatives of life, they do not have jobs, for children and the youth there are no activities for fun, no cinemas and entertainment. Life is too monotonous. Many years ago, citizens were very happy; there was a perfect friendship between the neighbors but now they do not even greet each other. However, the same study was carried out in Güzelçamlı in Turkey reveals that hosts are very happy with tourists and every summer they organize festivals to get more tourists. From a cultural perspective, tourism development and the appearance of tourists could cause a series of changes in host communities, such as increased price and identity, cohesion, exchange of ideas and increased knowledge about cultures (Stein & Anderson 1999). In other words, meaning that the host community will gain in about the tourist culture, helping them to expand their knowledge. Other changes included assimilation, conflict and xenophobia as well as artificial reconstruction (Besculides, Lee & McCormick 2002). Relevant literature acknowledged that perception of host community on such impacts is ambivalent that is they have a feeling of both hate and love towards changes occurring with the tourism development. To others, the cultural changes caused by tourism “threatens to destroy traditional cultures and societies” (Brunt & Courtney 1999, p. 495) and to others it represented “an opportunity for peace, understanding and greater knowledge” (Brunt & Courtney 1999, p.495). With an expansion in the international tourism, the contact between guest and host would increase automatically. Such an increase would deepen the cultural impacts of tourism on host communities. In an extreme situation, the host communities could become culturally dependent on the tourism generating country (Sharpley 1994).

Factors Influencing Host community perception towards tourism development

Tourism development does not only generate benefits, but it also imposes costs (Jafari, 2001). By evaluating these benefits and costs, host communities develop their perception toward tourism development. However, previous research indicates that the development of local hosts' attitudes toward tourism is not determined by those perceived benefits and costs but is modified by various moderating variables (Lankford, 1994). Those tested variables are classified as the intrinsic dimension which includes resident's socio-cultural economic and demographic attributes, but the results are mixed.

What Is the Contact Hypothesis in Psychology?

The contact hypothesis is a theory in psychology which suggests that prejudice and conflict between groups can be reduced if members of the groups interact with each other.

Key Takeaways: Contact Hypothesis

- The contact hypothesis suggests that interpersonal contact between groups can reduce prejudice.
- According to Gordon Allport, who first proposed the theory, four conditions are necessary to reduce prejudice: equal status, common goals, cooperation, and institutional support.
- While the contact hypothesis has been studied most often in the context of racial prejudice, researchers have found that contact was able to reduce prejudice against members of a variety of marginalized groups.

Historical Background

The contact hypothesis was developed in the middle of the 20th century by researchers who were interested in understanding how conflict and prejudice could be reduced. Studies in the 1940s and 1950s, for example, found that contact with members of other groups was related to lower levels of prejudice. In one study from 1951, researchers looked at how living in segregated or desegregated housing units was related to prejudice and found that, in New York (where housing was desegregated), white study participants reported lower prejudice than white participants in Newark (where housing was still segregated).

One of the key early theorists studying the contact hypothesis was Harvard psychologist Gordon Allport, who published the influential book *The Nature of Prejudice* in 1954. In his book, Allport reviewed previous research on intergroup contact and prejudice. He found that contact reduced prejudice in some instances, but it wasn't a panacea—there were also cases where intergroup contact made prejudice and conflict worse. In order to account for this, Allport sought to figure out when contact worked to reduce prejudice successfully, and he developed four conditions that have been studied by later researchers.

Allport's Four Conditions

According to Allport, contact between groups is most likely to reduce prejudice if the following four conditions are met:

1. The members of the two groups have equal status. Allport believed that contact in

which members of one group are treated as subordinate wouldn't reduce prejudice—and could actually make things worse.

2. The members of the two groups have common goals.
3. The members of the two groups work cooperatively. Allport wrote, “Only the type of contact that leads people to do things together is likely to result in changed attitudes.”
4. There is institutional support for the contact (for example, if group leaders or other authority figures support the contact between groups).

Evaluating the Contact Hypothesis

In the years since Allport published his original study, researchers have sought to test out empirically whether contact with other groups can reduce prejudice. In a 2006 paper, Thomas Pettigrew and Linda Tropp conducted a meta-analysis: they reviewed the results of over 500 previous studies—with approximately 250,000 research participants—and found support for the contact hypothesis. Moreover, they found that these results were not due to self-selection (i.e. people who were less prejudiced choosing to have contact with other groups, and people who were more prejudiced choosing to avoid contact), because contact had a beneficial effect even when participants hadn't chosen whether or not to have contact with members of other groups.

While the contact hypothesis has been studied most often in the context of racial prejudice, the researchers found that contact was able to reduce prejudice against members of a variety of marginalized groups. For example, contact was able to reduce prejudice based on sexual orientation and prejudice against people with disabilities. The researchers also found that contact with members of one group not only reduced prejudice towards that particular group, but reduced prejudice towards members of other groups as well.

What about Allport's four conditions?

The researchers found a larger effect on prejudice reduction when at least one of Allport's conditions was met. However, even in studies that didn't meet Allport's conditions, prejudice was still reduced—suggesting that Allport's conditions may improve relationships between groups, but they aren't strictly necessary.

Why Does Contact Reduce Prejudice?

Researchers have suggested that contact between groups can reduce prejudice because it reduces feelings of anxiety (people may be anxious about interacting with members of a group they have had little contact with). Contact may also reduce prejudice because it increases empathy and helps people to see things from the other group's perspective.

According to psychologist Thomas Pettigrew and his colleagues, contact with another group allows people “to sense how outgroup members feel and view the world.”

Psychologist John Dovidio and his colleagues suggested that contact may reduce prejudice because it changes how we categorize others. One effect of contact can be decategorization, which involves seeing someone as an individual, rather than as only a member of their group. Another outcome of contact can be recategorization, in which people no longer see someone as part of a group that they’re in conflict with, but rather as a member of a larger, shared group.

Another reason why contact is beneficial is because it fosters the formation of friendships across group lines.

Limitations and New Research Directions

Researchers have acknowledged that intergroup contact can backfire, especially if the situation is stressful, negative, or threatening, and the group members did not choose to have contact with the other group. In his 2019 book *The Power of Human*, psychology researcher Adam Waytz suggested that power dynamics may complicate intergroup contact situations, and that attempts to reconcile groups that are in conflict need to consider whether there is a power imbalance between the groups. For example, he suggested that, in situations where there is a power imbalance, interactions between group members may be more likely to be productive if the less powerful group is given the opportunity to express what their experiences have been, and if the more powerful group is encouraged to practice empathy and seeing things from the less powerful group’s perspective.

Can Contact Promote Allyship?

One especially promising possibility is that contact between groups might encourage more powerful majority group members to work as allies—that is, to work to end oppression and systematic injustices. For example, Dovidio and his colleagues suggested that “contact also provides a potentially powerful opportunity for majority-group members to foster political solidarity with the minority group.” Similarly, Tropp—one of the co-authors of the meta-analysis on contact and prejudice—tells *New York Magazine’s The Cut* that “there’s also the potential for contact to change the future behavior of historically advantaged groups to benefit the disadvantaged.”

While contact between groups isn’t a panacea, it’s a powerful tool to reduce conflict and prejudice—and it may even encourage members of more powerful groups to become allies who advocate for the rights of members of marginalized groups.