

Sheffield Hallam University

Product diversification, product relationships, and the economic resilience of Libyan tourist destinations.

BENUR, Abdelati M.

Available from the Sheffield Hallam University Research Archive (SHURA) at:

<http://shura.shu.ac.uk/19348/>

A Sheffield Hallam University thesis

This thesis is protected by copyright which belongs to the author.

The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the author.

When referring to this work, full bibliographic details including the author, title, awarding institution and date of the thesis must be given.

Please visit <http://shura.shu.ac.uk/19348/> and <http://shura.shu.ac.uk/information.html> for further details about copyright and re-use permissions.

Sheffield S1 1WD

102 019 757 9



REFERENCE

ProQuest Number: 10694229

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 10694229

Published by ProQuest LLC (2017). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 – 1346

Product Diversification, Product Relationships and the Economic Resilience of Libyan Tourist Destinations

By

Abdelati M. Benur

A thesis submitted to Sheffield Business School in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctorate of Philosophy

Sheffield Hallam University

October 2013

Acknowledgements

First of all I thank almighty Allah who gave me the health and the ability to complete this research in order to contribute to the literature debate and to the development of tourism in Libya. I also would like to express my deepest gratitude to Prof. Bill Bramwell, who was more than my PhD supervisor. His knowledge, advice and encouragement throughout the entire stage of this project, with his wonderful personality will not be forgotten. Four years of studying under his guidance trained me to think critically and work scientifically from the academic view point. His support and understanding helped me to overcome difficult times during my study. Thank you very much.

I would want to thank my second supervisors, Gill Pomfret and Dr Yi Wang for imparting their knowledge and motivating me to achieve this goal. Thank you for your guidance and endless help and support.

My thanks also go to my friends and academic colleagues for their supportive and valuable discussions.

Lastly, my special thanks go to my family. Their constant support and love give me strength and cheer. To my beloved mum Khayria, my wife, Hawa, and my four children, Mohamed, Sara, Adem and the new born baby Yara who were always there to share in my successes and failures; your understanding, patience and support helped me complete this thesis. No words are adequate to express my heartfelt thankfulness for all you have done for me. I love you all.

Abstract

Tourism product diversification becomes important not only to attract wider a range of tourists and increase market-share but also to ensure adaptation and resilience to enable tourist destinations to effectively prepare for crises. This study examines whether tourism product diversification enhances adaptability in order to make tourist destinations in Libya more resilient. The study examines the diverse patterns of tourism product development. It does this in relation to the patterns of use of alternative and mass tourism products, and the patterns of relationships between these products, for the cases of Tripoli and Alkhoms.

Three frameworks were developed deductively in order to understand and evaluate these research issues. They were applied then to assess the patterns of development, the relationships between tourism products, and their influence on inherent economic resilience. Primary qualitative data were collected by means of in-depth, semi-structured, face-to-face interviews with respondents from the supply and demand sides of the tourism industry. Observation and various other secondary data sources were also utilized. The collected data were critically analyzed and interpreted in relation to the themes identified in the frameworks.

It was found that diverse patterns of development and relationships evolved between the tourism products. Alkhoms depended on promoting two concentrated types of tourism products that are consumed in different seasons by completely separated sectors (domestic and international tourists). By contrast, Tripoli has developed a wider range of tourism products enabling it to attract larger numbers of tourists from both sectors, and thus it was less influenced by seasonality and forces of decline. In addition, spatial proximity and thematic features have encouraged more businesses - related to tourism to agglomerate near to Tripoli's tourist attractions, resulting in stronger linkages of compatibility and complementarity between its tourist attractions. Such agglomeration has led to more job generation and an improved ability to adapt to change, resulting in greater inherent economic resilience. In contrast, in Alkhoms, the spatial proximities between the main two dissimilar attractions have not been properly exploited. This has caused them to be managed and marketed in isolation, and resulted in Alkhoms having less resilience in the face of seasonality effects and other forces of change. It is argued that destinations that enjoy a wider range and scale of tourism products can develop ways of collaborating that could increase the flexibility and adaptability of the tourism offerings. This can mean they are better placed to meet the changeable and sophisticated needs of tourists, thereby nurturing economic resilience.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgment i

Abstract ii

Declaration iii

Chapter 1 : Introduction 1

- 1.1 Introduction 1
- 1.2 Context of the Study 1
- 1.3 Case Study Areas 9
- 1.4 Overall Aim of the Study 10
- 1.4.1 More Specific Objectives of the Study 10
- 1.5 Thesis Structure 11

Chapter 2 : Literature Review 15

- 2.1 Introduction 15
- 2.2 The Tourism Product 15
- 2.3 Tourism Product Development 19
- 2.3.1 Tourist Area Life Cycle, (Butler, 1980) 21
- 2.3.2 The Broad Context Model of Destination Development Scenarios (Weaver, 2000) 27
- 2.3.3 Complexity of Tourism System 31
- 2.3.4 Tourism in Developing Countries 32
- 2.3.4.1 The Influence of Local Culture on Tourism Product Development 32
- 2.4 Objectives behind Tourism Product Diversification 34
- 2.4.1 Potential Advantages and Disadvantages of Tourism Product Diversification 38
- 2.5 Tourism Product Diversification Strategies 39
- 2.5.1 The Linkages and Interrelationships between Diversified Tourism Products 41
- 2.6 Tourist Destination Economic Resilience 43
- 2.6.1 Critical Features of Resilience in the Literature 48
- 2.7 Strategies to Enhance Destination Economic Resilience 49
- 2.8 The Connections between Diversification and Economic Resilience 55
- 2.9 Conclusion 56

Chapter 3 : The Frameworks 58

- 3.1 Introduction 58
- 3.2 The First Framework 59
- 3.2.1 Background to the First Framework 59
- 3.2.2 Details of the First Framework 62
- 3.3 The Second Framework 71
- 3.4 The Third Framework 77
- 3.4.1 Primary Tourism Product Attributes 80
- 3.4.2 Primary Tourism Product Interrelationships and Linkages 81
- 3.4.3 Exogenous Variables 83
- 3.4.4 Implications of Tourist Destination Economic Resilience 84
- 3.5 Conclusion 85

