

See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/232936550>

Proposing a Sustainable Marketing Framework for Heritage Tourism

Article in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* · May 2009

DOI: 10.1080/09669580802495758

CITATIONS

47

READS

414

1 author:



Deepak Chhabra

Arizona State University

76 PUBLICATIONS 973 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE

Some of the authors of this publication are also working on these related projects:



Retro-branding of khadi [View project](#)



Authenticity of Homestay Tourism in the Himalayas of India [View project](#)

Proposing a sustainable marketing framework for heritage tourism

Deepak Chhabra*

School of Community Resources and Development, Arizona State University, Phoenix, AZ, USA

(Received 10 March 2008; final version received 24 July 2008)

This study tests a sustainable marketing protocol for heritage tourism institutions. The marketing plans of 24 museums across the United States are examined to grasp the empirical reality of the proposed model. The model is crafted along strategic marketing criteria, including measures such as environment analysis, level of local community involvement, partnership, and maintenance of traditional preservation-based objectives of the museums. A gap between the philosophical underpinnings of the proposed model and the existing marketing strategies is found. It is noted that the contemporary museum ethos in many regions of the United States is centered on short term plans and current survival. Additionally, regardless of locations, funding and short-termism dictate the core elements of all marketing plans. Overall, the results indicate that dedicated efforts and more awareness are needed to sustain the core purpose of contemporary museums. Using an applied approach, this study offers a unique and realistic perspective to a conceptually drawn framework. The results enhance the marketing literature, offer suggestions on how museum marketing plans could include sustainable elements and become part of a sustainable heritage tourism paradigm.

Keywords: heritage tourism; marketing; sustainable tourism

Introduction

Over the past few decades, museums have emerged as important heritage tourism attractions across the United States. Contemporary museums, in their competition with other for-profit tourism businesses, increasingly serve a dual purpose: education and entertainment of the tourists. Their marketing efforts aim to attract tourists with enhanced vigor so that their attendance revenue can be tapped to support the existence and operation of museums. Parallel to this effort is an increasing concern that the “increasing number of tourists to museum will overburden institutional infrastructures, ultimately threatening the museum’s ability to perform its traditional tasks of preservation, conservation and curatorship” (Harrison, 2005, p. 24). These efforts and concerns are common across both man-made and natural heritage sites; the resolution of these issues is central to sustainable tourism management.

The museums’ marketing emphasis to draw mass tourists has thus created risks and shifts in the traditional mission of collection and preservation of cultural objects. It has been argued that the current marketing strategies are replacing the “golden rules of conservation” by “contradictory commercial values” (Fyall & Garrod, 1998, p. 685). Elements of abuse and excessive activities on their premises reflect overindulgence in their efforts to adhere to mass tourism appeal and these pose a risk of erosion to their original mission of preservation

*Email: deepak.chhabra@asu.edu

(Anderson, 2005). This is all the more evident because the majority of their marketing strategies have a predominantly visitor-based, short term focus. The positioning of museum culture in contemporary times has shifted from being “object-driven” to being “visitor-driven”.

Against this argument, it has become necessary to rationalize the contemporary museum taxonomy. Given the fact that museums are no longer a spending priority of the government in developed countries like the United States, they have been under increasing pressure to draw supplemental income from private sector sources. Because of the ongoing “threat of funding squeezes” (Anderson, 2005, p. 300), recent museum nomenclature leans predominantly towards operation for profit entities. This is especially evident in the way museums are marketed in the United States, to draw audiences which have the propensity to spend. Messages original to the museum purpose are modified and adapted to resonate with audience need. This view is supported by Misiura who stated that to be successful in tourism, “heritage attractions or other heritage consumer brands must appeal to the aspirations, needs, and motivations of prospective and regular customers” (2006, p. 81).

Rowan and Baram (2004) describe heritage tourism as a consumerist phenomenon and hence marketing of this phenomenon is bound to be driven by capitalist tendencies. In the mass-tourism perspective, the marketing term draws from material, corporate and consumerist ideologies. That said, not all marketing is tainted with capitalistic ideologies. Advocates of sustainable marketing contend that marketing is a poorly understood concept in museum literature and in its current form cannot make a meaningful contribution towards long term benefits. This study proposes a sustainable marketing protocol to address this deficit. It contends that sustainable marketing is doable and can gear the museums towards their traditional long term mission for preservation and de-center the emphasis on financial agendas. Thus, it is posited that a holistic framework striving to balance profits versus preservation can serve to help museums formulate sustainable marketing plans (Mckenzie-Mohr, 2000). This study contends that effective and meaningful marketing strategies can channel audience interest and revenue to support the traditional mission and purpose of the heritage museums and not vice versa. By employing an applied approach, it provides a basis for more sustainability studies in future. Additionally, it offers a useful insight and critique of museums’ backstage operations within the context of sustainability. In doing so, it suggests an alternative agenda to museums and makes an important contribution to museum literature.

Additionally, it extends the arguments of McLean (2002) who expressed concern about the misuse and misunderstanding of marketing in the museum world. She questioned the credentials of marketing with its multiple connotations, commonly understood as focusing on the needs of the consumer and supplier strategies to meet those needs. McLean (2002) suggested that marketing does not have to be a “stigma”; rather it should be considered as one of the many tools used to accomplish the museums’ collection and preservation objectives. According to the author, “marketing at its lowest denominator is about building a relationship between the museum and the public” (McLean, 2002, p. 2). Designing museum marketing to solely reflect economic goals can be detrimental to the overall preservation and collection ethos.

Given the debates in marketing and its extensive use in the heritage tourism literature and its increasing emphasis as an important tool in the museum literature, it is interesting to note that the term itself is misunderstood because of its multiple connotations. On one hand, traditional heritage institutions which are slow to change regard it as a sin that has to be committed (Rowan & Baram, 2004). On the other hand, heritage institutions that are all out to embrace capitalist objectives regard it as a revenue-making machine (Misiura, 2006; Phaswana-Mafuya & Haydam, 2005). Furthermore, a fragmented use of the marketing

term is evident in literature. All aspects of marketing are seldom addressed in their relevant contexts. A review of museum literature shows that discussion of an all-inclusive (holistic) meaning of marketing is sparse (McLean, 2002; Misiura, 2006). Overall mission, strategic planning and environment analysis are seldom taken into account. Moreover, partnership plans with objectives beyond economic numerations can be used to increase customer base and net income, but they are rarely used for sustainable objectives.

To accomplish the aforementioned objectives, this study first suggests a hypothetical sustainable heritage tourism marketing (SHTM) model. Next, it analyzes the current marketing strategies of heritage museums to determine if a gap exists between the contemporary revenue-driven images of the museums in the outside world today (Anderson, 2005) and the actual purpose and emphasis behind the museum scenes. This is followed by a discussion of the marketing themes gleaned from marketing plans from heritage museums across the United States. These are then matched with the themes identified by the proposed model. The museums were selected from 20 spatially dispersed states across the United States including Alaska, Arizona, California, North Carolina and Utah. Approximately 10 museums were selected from urban and 10 from rural regions: full details are given in the Methodology section.