Chapter 4 : Methodology 86

- 4.1 Introduction 86

4.2	Research Philosophy	86
4.3	Research Approach	91
4.4	Case Study Design	95
4.5	Methods and Data Collection	99
4.5.1	Methods for Primary Data Collection	99
4.5.1.1	Face-to face Interviews	99
4.5.1.2	Observation Methods	101
4.5.2	Collecting the Secondary Data	103
4.5.3	Triangulation of Methods and Sources of Data	105
4.6	Developing the Interview Themes and Questions	106
4.7	Interviewing Supply Side Actors	109
4.7.1	Sampling Techniques for Supply Side Actors	110
4.7.2	Administering the Interviews with Supply Side Actors	113
4.8	Interviewing Demand Side Actors	114
4.8.1	Sampling Technique for Selection of Tourists	115
4.8.2	Sampling of Tour Operators' Packages	115
4.8.3	Administering the Tourists' Interviews	116
4.9	Piloting the Study	117
4.10	Preparing the Collected Data for Analysis	118
4.11	Data Analysis Process	118
4.12	Ethical Considerations	121
4.13	Conclusion	122

Chapter 5 : Context to the Case Study Areas 123

5.1	Introduction	123
5.2	The Overall Context of Libya	123
5.2.1	Location, Land, and Climate	124
5.2.2	The People and Literacy	127
5.2.3	Libyan Family Size and Culture	127
5.2.4	Political and Administrative Systems during Gaddafi's Regime	129
5.2.5	Libya's Economic Performance	131
5.2.5.1	Tourism Contribution to Libya's Economy	134
5.2.6	Tourism Planning in Libya	135
5.3	Examples of Basic Tourism-Related Infrastructure	136
5.3.1	Road Network and Services	136
5.3.2	Telecommunication Services	138
5.3.3	Airports and Seaports	138
5.3.4	Hotel Sector Infrastructure	138
5.4	Main Tourism Assets and Resources of Libya	139
5.5	The Case Study Areas	139
5.5.1	Tripoli	140
5.5.2	Alkhoms (including the historic remains of Leptis Magna)	146
5.6	The Political Disruption and the Future of Tourism in Libya	149
5.7	Conclusion	152

Chapter 6 : The Primary, Secondary and Conditional Tourism Products 153

6.1	Introduction	153
6.2	Characteristics and Attributes of Tourism Products	154
6.2.1	The Abundance of Primary Tourism Products	154

6.2.2	Product Image and Uniqueness	162
6.2.3	Accessibility for Tourism Markets	164
6.2.4	Destination Capacity	172
6.2.5	Affordability	179
6.2.6	The Seasonality Effects	183
6.2.7	Safety, Security and Hospitality	184
6.3	Market Diversification	186
6.4	Patterns of Tourism Demand and Supply	190
6.4.1	Domestic Tourism and Mass Consumption	193
6.4.2	International Tourism and Mass and Alternative Consumption	199
6.5	Infrastructure	205
6.6	Conclusion	211

Chapter 7 : Tourism Product Diversification and Relationships 212

7.1	Introduction	212
7.2	Patterns of Tourism Product Development	213
7.2.1	Concentration Patterns	213
7.2.1.1	The Geographical, Seasonal and Thematic Concentration of Mass Tourism Products	214
7.2.1.2	Concentration of Alternative Tourism Products	219
7.2.2	Diversification Patterns by Geography and Theme	223
7.2.2.1	Alternative Diversified Products	224
7.2.2.2	Diversified Mass Tourism Products	237
7.3	The Linkages between Tourism Products	239
7.3.1	Compatibility and Complementarity Linkages	239
7.3.2	Spatial Proximity	251
7.3.3	Thematic Similarity and Dissimilarity	254
7.3.4	Competition and Collaboration between Attractions	260
7.4	Planning, Management and Leadership	264
7.5	Lack of Strategic Management	267
7.6	Conclusion	268

Chapter 8 : Tourist Destination Inherent Economic Resilience 270

8.1	Introduction	270
8.2	The Third Framework	271
8.2.1	Tourism Product Attributes and Inherent Resilience	274
8.2.2	Primary Tourism Product Interrelationships and Linkages Associated with Concentration and Diversification Patterns, for Improved Adaptation	279
8.2.2.1	Develop Quality and Unique Experiences	279
8.2.2.2	Synergy for Competitiveness and Resilience	284
8.2.2.3	Spatial and Thematic Clusters for Tourist Products	288
8.2.2.4	Diversification into New Sophisticated Tourist Products	293
8.2.3	Exogenous Variables	300
8.2.3.1	Government Role	300
8.2.3.2	Community Participation and Involvement	307
8.2.3.3	Reliable Infrastructure	310
8.2.3.4	Small Medium Enterprises (SMEs) Role	312
8.2.3.5	Diversification into New Markets	316
8.2.3.6	Human Resource Development (HRD)	317

8.2.4	The Implications of Tourist Product Concentration and Diversification in Relation to Inherent Economic Resilience	320
8.2.4.1	Tourist Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction	321
8.2.4.2	Economic Leakages	325
8.3	Conclusion	331
Chapter 9 : Conclusion		333
9.1	Introduction	333
9.1.1	Overall Aim of the Study	333
9.1.1.1	More Specific Objectives of the Study	333
9.2	Key Findings from the Development of the Study's Frameworks	335
9.2.1	The Theoretical Purposes and Potential Applications of the Frameworks	336
9.3	Review of Key Findings from the Application of the Frameworks	342
9.3.1	Findings on the Attributes of Primary Tourism Products	342
9.3.2	Patterns of Development and Use of the Primary Tourism Products	343
9.3.3	Patterns of Relationships between Diversified Tourism Products	344
9.3.4	The Influence of Tourism Product Diversification on the Inherent Economic Resilience of the Two Case Study Areas	346
9.4	Evaluation of the Frameworks and Empirical Findings	348
9.4.1	The Value of the Frameworks for the Research	348
9.4.2	Contribution to the Debate on Tourism Product Development	349
9.4.3	Contribution of the Second Framework	350
9.4.4	The Contribution of the Framework for the Inherent Economic Resilience of Destinations	352
9.5	Limitations and Strengths of the Study	353
9.5.1	The Limitations of the Study	353
9.5.2	Strengths of the Study	354
9.5.3	New Directions of Research	355
9.5.3.1	Possible Extension of the Resilience Research	356
9.5.4	Examples of Lessons Gained from the Study	361
References		363
Appendix 1		395

List of Figures

Figure 2-1: Typology of Tourism Products based on Their Appeal.....	17
Figure 2-2: Tourist Area Life Cycle (TALC).....	22
Figure 2-3: Weaver’s Model of Types of Destination Development	27
Figure 2-4: Broad Context Model of Destination Development Scenarios.....	29
Figure 3-1: The General Framework.....	60
Figure 3-2: Framework of Tourism Product Development in Destinations.....	71
Figure 3-3: The Framework for Tourist Destination Inherent Economic Resilience.....	77
Figure 5-1: Topography of Land in Libya.....	125
Figure 5-2: The Changing Balance between Supply and Demand for Water in Libya, 1995-2025.....	126
Figure 5-3: Investment in the Public and Private Sectors in Libya, 1970-97.....	133
Figure 5-4: Libya's Economic Performance Compared to other African and North African's Countries	135
Figure 5-5: Tourist Routes in Libya, 2009	137
Figure 5-6: Fuel Points on Tourist Routes in Libya, 2010	137
Figure 5-7: The Location of Tripoli and Alkhoms in Libya.....	140
Figure 5-8: Tripoli's Urbanised Area.....	141
Figure 5-9: The Railway Network under Construction and Planned in Tripoli, 2009	142
Figure 5-10: Waterfront Scenic Area in Tripoli, 2010	142
Figure 5-11: Palm City Complex in Tripoli, 2010	143
Figure 5-12: Regatta Leisure Village in Tripoli, 2009	143
Figure 5-13: Elfatah Tower, Abolya Tower and Dawoo Tower in Tripoli, 2010	143
Figure 5-14: Corinthia Hotel in Tripoli, 2009	144
Figure 5-15: Radisson Blu Hotel in Tripoli, 2009.....	144
Figure 5-16: The InterContinental Hotel under Construction in Tripoli, 2010	145
Figure 5-17: The Burj Albaher under Construction in Tripoli, 2010	145
Figure 5-18: Protected Area in Sim Edees in Mesallata, 2010.....	147
Figure 5-19: The Roman Site of Villa Celine in Alkhoms City.....	147
Figure 5-20: The Septimius Severus Arch in Leptis Magna	148
Figure 5-21: Roman Archaeology at Qasr Dogha in Tarhouna.....	148
Figure 5-22: The Shrine and Mosque of Abdelsalam Asmar in Zletin	149
Figure 5-23: Extreme Islamic Group in Benghazi Damaging the WWII British Cemetery, 2012.....	151
Figure 5-24: Local exhibition for remnants of the weapons of war in Misurata.....	151
Figure 6-1: Thematic Categorisation of Tourism Attractions and Products in Libya, 2009	155
Figure 6-2: Tourism Products and Attractions in Tripoli.....	157
Figure 6-3: Tourist Products and Attractions in Alkhoms	158

Figure 6-4: The Internal Flights Network and the Weekly Number of Flights in Libya, 2010.....	167
Figure 6-5: Means of Public Transportation in Libya	168
Figure 6-6: Libyan Railways Network under Construction	169
Figure 6-7: Local Tour Operator Arkno Tours Website, 2012.....	171
Figure 6-8: The Main Archaeological Ruins in the Leptis Magna Site.....	175
Figure 6-9: Small Shops at the Entrance to the Leptis Magna Site, 2010	176
Figure 6-10: Small Shops at the Entrance to the Leptis Magna Site, 2010	177
Figure 6-11: The Increases in Hotel Prices for Years 2005 and 2008 in Libya	181
Figure 6-12: Local Food and Music during Lunch Time at Zomit Hotel, Tripoli.....	182
Figure 6-13: Trends in Road Traffic Deaths in Libya	186
Figure 6-14: Markets of Origin for the Libyan Tourism Sector, 2009	188
Figure 6-15: International and Domestic Tourist Arrivals in Libya, 1995-2008	191
Figure 6-16: Arrivals on Tourist Visas in Libya, 2000-2010	191
Figure 6-17: Tourist Arrivals at the Leptis Magna Site, 2000-2010	192
Figure 6-18: Tourist Numbers Visiting Saraya Museum in Tripoli, 2003-2008	193
Figure 6-19: Mass Domestic Beach Tourism in Sidi Abdulla-Alkhoms Area, 2010	195
Figure 6-20: Mass Domestic Beach Tourism in Ganeema-Alkhoms Area, 2010	195
Figure 6-21: Mass Domestic Beach Tourism in Tajoora- Tripoli Area, 2010	195
Figure 6-22: Rubbish Left Behind in Tajoora Beach Resorts in the End of the Season, 2010	196
Figure 6-23: A Higher Quality Tourist and Residential Area at Palm City in Tripoli, 2010	196
Figure 6-24: Traditional Shops in the Old Medina in Tripoli, 2007	197
Figure 6-25: Handcrafts Markets in Old Medina, Tripoli in 2010	197
Figure 6-26: Shops at the Leptis Magna Site, 2010	199
Figure 6-27: Local Handcraft Shops at the Entrance to the Leptis Magna Site, 2010	199
Figure 6-28: The Most Visited Tourist Attractions by International Tourists on Purchased Tours in Libya, 2008.....	200
Figure 6-29: Foreign Direct Investments (FDI) in Libya, 2005-2009.....	201
Figure 6-30: The Number of Cruise Ships Arriving in Libya, 2006	203
Figure 6-31: The Number of Cruise Tourists Visited Libya, 2006	204
Figure 6-32: Mass Tour Groups of Cruise Tourists Visiting Sraya Museum in Tripoli, 2007	204
Figure 6-33: Mass Tour Groups of Cruise Tourists Visiting Leptis Magna Site in Alkhoms, 2008	204
Figure 6-34: Restaurant Sector Supply in Tripoli, 2012	207
Figure 6-35: The Planned Capacities of International Airports in Libya, 2009-2025	210
Figure 7-1: Tajoora Beach Resort in Tripoli, 2010	215
Figure 7-2: Ganeema Beach Resort in Alkhoms, 2010	215
Figure 7-3: Planned Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Tripoli, 2009-2025	217
Figure 7-4: Planned Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Alkhoms, 2009-2025	218