In summary, this paper develops a sustainable marketing protocol and analyzes the marketing plans from the museums selected, within the proposed framework. The sustainable marketing model contends that a holistic framework, inclusive of environment analysis, community involvement, and the traditional preservation-based objective of the museums, should be considered in designing an effective sustainable marketing framework. Furthermore, while in agreement with the popular notion that market segmentation, research, and communication strategies are crucial in marketing, the model suggests that these need to follow a code of ethics drawn from sustainable principles. In doing so, this paper proposes a strategic plan to limit the use of human footprints and promote both cultural and social capital in the local communities. The aim is to address the following research questions:

- (1) Do the majority of the heritage museums in the selected regions have a marketing plan?
- (2) What are the main themes of the collected marketing plans?
- (3) Do the marketing plans differ, based on location, recognition, and funding?
- (4) Can the proposed sustainable marketing model match the current contemporary museum ethos? If not, what modifications are needed within the museum ideologies to embrace the framework?
- (5) How can the sustainable use of heritage marketing benefit museums in the long run?

Literature review

This section provides an overview of main marketing themes gleaned from the heritage tourism marketing literature. Additionally, other important themes suggested by the marketing model and their context are researched. This is followed by a discussion on museum heritage, sustainability and its application in heritage tourism as presented by previous research.

Common themes in heritage tourism marketing

The commonly occurring themes in heritage tourism marketing literature were discovered to be market segmentation, promotion (mostly focusing on advertising), and partnerships.

Most of the market segmentation studies aimed to identify target markets through primary research techniques such as questionnaire and interview surveys. Some studies evaluated promotional strategies designed for specific market segments, while others investigated the effectiveness of non-segment specific promotional strategies. A summary of the review of these three components of marketing is given below.

Market segmentation is receiving increasing attention in heritage tourism marketing literature. Because heritage tourists are not a homogenous market, segmentation helps identify distinct groups (Tsiotsou & Vasaioti, 2006). Numerous variables divide heritage tourists into subgroups such as demographics (Chen & Hsu, 2000; Chhabra, Sills, & Rea, 2002; Misiura, 2006), motivation (Kerstetter, Confer, & Graefe, 2001), activities (Sung, 2004), attitude (Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2003), benefits (Frochot, 2005) and spending propensity (Caserta & Russo, 2002; Chhabra et al., 2002). Much of the existing research has focused on the superiority of one segmentation method over the other (Frochot & Morrison, 2000). A variety of measures ranging from ranking systems (Choi & Tsang, 1999) to quantifiable criteria based on visitor spending (Jang, Ismail, & Ham, 2002; Jang, Morrison, & O'Leary, 2004) has been explored by several studies. Many authors have also provided more focused segmentation research to help precision in promotional strategies (Cooper & Inoue, 1996).

In another vein, Tsiotsou and Vasaioti (2006) point out that segmentation approaches are used to resolve marketing issues, but these are only revenue-oriented and fail to take long term strategies into consideration. The main goal has been to stay competitive, satisfy consumer needs, increase marketing effectiveness, provide a base for target markets and help identify opportunities and threats. The underlying premise is that meaningful market segments are those which stay longer and generate maximum revenue (Phaswana-Mafuya & Haydam, 2005). In the same vein, Harrison (1997) pointed out that heritage tourists are atypical and the numerous visitor groups need an in-depth study to enable museums to draw the tourist dollar. Likewise, the suggested implications of many recent studies focus on informing museums and other heritage institutions about appropriate promotional strategies for target markets. Future research and limitations suggest better techniques and instruments for segmenting markets and better replication. Most present a materialistic perspective to market segmentation and lack strategies to identify appropriate markets that are sensitive and responsive to the preservation needs of heritage. To date, segmentation-based studies have not contested this praxis and have failed to suggest a sustainable strategic basis for market selection.

Nevertheless, several studies have appeared in the non-heritage tourism literature that deal with the ethics of market segmentation. While targeting disadvantaged segments, Rittenberg and Parthasarathy (1997) and Bowen (1998) reviewed the ethics, public relations, and other marketing implications and called for a sensitive approach to harmful products such as non-nutritious meals and gambling. Regardless of the segmentation approach, the entire process of identifying target markets is aimed to inform and guide appropriate communication strategies so that effective messages can be designed and communicated.

Schiffman and Kanuk (1991) categorized channels into interpersonal (occurring on a personal level) and impersonal (mass- and promotion-based) communication. Mixed use of these channels has been reported in heritage tourism literature. Several studies have examined the relationship between travel-related decisions and communication channels and found reliance on interpersonal communication channels (Stynes & Mahoney, 1986; Chhabra et al., 2002). Other studies have pointed out the influence of travel orientations (such as frequency of trips made, length of stay, and spending) on the use of external information sources. External marketing communications often take the shape of intended messages directed at target markets. Different strategies are reported to apply to

first-time and repeat visitors. External communications or promotions have mainly focused informative messages for prospects and relevance/memory/connection-based messages for repeat markets (Reid & Reid, 1993; Walters, Sparks, & Herington, 2007).

Furthermore, although the promotion mix comprises of advertising, sales promotion, personal selling, public relations and publicity (Kotler, Bowen, & Makens, 2006), print ads have unquestionably become a mainstay in promoting heritage tourism (Manfredo, Bright, & Haas, 1992; Smith & McKay, 2001). Consequently, much of the promotion-based literature in heritage tourism has focused on advertising and its effectiveness among selected target markets (Xiao & Mair, 2006). The popularity of brochures and pamphlets among pleasure travelers was reported by Hsieh and O'Leary (1993). Even though brochures continue to be a mainstay for promoting heritage tourism, especially in the non-profit sector, conversion rate reports have been mixed. A study conducted by Wicks and Schuett (1993, p. 77) indicated that "in general brochure requests are marginally related to high conversions". That said, they continue to be heavily used by heritage tourism suppliers. Newspapers are another important source of information for many travelers.

Most of the tourism-based research in the past, on advertising, through various sources such as brochures, newspapers, radio, television etc., has mainly been directed towards word meanings and imagery perspective to understand the impact of advertising messages (Gartner, 1993; MacInnis & Price, 1987). Most recent research has focused on determining the effectiveness of external stimuli in evoking consumer's visionary responses to advertising material (Walters et al., 2007). The focus is on "sensory representations of ideas, feelings, and objects or experiences with objects" (Phillips, Olsen, & Baumgartner, 1995). For example, high instances of product recall were reported as a result of concrete imagery conjuring words by Babin and Burns (1997). Walters et al. (2007, p. 24) reported that "addition of concrete words, together with instructions to imagine increased the elaboration and quality of the consumption vision" and was found to be the "most efficacious strategy" in print advertising.