Figure 7-5: Description of Diving/Cultural Tour Package Offered by Arkno Company, 2010	225
Figure 7-6: Description of Diving/Cultural Tour Offered by C-Libya Company, 2010	225
Figure 7-7: The Tourist Attractions in Old Medina, Tripoli	227
Figure 7-8: Foreign, Local and Joint Venture Non-Oil Projects in Libya, 2009	230
Figure 7-9: Capital Values Invested in Projects in Libya, 2003-2009	230
Figure 7-10: The Annual Number of Visitors to Tripoli International Fair, 2000-2007	232
Figure 7-11: Revenue from the Hotel and Restaurant Sectors, 1995-2007	234
Figure 7-12: Some Local Food Dishes Provided for Tourists in Libya	236
Figure 7-13: Villa Celine Surrounded by Desolate Area and Mass Local Beach Resorts, 2010 ...	248
Figure 7-14: The Traditional Environment in Zumit Hotel Restaurant.....	250
Figure 7-15: Folklore Music Party in Zumit Hotel.....	250
Figure 7-16: The Excursion Route inside the Old Medina, Tripoli.....	253
Figure 8-1: The Revised Framework of Tourist Destination Inherent Economic Resilience Based on Product Diversification.....	272
Figure 8-2: Spatial and Thematic Clusters of Tourism Products	279
Figure 8-3: The Occupancy Trend in Libya’s Hotel Sector	283
Figure 8-4: Municipal Beach Resort in Tripoli City Crowded with People.....	297
Figure 8-5: A Deteriorating Private Beach Resort in the Alkhoms City Area, 2010	302
Figure 8-6: Trash in Uncontrolled Developments at Ganeema Resorts in the Alkhoms Area, 2010	302
Figure 8-7: Poor Quality Tourist Facilities at Tajoura Beach in Tripoli, 2010	303
Figure 8-8: Bank Credit Allocated for Libyan Tourism Development, 1995-2009	316
Figure 8-9: Promotional publications for Libyan Tourism Marketing.....	317
Figure 8-10: Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in Libya, 2003-2008	326
Figure 8-11: Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) by sector in Libya, 2009	327
Figure 8-12: The Quality of Basic Infrastructure in Libya and its Neighbouring Countries, 2005- 2006.....	328
Figure 9-1: A Pre- and Post-Crisis Resilience Assessment Framework.....	358

List of Tables

Table 1-1. Content of the thesis chapters and the associated study objectives.....	12
Table 2-1: Mass Tourism versus Alternative Tourism.....	21
Table 2-2 : Strategic Indicators of Destination Planning	40
Table 2-3: Consequences of Poor, or a Lack of, Tourism Planning.....	51
Table 4-1: Major Differences between Quantitative and Qualitative Methodologies.....	94
Table 4-2: Various Research Designs and Their Characteristics	96
Table 4-3: Tourist Sites and Dates of Observational Visits in the Two Case Study Areas.....	102
Table 4-4: The Sample List of Bloggers and Reviewers Accessed in 2011-2013	104
Table 4-5: Types of Data and the Methods and Sources Used for Data Collection.....	105
Table 4-6: Interview Themes and Objectives Related to Supply Side Interview Questions.....	106
Table 4-7: Interview Themes and Objectives Related to Demand Side Interview Questions.....	108
Table 4-8: Characteristics and Sample Size of the Tourism Supply Side Actors	112
Table 4-9: Characteristics and Sample Size of Demand Side Tourists	115
Table 4-10: List of Tour Operators Accessed for the Tour Package Analysis	116
Table 5-1: Transparency and Corruption Index for Libya, 2008-2010	131
Table 5-2: The Development of Hotel Sector in Libya	139
Table 6-1: The Tourist Attractions and Products in the Case Study Areas, 2010	159
Table 6-2: Targeted Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Alkhoms.....	161
Table 6-3: The Targeted Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Tripoli	162
Table 6-4: Internet penetration in Northern African Countries, 2010-2011	170
Table 6-5: List of 5 Star Hotels in Tripoli, 2010	173
Table 6-6: The Number, Categories and Geographical Distribution of Tourist Guides in 2008 ...	178
Table 6-7: Entry Fees to Archaeology Sites and Museums in Libya, 2010	180
Table 6-8: Market Segmentation for Libyan Tourism, 2009.....	187
Table 6-9: The Potential Tourism Markets against Tourism Products in Tripoli and Alkhoms, 2009	189
Table 6-10: The Development of Hotels in Tripoli, 1985-2010.....	206
Table 6-11: The Planned Developments for Accommodation Sector in Libya, 2009-2025	209
Table 7-1: Planned Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Tripoli, 2009-2025	217
Table 7-2: Planned Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Tripoli, 2009-2025	218
Table 7-3: National Parks and Protected Areas in Tripoli and Alkhoms	222
Table 7-4: The Growth of the Annual Event "Build Libya" in Tripoli, 2010	232
Table 7-5: Sample of Fixed Packages offered by Leading Tour Operators in Libya, 2011	241
Table 7-6: Distance and Thematic Analysis between Tourist Attractions	242

Table 7-7: Overnights and Day Visits in Tripoli and Alkhoms Offered by Tour Operators in Fixed Packages (F.P)	246
Table 7-8: Sample of Tour Packages that are labelled based on Thematic Linkages, 2010	257
Table 7-9: Sample of Tour Packages in Libya against Prices and Length of Stay, 2010.....	258
Table 8-1: Comparison of Audley Travel’s Prices of Fixed Tourist Packages in Libya and its Neighbours	282
Table 8-2: Activities and Products in the Old Medina Cluster.....	290
Table 8-3: The New Hotel Beds Required in Tripoli and Alkhosm, 2009-2013.....	306
Table 8-4: Numbers of Required Jobs in the Tourism Industry in Years, 2009-2013	306
Table 8-5: Trend in the Number of Private Sector Tourism-Related Businesses in Libya, 2008-10	312
Table 8-6: The Job Opportunities Created by Tourism Development	313
Table 8-7: The Planned Job Opportunities for Hotel Sector (2009-2025)	314
Table 8-8: The Planned Job Opportunities for the Café & Restaurant Sector (2009-2025).....	314
Table 8-9: Problems Affecting E-Marketing for SMEs in Libyan Tourism	316
Table 8-10: The Specialities Taught in Libyan Higher Institutions	318
Table 8-11: The Revenue Contribution and Financial Leakages from the Libyan Tourism Sector in GDP in Millions in Libyan Dinars (1.0 LYD = \$0.83)	326

Chapter 1 : Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the context to the study, the theoretical and practical research issues that it covers, the study's overall aims and objectives, the two case study areas within Libya that are used to assess the study's research issues, and a summary outline of the structure and content of the thesis chapters.

1.2 Context of the Study

The tourism industry has experienced significant growth in international travellers in recent decades from just tens of millions in 1950 to 983 million worldwide in 2011 (UNWTO, 2012). One reason for this has been an increasing diversification of the portfolio of primary tourism products, which has enabled it to meet more varied tourist needs and expectations. Rapid developments in IT, advances in travel transportation, increases in tourist income, and changes in society have encouraged more tourists to be independent and individual in selecting their holiday activities (Tsaur, Yen , and Chen, 2010; Weaver and Lawton, 2006). They can also now more easily access new and more varied tourist experiences and also more destinations nationally and globally. Consequently, there is intensified competition between destinations, which means improvements in primary tourism products, so that they are high quality and add value, are now critical considerations for destination long term competitiveness (Mangion, Durbarry and Sinclair, 2005).

Primary tourism products or attractions are usually the key pull factor that motivates tourists to travel to specific destinations (Jansen-Verbeke, 1986; Leiper, 1990; Smith, 1994; Weaver and Lawton, 2006). These primary tourist products and attractions vary in their scale and scope in individual destinations.

In terms of the scale of primary tourism products, they can be classified according to the scale of their consumption into two forms: mass and alternative (or niche) tourism products. Mass tourism products are consumed by a large number or scale of users. The remarkable ability of mass tourism products to achieve substantial economic returns, even over a short season, is highly attractive to tourism developers due to their focus on economic viability, but this form of tourism is often criticized for its likely unsustainability

in terms of negative economic, social and environmental impacts and also eventual trends toward destination decline (Christou, 2012; Tsartas, 2004). By contrast, alternative tourism products, such as ecotourism and cultural tourism, can draw on more distinctive destination features, and they may even be developed to minimize environmental and socio-cultural deterioration, through them being consumed by fewer tourists, and by them potentially being more locally-based and locally distinctive (Cooper, 2004; Wood, 2002). Alternative tourism products have also been developed to enhance the quality and competitiveness of tourism in order to enhance its economic viability through attracting upmarket tourists (Buhalis, 2001).

While alternative tourism is often considered more sustainable, some question its sustainability, such as by arguing that it may be less economically viable or noting that it can bring tourists into places that are easily changed or damaged (Christou, 2012). Indeed, many argue that both mass and alternative tourism can be either sustainable or unsustainable depending on the specific circumstances, notably in terms of the presence of effective quality control measures and of the commitment from actors to implement the controls (Panakera, Willson, Ryan and Liu, 2011; Weaver, 2000).

In addition to the scale of tourism products, there are also issues around the range or scope of tourism products within a destination. Thus, tourism product development in a destination may be concentrated thematically largely on one primary tourism product that may attract large numbers of tourists, so that the destination significantly relies on just one mass tourism product. This can apply to beach tourist resorts that focus on the sea, sand and sun product (Bramwell, 2004; Jordan, 2000). Elsewhere, concentration on only one tourism product in a destination may attract only a small number of special interest tourists, such as to archaeological sites or for scuba diving, in which case the destination relies largely on just one alternative tourism product (Dernoi, 1981).

In contrast, a destination may diversify from just one or a few tourism products (whether mass tourism or alternative tourism products), into other products that attract tourists with more specialist interests (and thus generally fewer tourists), such as through diversification into ecotourism, cultural tourism, and sport tourism. Other destinations (again whether focused on mass tourism or alternative tourism) may seek to diversify into tourism products that are large-scale, or draw on standardised international features, or attract large numbers of tourists, such as resorts that develop golf courses, marinas and conference and

exhibition centres (Bramwell, 2004). Tourism product diversification can also involve developing products that closely relate to existing destination products, such as the diversification of beach tourism to include outdoor and indoor water sports. On the other hand, it can involve diversification into highly different products, such as by connecting mass tourism products, such as beach resorts, with alternative tourism products, such as wildlife safaris and cultural tourism (Weaver, 2001).

This study considers the development patterns of primary tourism products in destinations, in terms both of the scale of the associated tourist activity and also the range or scope of the attractions. It examines, for example, the scale of the products and the numbers of tourists using them - that is whether they are mass or alternative (niche) products. It also considers the patterns of concentration within one or just a few tourism products within a destination, as well as any patterns of diversification into more diverse products.

The primary tourism products that develop in a destination also have different interrelationships or linkages between them. This can relate to their thematic character, particularly in terms of their similarity or dissimilarity, and to their spatial or locational proximity. These thematic and spatial linkages between products influence tourists' selections of products and also their movements or travel between the products (Weidenfeld, Williams, and Butler, 2010). Thus, the interactions between tourism products or attractions, in the form of synergies or even conflicting relationships, can affect their appeal to tourists and thus their competitiveness and adaptation. These linkages have rarely been researched despite being a highly important issue in tourism development, and particularly so for tourism product diversification in destinations. Consequently, these linkages or synergies are explored in this study.