In short, the above discussion reveals that regardless of the communication strategy used, the main aim of heritage tourism marketing lies in designing promotional strategies and message content appropriate for selected or suggested target markets. The messages are designed to appeal to target markets so that more profits can be generated. Limited research focuses on communicating a message to guide the sustainable use of the heritage product. Additionally, all the aforementioned studies lack a holistic, strategic marketing approach. It appears that the significance of understanding the external (macro such as political, economic and social) and internal (micro such as management, suppliers and employees) environments is not given primacy in heritage tourism marketing literature. An all-encompassing marketing framework within the context of a holistic environment analyses is thus rare.

That said, traces of application of this concept can be found in other forms of tourism such as nature-based tourism. For instance, in nature-based tourism literature, sustainable marketing discussions have centered around ecological and green marketing concepts, the former being driven by moral values and the latter driven by marketing values such as offering something unique and distinctive. Fuller developed a sustainable marketing management framework designed around pollution prevention and resource recovery strategies to promote the development of "production-consumption practices that preserve and enhance the ecosystems in which we live" (1999, p. 77). He advocated that sustainable marketing decisions should take micro- and macro-environment factors into consideration. Similar views were echoed by Kotler, Bowen, and Makens (2006) and Kilbourne, McDonagh, and Prothero (1997). As an example, Kilbourne et al. (1997) emphasized the need to

address and embed macro-environment factors in marketing designed to promote sustainable consumption and improved quality of life. It can thus be argued that because tourism is subject to ongoing technological, economic and political changes, these are complicit and inseparable from sustainable marketing frameworks that seek to enhance quality of life for tourists and residents alike.

Additionally, while heritage tourism literature recognizes the significance of collaboration and partnerships, much of the need appears to stem from the desire for economic remunerations. For instance, Markwell, Bennett, and Ravenscroft (1997), in their study on the changing market for heritage tourism in England, placed emphasis on partnerships to increase net income and promote a strong customer base. Hassan (2000) argued that partnerships are needed to formulate strategies compatible with the market needs and economic viability. Silberberg (1995) explored partnerships with the purpose of increasing attendance so that revenue may be generated to meet operating expenses. A handful of other studies have provided conceptual frameworks to test the effectiveness of ongoing partnerships. For instance, Aas, Ladkin, and Fletcher (2005) explored five aspects of collaboration between heritage conservation and heritage in UNESCO-sponsored Norwegian project. The criteria used were: "channels of communication between the heritage and tourism groups, generating income for heritage conservation and management, involving local community in decision making and tourism activities, and assessment of the extent and success of stakeholder collaboration" (Aas et al., 2005, pp. 31–35). However, the authors noted several barriers in regard to lack of leadership, initiative, direction and effective communication techniques between stakeholders. Likewise, McKercher, Ho, and Du Cros (2004) discussed the significance of partnerships and made an attempt to identify possible relationships between the cultural heritage management sector and the Hong Kong Tourist Board. The authors identified seven different relationships. The results revealed that partnerships are rare and usually conflicting in heritage institutions. Another study unveiled complexities and ineffectiveness of partnership-based endeavor due to lack of leadership and strategic planning (Li & Bong, 2004). Hence, it can be deduced that a sustained applied approach towards partnership need has a long way to go.

It is also interesting to note that most of the applied examples in heritage tourism literature exist outside of the United States (Hall, Mitchell, & Keelan, 1993; Galla, 1998). Hall et al. (1993) provided an example of a treaty to facilitate partnerships and collaboration in New Zealand. Galla (1998) explained how the Tshwane Declaration helped set partnership standards for heritage tourism in South Africa.

Evidently, what is needed is a holistic framework in line with the ideologies proposed by McKenzie-Mohr's (2000) community-based social marketing model. This model is based on the premises that large scale information campaigns focusing on education and advertising fall short of fostering sustainable behavior. This can be attributed to their limited use as they solely offer information and focus on generating awareness. McKenzie-Mohr offers community-based social marketing as an alternative to advertising. He uses social science research to demonstrate that change in behavior can be effectively achieved by employing community-level initiatives, which can simultaneously remove barriers and enhance the activity's benefits. Effective tools suggested for promoting change in behavior are commitment, prompts, norms, communication and incentives. This approach thus encompasses a holistic framework and is deeply rooted in social marketing (marketing for social good). Despite the fact that McKenzie's model has received abundant focus, it has mostly been discussed within the context of recycling and mass transit usage issues. To date, it has not been applied to heritage tourism literature. This study argues that its conceptual framework can be extended to a broad range of scenarios.

Additional themes pertinent to the proposed marketing model

As the above descriptions reveal, a research emphasis to explore sustainable ethics is still lacking in heritage tourism literature. While research as a tool has guided market segmentation and promotion explorations, research to identify sustainable approaches is meager. Moreover, despite the fact that research has become a critical supporting base for the heritage tourism industry, to date most of the research in heritage tourism focuses on identifying appropriate and reliable methodologies (Baker et al., 1994; Jang et al., 2004) to identify lucrative market segments and target markets, determine consumer perceptions and motivations of heritage tourism attractions, both site- and event-based. Marketing research issues are mostly associated with “data collection, questionnaire design, self-selection of respondents, sample size determination, sampling frames, and validity versus reliability” (Baker et al., 1994, p. 3). Heritage tourism is not a monolithic industry. Several forms of heritage institutions exist with their own specific research purpose (McKercher, 2001). That said, some suppliers of heritage tourism, such as the museums, till recently, considered research as one of “the core functions that underpinned much of the work carried out in them” (Anderson, 2005, p. 297). For instance, curating was heavily focused on confirming the authenticity of museum products. Changing environments have shifted contemporary museum nomenclature towards audience-driven ideologies. Contemporary museums are required to act as agents of social change.

Museum heritage, then and now

Core elements of museum heritage have thus evolved with changing times. Early museums were “cabinets of curiosity” and research was performed by the curatorial staff to investigate artefact histories. The museums’ repertoire as institutions that document and preserve components of history was an established fact in the early and mid-twentieth century. According to Anderson, “‘traditional’ research in ‘traditional’ museums centered on the publication of museum monographs or articles in periodicals which dealt with fine and applied art, archaeology, numismatics, history and science, ethnography, and so on” (2005, p. 298). Their role encouraged discovery of holistic culture and its various manifestations.

However, due to budget cuts, research and scholarship activity has been debased by the recent nomenclature which focuses on visitor-driven strategies. Museums are required to compete in a growing leisure market seeking mythological and nostalgic remnants of the past. Lack of funds has launched these institutions into the commercial tourism market where it adaptively and covetously attracts visitors. Curators are often required to endorse knowledge produced by dominant power groups (Pearce, 1992, p. 234). Convenience-based politics and efforts to appeal to mass audiences “project a clear hierarchy of value in which cultural values match cash” (Pearce, 1992, p. 237). Advocates of this argument have argued that contemporary museums have turned into “cultural capital-driven development complexes” (Britton, 1991, p. 470) with the aim to attract diverse audiences. Moreover, scarcity of public funds has pressurized museums to supplement public money with ancillary activities such as operating restaurants and shops, which have now become a permanent feature of practically every museum. “In other words, museums have become competitors in the cultural commodification market and distinguished features such as authenticity and selectivity have become the marketing emblems of museum repositories” (Chhabra, 2008, p. 430).