The spatial proximity or separation, and the thematic similarity or dissimilarity, between primary tourism products can encourage tourism actors to build linkages between the products in a destination as an approach to product development and diversification, instead of necessarily creating entirely new products. These linkages can help tourism suppliers to cooperate and collaborate together, such as by sharing knowledge and engaging in joint marketing, and to work strategically to improve the quality of tourist attractions (Weidenfeld, *et al.*, 2010) so as to improve their performance in meeting the needs of tourists and to resist decline. A lack of relationships between tourism products can lead to conflicts over scarce resources and an inability to share knowledge and costs, which

can result in uncompetitive prices and a poor tourist experience. Ferreira and Estevo (2009) assert that spatial proximity among tourist attractions often has a key role in sustaining the performance of individual attractions and other businesses, including their competitiveness and survival.

The importance of spatial proximity and linkages for tourism businesses further explains the need for more research on the concentration and diversification of primary tourism products in destinations, the extent to which products are complementary, separate or in conflict, whether linkages develop among local businesses, and around the matching up of local products so that they satisfy the needs and expectations of tourists. The diversification of tourism products can be achieved through developing entirely new products or by developing existing products and by finding linkages between them so they might have greater appeal. There is a need for more studies of how many primary tourism products there are in destinations, what forms they take, and what relationships there are between them. Thus, this study explores these dimensions associated with the concentration and diversification of primary tourism products in a destination through an assessment of two case studies.

In the contemporary world, tourists differ in their selections of holidays or vary in their holiday choices at different times. Some are more interested in experiencing "authentic" cultures and "pristine" environments and they may select more specialised tourism products (Wang, 1999), while others may prefer conventional mass tourism. Some may engage in both at different times within different holidays or even during the same holiday. As a consequence, destinations can be more attractive if their tourism products are presented and packaged flexibly in order to meet tourists' diverse needs. By contrast, destinations that concentrate on just a few mass or alternative tourism products, such as conventional beach resorts or a single historical site, could face declining tourist arrivals due to a lack of diversified products that appeal to more and new market segments. Such destinations may suffer from competition from destinations that do offer a range of more sophisticated and customised products, potentially making them vulnerable to decline. According to Butler (2011: 7), destinations that have failed to respond to these market demands, have not offered a range of attractions, and "did not accommodate such changes very quickly, fell out of favour and were replaced in consumers' minds with new resorts being created".

As has already been argued, the diversification of tourism products in a destination can lead to new relationships and interdependencies between these products. These may involve cooperation and collaboration through knowledge transfers and the sharing of costs by having joint training programs and joint marketing, and such activities can help attractions to compete better. These relationships can develop into more fully networked clusters, and they can help to attract more services and businesses to agglomerate within these clusters, adding further to the area's tourist appeal. The spatial proximity and thematic similarity and dissimilarity between these products can help managers to innovate, such as through introducing new forms of collaboration and other synergies. They can allow the development of new ways of mixing tourism products in new packages, and these can better meet individual needs and customisation (Weidenfeld, *et al.*, 2010). Such innovation might require alterations in organisational and management processes, from rigid to new flexible approaches. In contrast, lack of managerial know-how could result in an inability to build strong linkages between the tourist attractions and might even result in conflicts between them.

There is little research on the relationships between concentrated alternative and mass tourism products and diversified alternative and mass tourism products in destinations. There is little understanding about the mixing of these different products, and about the extent to which they are compatible, complementary or largely separate within a destination. Relationships between these products depend on the specific attributes of the products and of the tourists that they attract, and also on the character of the destination. Therefore, diversification into appropriate forms of flexible and adaptable products might be needed for destinations that have experienced decline, so that the new packages can help to extend the destination's life cycle. This further indicates this study's contribution as it explores the patterns of primary tourism products in destinations, including the concentration or diversification of products, and whether the patterns promote flexibility to cope with diverse tourists' needs and increase the destination's economic viability.

Vulnerability to changes in both external and internal circumstances is a major challenge for the tourism sector. As tourism has become increasingly global it has become more exposed to crises and disasters that have worldwide dimensions. Political and military events, such as the September 11 terrorist attacks and Iraq war, disease outbreaks, such as foot and mouth disease and SARS, natural disasters, such as Japan's tsunami and Thailand's floods, and the recent global financial crisis have all had significant impact on

international tourist demand and on the tourism sector's performance (Alejziak, 2012). Yet this service sector's economic vulnerability occurs not just because of unpredictable political events and disasters, as there are many other social, economic and technological forces that can undermine the industry's success. As with many other economic activities, increasing globalisation means that vulnerability derives from many more potential sources, and it also can occur more quickly and more widely (Beck, 2009). For tourism there is vulnerability to broad social trends that affect attitudes to travel and to different tourist activities, especially as travel is a discretionary activity and travel to particular places may easily be perceived as unfashionable or risky (Irvine and Anderson, 2006). Tourism's considerable vulnerability means that this sector tends to be a vulnerability reducing sector, and one that needs to be adaptable (Shakya, 2009).

One implication of tourism's vulnerability is that tourism product development and diversification is necessary to address tourists' current needs and also emerging trends in tastes. This implies there is a need for considerable change in the attitudes of the industry's supply side actors and for changes in relationships between the components in this industry's supply chains. Park, Cho, and Rose, (2011), for example, claim that tourism's vulnerability has encouraged managers to make important changes in supply chain management practices, including a diversification of tourism products. Certainly there is increasing industry and research interest in the idea of destination resilience and in how to make destinations more resilient.

The development of primary tourism products, based on concentration and diversification and on whether and how diversified tourism products are linked together, is likely to affect destination economic resilience as it influences tourist decision-making. Destinations that diversify their primary tourism products and offer a wider range of quality, value-added products might become more economically resilient and thus more able to bounce back from various crises (Udovč and Perpar, 2007). Achieving appropriate patterns of tourism product diversification and mixes of products potentially can improve a destination's economic resilience in the face of uncertainties, such as from changes in tourists' tastes and economic cycles. But there has been little previous research on tourism product concentration and diversification and on its potential implications for the economic resilience of destinations. Consequently, this research examines these issues for two specific case studies.

According to Holling (1973), resilience is the ability of a system to absorb change and disturbance and to maintain the same steady state relationships between variables. Destination economic resilience has been defined by Martin (2012: 10) as "the capacity of a regional economy to reconfigure, that is adapt, its structure (firms, industries, technologies and institutions) so as to maintain an acceptable growth path in output, employment and wealth over time". Destinations may fail to cope with change and thus may be unable to compete in the long term without appropriate diversification policies – that is, they may lack resilience.