Consequently, there has been an ideological shift in the focus of research, from being object-driven to being visitor-driven (Anderson, 2005). Since the early 1990s,

museum-based researchers and investigators have shifted their resources from authenticity-driven object-based explorations to research crafted to understand numerous aspects of visitor learning and behavior. For instance, the behaviors of families and family groups in museum settings were explored by Raphling and Serrell (1993) and Roberts (1992).

Against the capitalist label proffered by critics, advocates of museums refute that authenticity is negotiated for cash in all museums. Halewood and Hannam (2001) argue that at “re-enacted” Viking markets in Europe, commodification can be seen as a process which faces both resistance and acceptance to foster local culture values. As Cohen puts it, “this process can develop and strengthen local culture and pride which intensifies the traditional rather than diluting it” (1988, p. 383) Thus, a middle positive approach is also supported by several postmodernists. There appears to be an emerging parallel need to balance museums’ debt to tradition and history with their commitment to the contemporary communities (Anderson, 2005). That said, meshing of these ideologies in marketing is meager.

Moreover, even though building partnerships with the local communities to boost heritage tourism (Boyd, 2002; Saarinen, 2006) has been emphasized by several advocates of sustainable heritage tourism, past studies have failed to add local community involvement or benefits in their marketing equation. Cameron (2005) suggested that museums should not float above the local communities; instead, they should work with the local people and promote civil engagement and social capital. For instance, McKenzie-Mohr (2000) and Hassan (2000) contend that community involvement in marketing decisions can help foster sustainable behavior among locals and tourists alike. This view is also confirmed by Nakamura (2007), who carried forward Fuller’s concept of the “ecomuseum”, which has a distinct purpose to attract and build “deeper relationships with more diverse audience” (Spitz & Thorn, 2003, p. 3). Fuller (1992, p. 328) described an ecomuseum as an “agent for managing change that links education, culture, and power. It extends the mission of a museum to include responsibility for human dignity”. However, to date, this ideology has not been applied to museums within the context of marketing strategies.

Sustainability frameworks

According to Caserta and Russo (2002, pp. 245, 246), “the cultural assets from the past are irreproducible and the huge increase in visitor/resident ratios, as well as the on-going ‘banalisation’ of tourism products” are indicative of the unbalanced over-growth of heritage tourism. Consequently, responsible use of the product and its surrounding environment is needed and is articulated by the term “sustainability”. Several studies based on heritage tourism have identified threats to heritage tourism and point out the need for sustainable use of resources. For instance, Caserta and Russo (2002) focused on the increasing tourist presence and their resulting pressures on the destination’s resources; they suggest the need for strategic behavior by tourism managers based on a product-driven and not market-driven approach. The authors warned that excessive cultural tourism demand will result in a compromise with quality. Their results indicated that the foremost threat lay in the misuse of heritage resources and contended that it was important to prioritize quality-based policy so that heritage assets can be managed effectively.

Fyall and Garrod (1998) defined sustainability as effective management of resources for the benefit of future generations. In other words, the sustainability imperative required “that each generation passes on to the next a heritage asset base of at least equivalent size and quality as they themselves inherited from their forebears” (Fyall & Garrod, 1998, p. 214). Fyall and Garrod (1998) conducted a UK-based postal survey of owners of

historic properties, heritage consultants and heritage industry representatives to consider how sustainable principles are applied in heritage tourism. Among problems identified by the respondents, such as crowding and traffic-related issues, the satisfying of visitor expectations and managing their impacts appeared to be of foremost concern. Clearly, the crowding and impact issues were not at the forefront as the results indicated that admission price rationale was based more on the need to meet revenue targets than to achieve reduction in visitor traffic and the preservation and conservation of the heritage resource. In other words, the underlying premise of the admission prices was not to reduce the carrying capacity but to tap tourist dollars. The authors indicated that the “future application of sustainability principles should involve a reassessment of the aims and objectives of heritage management” and revenue-seeking objectives should be drawn from the “need to preserve” ethos (Fyall & Garrod, 1998, p. 227).

Yet another study, conducted by Boyd (2002) of cultural and heritage tourism resources in Canada, indicated the need to ensure viability through sustainable promotion of its attractions. Based on field visits, the author reported five central themes that dictate future vision in the cultural and heritage tourism industry in Canada. These were mutually beneficial partnership, a national strategy with local linkage, integration of public and private sectors, knowledge-based local communities, and greater attention to culture and heritage in the wider Canadian tourism context (Boyd, 2002, p. 228). The author examined the extent to which authenticity, learning, conservation and protection and building partnerships were manifested within the mission statements and found them lacking. In summary, the author contended that a sustainable heritage tourism framework is required to address the aforementioned needs.

Another study by Saarinen (2006) placed the concept of carrying capacity control in the center for the successful achievement of sustainability. Based on literature review, the author divided carrying capacity into six subtypes: physical, economic, perceptual, social, ecological and political. Saarinen (2006) identified three traditions that reflect various expressions and rudiments of the sustainability concept on a local level: resource-based tradition, activity-based tradition and community-based tradition. The author’s community-based sustainable tradition implied “that sustainability is, or can be defined through a negotiation process, which indicates that the limits of growth are socially constructed” (Saarinen, 2006, p. 1130). While recognizing Scheyvens’s community-based approach “aimed to recognize the need to promote both people’s quality of life and the protection of resources” (1999, p. 246), Saarinen however warned that the community-based discourse is not problem-free and objective but is laden with power relations. In other words, host communities are not monolithic, rather they comprise of different groups with different and sometimes conflicting dispositions. Local community involvement and benefits, thus, require carefully planned negotiation and participation processes.

The aforementioned text has suggested important elements for consideration, such as conservation through carrying capacity controls, preservation of authenticity and community involvement and benefits, albeit they fail to suggest how they might be included in the marketing strategies employed by the heritage tourism industry. Despite the limited application, these studies served a useful purpose for conceptualizing the SHTM model. They helped inform the underpinnings of the sustainability rhetoric from which the working definition of sustainability for the SHTM model was drawn, with key elements being local community involvement and benefits of conservation and preservation of heritage assets for the use of future generations.