Diversification of tourism products might be especially important for developing countries which have experienced growing tourism demand (Lejarraja and Walkenhorst, 2007) but where government policy regards tourism as an economic sector with only modest growth potential. In such countries there can be too much concentration on just a few primary products and limited diversification (Sharpley, 2009). There can also be a special need for tourism diversification in countries where tourism has only minor economic significance because there is a reliance on another economic sector, such as on oil extraction. Here relatively few tourism products may be developed and there can be considerable deficiencies of infrastructure and service sector skills, so that the tourism sector lacks resilience. The tourism industry in such countries is likely to be less competitive than elsewhere where tourism is given strategic importance and where there are diversification policies. In northern Tanzania, for instance, Nelson (2004: 15) states that "community-based ecotourism's evolution in Ololosokwan has helped diversify northern Tanzania's tourism industry, which improves the region's prosperity and resilience". He implies that destinations that provide tourists with a variety of more unique offerings are better placed to be economically resilient.

Diversification into new tourism products potentially can have various benefits promoting economic resilience. It can, for example, encourage local people to learn new languages and skills to meet tourist requirements, leading to easier communication and engagement between host communities and tourists (Ou, 2011). This increases their value to the tourism industry as employees and as hospitable hosts, and this can enhance long term economic resilience. However, studies of tourism economic resilience are rare, especially in relation to tourism product diversification. This study examines these issues together, increasing the study's contribution to new understanding.

The relationships between primary tourism products reflect their patterns of development, notably of concentration and diversification. In turn these features reflect the tourism policies and strategies of the public and private sectors. They also reflect the synergies or conflicts between private and public sector actors in managing these products. They are also affected by whether local people are involved in, and supportive of, tourism development. All of these factors are likely to influence the likelihood that primary tourism products will bounce back after various crises. This might apply, for example, because partnerships between supply side actors could result in more information flows between them and in the sharing of skills and knowledge, enabling them to develop new products and new marketing approaches in order to overcome uncertainties and decline.

Various theories of tourism development were valuable in understanding tourism product diversification and economic resilience issues in the study. Key theories used are the tourist destination life cycle (Butler, 1980) and tourist destination development scenarios (Weaver, 2000). Among other ideas that were valuable were ideas about tourist demand, tourist satisfaction, alternative tourism, mass tourism, business management, marketing, competitiveness, and resilience. The combination of these theories and ideas assisted in a more holistic and integrative approach to understanding tourism product diversification and the economic resilience of tourist destinations. It also assisted in understanding relationships between the variables being examined. Thus, it established relational ideas around the study problem, and it also helped to build the frameworks used in the research, frameworks which are considered to be of value for other researchers.

The study develops a general framework based on issues related to product concentration and diversification, the relationships between products, and the implications of these issues for the economic resilience of destinations. The study also develops two more specific related frameworks. One considers whether destination development is based on primary tourism products that are concentrated or diversified, and also on the intensity of use of the destination's products, specifically whether this represented mass or alternative tourism. This framework was developed by extending ideas in the destination life cycle model, as developed by Butler in 1980, and the broad context model for tourist destination development, as developed by Weaver in 2000. The second more specific framework relates to the economic resilience of destinations, including consideration of how tourism product diversification influences a destination's economic resilience. Both these latter two frameworks form specific elements of the general framework used in the study.

1.3 Case Study Areas

This study examines the theoretical frameworks and concepts of primary tourism products, tourism product diversification, product relations, and tourist destination economic resilience in two case study areas in Libya: the capital city and tourist entry gateway of Tripoli and the smaller tourist centre of Alkhoms, which includes the important historic remains of the Roman city of Leptis Magna.

Libya is an interesting context in which to explore tourism product development as it is a country where tourism has only recently been recognised as a substantial economic sector, with the country's economy historically being dominated by oil exports. Tourism development in the past has been held back by the dominance of the oil industry, a sector that has brought the country very considerable revenues (Thomas, Jwaili, and Al-Hasan, 2003). Tourism faces several problems, including a lack of basic infrastructure and deficiencies in human capital (Blanke and Chiesa, 2011). The sector's development has also been held back by the Libyan state's image as a sponsor of terrorism and the country's reputation as politically unstable and unsafe (Schwartz, 2007). Other key features of the sector in Libya are that it has been a centrally planned industry (Alafi and Bruijn, 2010), and that tourism has developed in a Muslim socio-cultural context (Jones, 2010; Naama, 2008).

Recent political changes should also be noted. In February 2011 there were anti-government protests in Libya that led to six months of armed conflict and subsequently to political and governmental changes that are likely substantially to alter tourism's prospects in the country and in the case study areas. The field work for this study, however, was undertaken in 2010 and it relates primarily to the political and governmental context at that time. Yet the issues of tourism product development and tourist destination resilience explored at that time are likely to remain as major influences on Libya's tourism development whatever the country's future political and administrative arrangements. Moving forward, the legacy of prior investment and built physical infrastructure in the form of tourist attractions and facilities, and the linkages that have developed between them, are unlikely to change radically over a short- or even medium-term timescale.

The two case study areas within Libya were chosen because they have different primary tourism product characteristics, with a concentrated pattern of just a few dominant tourism

products in Alkhoms (notably the historic site of Leptis Magna and also beach tourism) and with Tripoli having a much more diversified range of products. The selection of these two destinations was also influenced by both being adjacent to each other on the coastal belt of the north-west of Libya, which meant they share some similarities, and they were also physically more accessible to the researcher, given resource and time constraints. The assessment of these two cases considered the extent of concentration and diversification of their primary tourism products, the scale of use of these products – whether mass tourism or alternative tourism – and the relationships between the products and individual attractions. These issues were examined for both domestic and international tourists. The evaluation also focused on the ways in which the concentration and diversification of tourism products in the two destinations influenced their economic resilience.