Methodology

A list of heritage museums, situated in five spatially dispersed states – California, Alaska, North Carolina, Utah and Arizona – was gleaned from the state-wide museum association websites. Geographical dispersion and an equal representation of urban and rural areas were used for selection. The Bureau of Census defines an urban area as a densely populated area including a central city with a population of 50,000 or more and a rural area as an open area with less than 2500 residents (and without a central city). Approximately 20 heritage museums were contacted from each state (10 each from rural and urban areas) during the summer and fall of 2007. During the collection process, it was discovered that the majority of the museums across all states did not have a marketing plan (short term or long term). Upon further probing, the main reasons were identified as the small size of their museum, its rural nature, lack of funds and lack of staffing.

Of the ones which had a marketing plan (75), 24% were willing to share their document. Six among them were willing to provide oral information over the telephone. A total of 24 marketing plans were obtained representing all selected states: five from Arizona (three urban, two rural), six from California (three urban, three rural), five from North Carolina (three urban, two rural), four from Utah (three rural, one urban) and four from Alaska (three rural, one urban). Marketing plans in this study were the information-processing protocols. Content analysis was used to identify themes and subthemes from the data. Content analysis entails study of the message itself and is not concerned with the communicator or the audience. According to Paisley (1969, p. 133), “it is a phase of information-processing in which communications content is transformed, through objective and systematic application of categorization rules, into data that can be summarized and compared”. Care was taken to ensure the analyzed data represented the three distinguishing characteristics of content analysis: objectivity, systematization, and quantification (Kassarjian, 1977).

With regard to objectivity, it was ensured that the author’s personal disposition did not influence the identified themes. Explicit sets of rules were set in advance to eliminate any traces of subjectivity and provide scientific standing in terms of reliability and replication. Next, systemisation required reference to the predetermined and consistent set of applied rules for inclusion or exclusion of communications content with the purpose of eliminating all possibilities of partial or biased analysis and ensuring the extracted themes have theoretical relevance (Kassarjian, 1977). The last distinctive characteristic of content analysis, quantification, helped segregate the analysis from ordinary critical reading. Quantification can also be described in words such as more, often and increases, rather than simply assigning numerical values (both were used in this study). The written version was coded. Likewise, oral information was recorded verbatim and coded. Two coders were employed and inter-coding and check-coding procedures were used to improve the accuracy of content analysis. The check-coding procedure assisted in keeping a record of differences, which in turn set a standard for the overall coding reliability (Scott, 1955).

The sustainable heritage tourism marketing model (SHTM)

The proposed SHTM model comprised of the mission statement with the communication mix, both interpersonal (using methods such as personal selling and word of mouth) and impersonal (using methods such as advertising and sales promotion) as its focal point. The model suggested significant influences of market segmentation, external and internal environment, partnerships, and research upon the communication mix (see Figure 1). It was believed that these functions informed and guided the formulation of communication

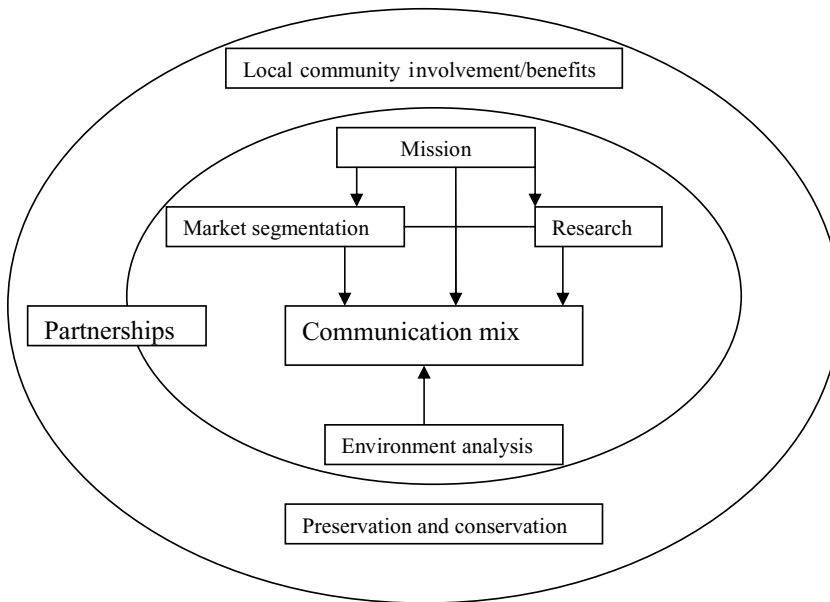


Figure 1. Proposed sustainable heritage tourism marketing model.

strategy for museums and were grounded in the sustainable core principles identified through literature review. In brief, the underlying premise of the model was to suggest that marketing decisions need to be guided by conservation and preservation principles that underpin the traditional role of museums, in addition to local community involvement and benefits.

Marketing mission of museums

Approximately 75% of the museums' mission focused mainly on fund raising and the increased need for private support. Other themes identified for the overall operating philosophy in the mission were public visibility, increased visitation and establishment of self-sustained programmes. An additional 20% included the need to strengthen community relationships in their mission statement. The remaining 5% of the marketing plans emphasized on their function to serve as certified storage repositories for artefacts. The same museums also aimed to promote native culture and arts and highlighted the need to educate children and the general public on local culture. One museum's mission was "sharing, perpetuating, and preserving the unique Alaska Native cultures, languages, traditions, and values through celebration and education".

Research emphasis

Approximately 40% emphasized the need to conduct ongoing market research to identify visitor needs. The majority lacked funds to identify target markets for their property or obtain feedback with regard to the services offered on their premises. Those who considered research to be an important building block of their marketing plan stated that they will

continue to identify target markets and minimize broad marketing strategies. One marketing plan specifically stated “develop visitor surveys, evaluate challenges, and respond to issues”. This need, however, was listed as part of the public relations function.

Environment analysis

Almost all the marketing plans failed to include the need to conduct an external environment analysis in their marketing equation. External environment analysis takes into account external factors such as competition, economy, politics, technology, demographics and culture (Kotler et al., 2006). Technology (such as use of websites for marketing and enhancement of learning experience, facilitate question and answer sessions and interaction between people with diverse interests, use of virtual reality to enable an examination of museum objects, provide online databases etc.) as an important building block for effective marketing and its knowledge need was emphasized by most of the marketing plans. Only one marketing plan stated the significance of understanding the external environment on an ongoing basis. However, it focused on the competition and technological factors alone and did not take other relevant forces into account. It stated, “our desired position in the market place is to become the most professional and respected museum. Our goal is not so much to be better than the competition, but to work with them as partners toward our common goals of excellence in the fields of education and preservation”. The document then provided an overview of its sister facilities within a 150 mile radius and discussed their strengths. The competition factor was addressed by promoting coordination among the sister sites. Threats and weaknesses of sister sites were not discussed.

With regard to internal environment analysis, many marketing plans mentioned enhancing human resource capital within the museum premises. One plan emphasized volunteer training and gallery attendant training. Another marketing plan reiterated the significance of training for the entire staff and planned on establishing customer service criteria, expectations and guidelines for the sales and marketing team. The same plan also sought memberships with organizations that sought to attract local visitors and tourists to their region.

Market segmentation

The majority of the museums (65%) who had a marketing plan were still in the process of identifying their target markets. However, their marketing plan only listed emphasis on target markets as an important objective but did not provide detailed information on them. For instance, one museum stated “reach target markets efficiently and effectively” as one of their key objectives. In the same vein, another museum stated “with limited financial and human resources, target marketing is the most cost-effective way to achieve the museum’s objectives. This office will continue to identify target markets, identify optimum strategies for those markets and focus financial resources for those markets”.

A small percentage (17%) provided a detailed breakdown of their market segments. One marketing plan stated “our target markets include tourists, foreign and domestic, who are visiting the national parks and monuments in the area; the local population, including Native Americans; adults and families who come to the area for other recreational activities; retired persons either traveling full-time or passing through the area on a seasonal basis (snowbirds); and researchers”. The geographic profile of this museum’s visitors was approximately 20% local residents, 70% domestic (from other states in the United States) and 10% international visitors. They also mentioned hosting school children, bus tours and a

few research and professional visitors. Another marketing plan listed their target markets as tour and wholesale, F.I.T. (Free and Individual Travelers), ANHC (Alaska Native Heritage Center) members, military, and local. Another museum had a separate section on members and discussed various strategies to increase their membership base. The remaining 8% made no mention of their markets. Their marketing plan was solely focused on fund-raising and promotion strategies.

Travel industry partnerships

Several marketing plans had a separate section that explained how tourism industry partnerships could be enhanced. For instance, one museum was part of the joint ticket “Culture Pass” and they planned a commission-based incentive for the travel agents and tour operators. Another museum placed their tent cards in local motels, businesses and restaurants. Local motels were requested to distribute tent cards with the key. The same museum also coordinated with nearby visitor centers, parks, and museums by asking them to distribute coupons and literature to those visiting them.

Local community partnerships

Almost all the marketing plans failed to emphasize the need to build relationships with the local community with an objective to benefit them. Nevertheless, they mentioned the need to build local community partnerships to draw more school children, obtain more private funding and increase volunteers. Only one museum sought to assist the local culture by seeking to partner with various trading posts, colleges and universities to share marketing and publication costs for traveling exhibits of Native American arts and crafts. It also sought to promote local culture by sponsoring native festivals, in addition to sponsoring a local team or a group. Additionally, it sought to promote the Farmer’s Market in their outdoor amphitheater or parking lot every Saturday morning in the autumn season. The same marketing plan also formulated strategies to increase community awareness by inviting the local community to special pre-exhibit receptions to “encourage public use of their facilities for special functions, and partner and coordinate with the Arts and Events Center in community festivals, conferences, seminars, fairs, and events in the local area whenever possible”.

Promotion plan

The majority of the museums focused on public relations and personal selling. They attended trade shows and interacted with the tourism community and tour operators and travel agents. Publicity and press releases were mainly based on successful grant acquisitions and forthcoming special events. With regard to the tourism community, sales promotion techniques were used. For instance, coupons were placed with local businesses and restaurants. These were given incentives to encourage visitations. Additional emphasis by almost all the museums was on cooperative marketing strategies and media relations to generate publicity. They reflected a continued effort to generate news releases and seek editorial coverage by building up stories relevant to their product.

Another 12% (3) used impersonal communication methods such as direct mail and advertising through brochures, television and radio. It is important to note that the advertising strategies mainly focused on target markets and the most popular sources were TV and retirement magazines. These marketing plans also called for development of internal sales strategies by the appropriate training of staff.

Ten percent (2) of the marketing plans indicated an additional emphasis on the art of messaging. They believed that the message should be close to the real product and experience offered to the audience. Use of humor was suggested by two museums. Internet was broadly used as a marketing tool by 60% of the sample size. Two museums considered formulation of appropriate brand awareness programs important for effective marketing. These programs included the use of logo wear and making sure all staff uniforms displayed the museum logo.

Effect of rural versus urban settings

The location also needs to be taken into consideration in marketing. Segregated analysis, based on the nature of the setting, revealed both similar and dissimilar strategies. Regardless of location, museum missions and short term plans were similar. With regard to research emphasis, rural museums were less likely to include a research element in their marketing plan. Similar results were noted for the environment analysis element, even though volunteer training received considerable attention in rural marketing plans. Moreover, while urban museums were more interested in identifying target markets, both kinds of museums strived to secure travel industry partnerships for economic reasons even though more opportunities to achieve this objective were listed in rural marketing plans. No ongoing community partnership plans were mentioned in either of the museums even though the need was recognized by both. Last, with regard to promotion, marketing plans of rural museums centered more on public relations and personal selling, while urban museums also included impersonal communication methods and emphasized on the art of messaging.

Discussion and conclusion

The first and second research questions were: “Do the majority of the museums in the selected regions have a marketing plan? What are the main themes of the assimilated marketing plans?” The results indicate the majority of the museums do not have a marketing plan. Overall, approximately only 15% of the museums across Arizona, California, North Carolina, Utah and Alaska make use of a marketing plan. Based on follow-up interviews with several museums, two reasons were identified for this dilemma. First, traditional museums are slow to change, and even though they have been hit by ongoing budget squeezes, they are reluctant to embrace marketing, mainly because of the stigma perceived to be associated with marketing. The second reason is lack of education and staff with marketing expertise.

With regard to the second question, content analysis helped identify several themes from the marketing plans and most matched with those of the proposed SHTM model. Thus said, the strategies proposed for those themes followed a different market-driven philosophy. For instance, market segmentation and promotional plans were driven by financial pressures and lacked a sustainability perspective, with the key desire to expand the retail base and tap private sources. Two components of the SHTM model that mostly failed to appear on the museum marketing radar were research for sustainable options and environment analysis.

Because traditional market research requires investment into the distant future, it seems to have lost its primacy among today’s concerns for survival. Today’s fashionable research requires a “short-term user-friendly” and survival for “materialistic gains” emphasis. This is compounded by new policies resulting from draconian measures to cut staff and resources, leading to the disastrous outcome of “distancing of the public from those responsible for museum research”, that is, the curators (Anderson, 2005, p. 306). Traditional curatorial

research activity focusing on artefacts has been debased by visitor-driven approaches. Additionally, the new promotion techniques are “destined to hasten the demise of museums as research centers” and these are being replaced by Disneyworld (Anderson, 2005, p. 304). Lack of emphasis on environment analysis, especially the macro environment, explains the myopic view of museums today.

Community-based themes appeared only in two marketing plans. Even though these suggested responsiveness towards local community involvement and sought to facilitate cultural benefits, strategies to build relationships with the local community were lacking. The third research question enquired if the marketing plans differ, based on location and funding: it was found that funding, rather than spatial dispersion, underpinned the core strategies.

Can the proposed sustainable marketing model match the contemporary museum ethos? And how can the sustained use of heritage marketing benefit museums in the long run? The results show that a lacuna exists between the philosophical underpinnings of the proposed model and the existing marketing strategies embraced by museums. It is very likely that the recent plunge of museums into the heritage tourism revenue tank is guided by short term plans. Current survival seems to govern the contemporary museum nomenclature and this is drawn from the modernist marketing stance. The heritage tourism industry continues to promote modernist marketing as a panacea. However, Brown points out that “modernist marketing, born of capitalism, is essentially deterministic, prescriptive and therefore of dubious benefit in today’s turbulent and chaotic market place” (1993, p. 94).

The proposed model might seem a utopia for many in the heritage tourism industry today. However, the author posits that its message is communicable and the gap between contemporary museum ideologies and the model’s underlying philosophy can be bridged by extending “green” tourism advocacy to “green” or sustainable marketing. “Green marketing claims imply that a specific product is better for the consumer and less destructive for the environment” (Wheeler, 1995, p. 39). The underlying justification is that heritage tourism product has intangible characteristics and hence “it has the ability to metamorphose over time. As it is an experience based on expectation, it is the marketing’s function to present this image and create awareness” (Wheeler, 1995, p. 41). To contemporary museums, this model suggests to: focus on long-term strategic planning; follow a product-driven philosophy; educate the target markets so that they feel responsive towards your sustainable strategies; design promotional strategies that explain why you choose to revert back to the traditional stance of preservation and conservation; increasingly involve the local community in your marketing endeavors; keep traditional research at the forefront, and make conservation and preservation your primary objective.

This study has limitations. The first limitation is its focus on one country and the sample size taken. Although a representative sample from selected regions was used, not all states were included in data collection due to time and budgetary constraints. The second limitation is that it centers on supplier-side issues and strategies. Future studies should include analysis of visitor behavior to facilitate preservation-friendly and harmonious response from visitors (Lane, 2008). It is suggested that the sustainable paradigm should be extended to include demand-side issues. Lane’s (2008) social marketing approach can be used to craft proactive and positive measures to enable success in altering consumer behavior and consumption patterns. Despite these limitations, this study highlights the barriers to the sustainable marketing of museums in the United States.

This work contends that while sustainable rigor is still slow to impregnate the practice of heritage tourism, it is achievable because today’s heritage tourists are more sensitive to the environmental issues than before. It is, therefore, necessary for managers to learn that the

core identities of heritage institutions should not be compromised. Ability to foresee into the distant future can help museums strategize the use of their resources and help them develop and incorporate conservation and preservation plans for long term benefits. Marketing is a relatively new phenomenon for many museums and the proposed approach can help provide museums with a tool to achieve their traditional objectives by communicating sustainable messages. As suggested by Copley and Robson, museums in the future should not end up with something that is “not quite right” (2001, p. 40). They need to seek to become a special part of a new sustainable heritage tourism paradigm, linking commercial and community viability through conservation and appreciation of their traditional resources and goals.

Notes on contributor/s

Deepak Chhabra teaches at Arizona State University in the United States. Her research interests include the socio-economic impacts of tourism, sustainable marketing and authenticity of heritage.

References

- Anderson, R. (2005). To thrive or survive? The state and status of research in museums. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, 20, 297–311.
- Babin, L., & Burns, A. (1997). Effects of print ads pictures and copy containing instructions to imagine on mental imagery that mediates attitudes. *Journal of Advertising*, 26(3), 33–43.
- Baker, K., Hozier, G., & Rogers, R. (1994). Marketing research theory and methodology and the tourism industry: A non-technical discussion. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(3), 3–7.
- Baker, M. (1999). *The marketing book* (2nd ed.). London: Heineman.
- Britton, S. (1991). Tourism, capital, and place: Towards a critical geography. *Environment and Planning D*, 9, 451–478.
- Bowen, J. (1998). Market segmentation in hospitality research: No longer a sequential process. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 10(7), 289–298.
- Boyd, S. (2002). Cultural and heritage tourism in Canada: Opportunities, principles and challenges. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3(3), 211–233.
- Brown, S. (1993). Post-modern marketing: Principles, practices & premises. *The Irish Marketing Review*, 6, 91–100.
- Caserta, S., & Russo, A. (2002). More means worse: Asymmetric information, spatial displacement and sustainable heritage tourism. *Journal of Cultural Economics*, 26, 245–260.
- Chen, J., & Hsu, C. (2000). Measurement of Korean tourists' perceived images of overseas destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(4), 411–416.
- Chhabra, D., Sills, E., & Rea, P. (2002). Tourist expenditures at heritage festivals. *Event Management*, 7(4), 221–230.
- Chhabra, D. (2008). Positioning museums on an authenticity continuum. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(2), 427–447.
- Choi, W., & Tsang, C. (1999). Activity based segmentation on pleasure travel market of Hong Kong private housing residents. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 8(2), 75–97.
- Cohen, E. (1988). Authenticity and commoditization in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15, 371–386.
- Cooper, L., & Inoue, A. (1996). Building structures from consumer preferences. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 33(3), 293–306.
- Copley, P., & Robson, I. (2001). Practitioner perspectives on arts tourism marketing. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 10(2/3), 23–44.
- Frochot, I. (2005). A benefit segmentation of tourists in rural areas: A Scottish perspective. *Tourism Management*, 26, 335–346.
- Frochot, I., & Morrison, A. (2000). Benefit segmentation: A review of its application to travel and tourism research. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 9(4), 21–45.
- Fuller, D. (1999). *Sustainable marketing: Managerial–ecological issues*. London: Sage.
- Fuller, N. (1992). The museum as a vehicle for community empowerment: The Ak-Chin Indian Community Ecomuseum Project. In I. Karp, C. Kreamer, & S. Lavine (Eds.), *Museums and communities: The politics of public culture* (pp. 327–365). Washington and London: Smithsonian Institution Press.

- Fyall, A., & Garrod, B. (1998). Heritage tourism: At what price? *Managing Leisure*, 3, 213–228.
- Galla, A. (1998). The Tshwane Declaration: Setting standards for heritage tourism in South Africa. *Museum International*, 50(4), 38–42.
- Gartner, W. (1993). Image formation process: Communicating tourism supplier services; building repeat visitor relationships. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2(2/3), 191–216.
- Halewood, C., & Hannam, K. (2001). Viking heritage tourism: Authenticity and commodification. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(3), 565–580.
- Hall, M., Mitchell, I., & Keelan, N. (1993). The implications of Maori perspectives for the management and promotion of heritage tourism in New Zealand. *Geo Journal*, 29(3), 315–322.
- Harrison, J. (1997). Museums and touristic expectations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(1), 23–40.
- Harrison, J. (2005). Shaping collaboration: Considering institutional culture. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, 20, 195–212.
- Hassan, S. (2000). Determinants of market competitiveness in an environmentally sustainable industry. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38, 239–245.
- Hsieh, S., & O'Leary, J. (1993). Communication channels to segment pleasure travelers. Communicating tourism supplier services: Building repeat visitor relationships. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2(2/3), 57–76.
- Jang, S., Ismail, J., & Ham, S. (2002). Heavy spenders, medium spenders and light spenders of Japanese outbound pleasure travelers. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 9(3/4), 83–106.
- Jang, S., Morrison, A., & O'Leary, J. (2004). A procedure for target market selection in tourism. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 16(1), 19–34.
- Kassarjian, H. (1977). Content analysis in consumer research. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 4(1), 8–18.
- Kerstetter, D., Confer, J., & Graefe, A. (2001). An exploration of the specialization concept within the context of heritage tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39, 267–274.
- Kilbourne, W., McDonagh, P., & Prothero, A. (1997). Sustainable consumption and the quality of life: A macromarketing challenge to the dominant social paradigm. *Journal of Macromarketing*, Spring, 4–24.
- Kotler, K., Bowen, J., & Makens, J. (2006). *Marketing for hospitality and tourism*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Lane, B. (2008). *Visitor management, changing visitor behavior, and social marketing*. An unpublished briefing paper. Centre for International Tourism Research, Sheffield Hallam University.
- Li, Y., & Bong, L. (2004). Applicability of market appeal and robusticity matrix: A case study of heritage tourism. *Tourism Management*, 25(6), 789–800.
- MacInnis, D., & Price, L. (1987). The role of imagery in information processing: Review and extensions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13, 473–491.
- Manfredo, M., Bright, A., & Haas, G. (1992). Research in tourism advertising. In M. Manfredo (Ed.), *Influencing human behavior*. Champaign, IL: Sagamore.
- Markwell, S., Bennett, M., & Ravenscroft, N. (1997). The changing market for heritage tourism: A case study of visits to historic houses in England. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 3(2), 95–108.
- McDonald, M. (1993). Strategic marketing planning: A state of the art review. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 10(4), 4–22.
- McKenzie-Mohr, D. (2000). Promoting sustainable behavior: An introduction to community-based social marketing. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 56(3), 543–554.
- McKercher, B. (2001). Attitudes to a non-viable community-owned heritage tourist attraction. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 9(1), 29–43.
- McKercher, B., Ho, P., & Du Cros, H. (2004). Relationship between tourism and cultural heritage management: Evidence from Hong Kong. *Tourism Management*, 25(4), 539–548.
- McLean, F. (2002). *Marketing the museum*. London: Routledge.
- Misiura, S. (2006). *Heritage marketing*. Boston: Elsevier.
- Motes, W., & Hilton, C. (2002). Promoting state tourism: Exploring perceptual and behavioral effects of syntactical construction in print advertisements. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 13(3), 1–18.
- Nakamura, N. (2007). Managing the cultural promotion of indigenous people in a community-based museum: The Ainu culture cluster project at the Nibutani Ainu culture museum, Japan. *Museum and Society*, 5(3), 148–167.

- Paisley, W. (1969). Studying style as deviation from encoding norms. In G. Gerbner, O. Holsti, K. Krippendorff, W. Paisley, P. Stone (Eds.), *The analysis of communications content: Developments in scientific theories and computer techniques* (pp. 133–46). New York: Wiley.
- Phaswana-Mafuya, N., & Haydam, N. (2005). Tourists' expectations and perceptions of the Robben Island Museum—a world heritage site. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, 20, 149–169.
- Phillips, D., Olsen, J., & Baumgartner, H. (1995). Consumption visions in consumer decision making. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 22, 280–284.
- Piscitelli, B., & Anderson, D. (2001). Young children's perspectives of museum settings and experiences. *Museum Management & Curatorship*, 19(3), 269–282.
- Poria, Y., Butler, R., & Airey, D. (2003). The core of heritage tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(1), 238–254.
- Raphling, B., & Serrill, B. (1993). Capturing and measuring affective learning. In *Current trends in audience research and evaluation* (Vol. 7). Washington, DC: American Association of Museums.
- Reid, L., & Reid, S. (1993). Communicating tourism supplier services: Building repeat visitor relationships. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2(2/3), 3–20.
- Roberts, L. (1992). Affective learning, affective experience: What does it have to do with museum education? In A. Benefield, S. Bitgood, & H. Shettel (Eds.), *Visitor studies: Theory, research, and practice* (Vol. 4, pp. 162–168). Jacksonville, AL: Center for Social Design.
- Rowan, Y., & Baram, U. (Eds.). (2004). *Marketing heritage. Archaeology and the consumption of past*. Walnut Creek, CA: Altamira Press.
- Saarinen, J. (2006). Traditions of sustainability in tourism studies. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(4), 1121–1140.
- Scheyvens, R. (1999). Ecotourism and empowerment of local communities. *Tourism Management*, 20, 245–249.
- Schiffman, L., & Kanuk, L. (1991). *Consumer behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Scott, W. (1955). Reliability of content analysis: The case of nominal coding. *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, 19(30), 321–325.
- Selin, S., & Chavez, D. (1995). Developing a collaborative model for environmental planning and management. *Environmental Management*, 19(2), 189–195.
- Silberberg, T. (1995). Cultural tourism and business opportunities for museums and heritage sites. *Tourism Management*, 16(5), 361–365.
- Smith, M., & MacKay, K. (2001). The organization of information in memory for pictures of tourist destinations: Are there age-related differences? *Journal of Travel Research*, 39(3), 261–266.
- Spitz, J., & Thorn, M. (2003). Introduction. In J. Spitz, & M. Thorn (Eds.), *Urban network: Museums embracing communities* (pp. 3–7), Chicago: The Field Museum.
- Stynes, D., & Mahoney, E. (1986). 1984 Michigan commercial campground marketing study. Department paper. Department of Park and Recreation Resources, Michigan State University.
- Sung, H. (2004). *Predicting the likelihood of selecting different adventure trip types: A product-driven approach for segmenting the U.S. adventure travel market*. Retrieved March 21, 2005, from www.ttra.com/pub/uplads/017.pdf.
- Tsiotsou, R., & Vasaioti, E. (2006). Satisfaction: A segmentation criterion for “short term” visitors of mountainous destinations. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 20(1), 61–73.
- Walters, G., Sparks, B., & Herington, C. (2007). The effectiveness of print advertising stimuli in evoking consumption visitors for potential visitors. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(1), 24–34.
- Wheeler, M. (1995). Tourism marketing ethics: An introduction. *International Marketing Review*, 12(4), 38–49.
- Wicks, B., & Schuett, M. (1993). Using travel brochures to target frequent travelers and “big spenders”. Communicating tourism supplier services: Building repeat visitor relationships. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2(2–3), 77–90.
- Xiao, H., & Mair, H. (2006). A paradox of images: Representation of China as a tourist destination. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 20(2), 1–14.

Copyright of *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* is the property of *Multilingual Matters* and its content may not be copied or emailed to multiple sites or posted to a listserv without the copyright holder's express written permission. However, users may print, download, or email articles for individual use.