1.4 Overall Aim of the Study

As already discussed, the study examines tourism product issues in tourist destinations. It investigates for tourist destinations their primary tourism products, the concentration or diversification of the products, the linkages between the products and attractions, and the implications of these relationships for the destinations' economic resilience. These issues are explored in the specific context of Tripoli and Alkhoms, two different tourist destinations in Libya.

1.4.1 More Specific Objectives of the Study

The study's more specific objectives are:

- 1- To critically review literature on primary tourism products, linkages between products in tourist destinations, tourism product diversification strategies in destinations, and the economic resilience of destinations.
- 2- To develop a general framework to examine the relationships between primary tourism products in destinations, the product concentration and diversification patterns in destinations, and whether the patterns of concentration and diversification of the products promote the destinations' economic resilience.
- 3- To develop two more specific frameworks within the overall general framework. The first specific framework is of the patterns of concentration and diversification

of primary tourism products in a destination in relation to the intensity of their use as either alternative or mass tourism products. The second specific framework is of how the relationships between primary tourism products, and also other related issues, affect the inherent economic resilience of tourist destinations.

- 4- To empirically evaluate the value of the general framework and the two more specific frameworks through their practical application to two case study destinations in Libya: Tripoli and Alkhoms (which includes the historic remains of the Roman city of Leptis Magna).

- 5- To assess the scope, scale and other characteristics of the primary tourism products, the relationships between the products, the government plans for the products, and the effects of these product features and of other features on tourist destination inherent economic resilience for the specific cases of Tripoli and Alkhoms. There is evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of these issues and of their implications for tourism development in the two destinations.

1.5 Thesis Structure

Table 1.1 presents the titles for the 10 chapters in this study and for each chapter it summarises the topics covered and the main study objectives they relate to.

Chapter Two reviews key research literature that is relevant to this study, and it is focused particularly on meeting the study's Objective One. It is relatively short as the study emphasises the development of frameworks, which are covered in detail in the much longer Chapter Three, and that chapter also reviews a good deal of the relevant literature. Chapter Two focuses on reviewing some of the most directly relevant general literature on theories and concepts of tourism product development, product diversification, and the economic resilience of destinations. These theories and concepts helped the researcher to gain insights into key theoretical perspectives and issues relevant to theorizing and understanding the fundamental propositions behind the study and also to building the study's frameworks.

Table 1-1. Content of the Thesis Chapters and the Associated Study Objectives

Chapters	Topics Covered in the Chapter	Study objective
1- Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Context of the study • Case study areas • Overall aim of the study • Thesis structure 	1
2- Literature Review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The tourism product • Tourism Product Development • Objectives behind Tourism Product Diversification • Tourism Product Diversification Strategies • Tourist Destination Economic Resilience • Strategies to Enhance Destination Economic Resilience • The Connections between Diversification and Economic Resilience 	1
3- Frameworks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The First Framework • The Second Framework • The Third Framework: The Generic Framework for Tourist Destination Inherent Economic Resilience 	2,3
4- Methodology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research Philosophy • Research Approach • Case Study Design • Methods and Data Collection • Developing the Interview Themes and Questions • Sampling and Interviewing Supply Side Actors • Piloting the Study • Data Analysis Process • Ethical Considerations 	1,2,3,4,5
5- Context to the Case Study Areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Overall Context of Libya • Examples of Basic Tourism-Related Infrastructure • Main Tourism Assets and Resources of Libya • The Case Study Areas • The Political Disruption and the Future of Tourism in Libya 	1,4,5
6- The Primary, Secondary and Conditional Tourism Products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Characteristics and Attributes of Tourism Products • Patterns of Tourism Demand and Supply • Infrastructure 	2,3,4,5
7- Primary Tourism Product Concentration and Diversification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Patterns of Tourism Product Development • The Linkages between Tourism Products • Planning, Management and Leadership • Lack of Strategic Management 	2,3,4,5
8- Tourist Destination Inherent Economic Resilience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Detailed Third Framework • Tourism Product Attributes and Inherent Resilience • Primary Tourism Product Arrangements and Linkages Associated with Concentration and Diversification Patterns, for Improved Adaptation • Exogenous Variables • The Implications of Tourist Product Concentration and Diversification in Relation to Inherent Economic Resilience 	2,3,4,5
9- Conclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Key Results from the Application of the Frameworks • Review of Key Findings from Application of the Frameworks • Evaluation of the Frameworks and the Empirical Findings • Limitations and Strengths of the Study • Learning Gained from the Study 	1,2,3,4,5

Source: The author

Chapter Three explains and discusses the general and specific frameworks used in the study, and thus it relates in particular to the study's Objectives Two and Three. It describes the three frameworks used in the research, and it explains how ideas, approaches and concepts in the research literature were used and adapted for inclusion in the study's frameworks. These frameworks represent important new contributions to research as they assist in understanding the nature of the research problems and issues, and as they are generic in character they are considered to have relevance for researchers exploring similar issues in many other contexts. They also bring together ideas and issues that usually are studied separately, notably around primary tourist products, the relationships between the products, and the economic resilience of destinations.

Chapter Four explains the methodology and methods used in the study, describing the approaches used and why they were appropriate for the issues being examined. The methodology provides the practical means to apply the frameworks developed in Chapter Three to understand tourism product development and destination economic resilience in the case studies of Tripoli and Alkhoms. The chapter explores the study's philosophical position, the research design, and the data collection methods that were employed. It describes and justifies the approach taken to collecting documents, sampling the interviewees, conducting the interviews, recording and administrating the data, and analysing the data.

Chapter Five reviews the context to the case studies of Tripoli and Alkhoms as the detailed case study findings can only be understood in the specific circumstances of these tourist destinations and of Libya as a whole. Thus, the chapter explains key aspects of Libya's political, governmental, administrative, economic, socio-cultural and environmental context that are relevant to tourism product development and destination economic resilience. It considers how this wider context is manifested in the specific context of Tripoli and Alkhoms, and how this combines with the specific local circumstances in terms of local patterns of urbanisation, economic development and tourism development.

Chapter Six is the first of the study's three substantial results or findings chapters, with these three chapters focused on the study's Objective Four. It uses the general framework and also the associated specific framework of the scales of concentration and diversification of tourism products and of mass or small scale consumption (based on alternative and mass tourism products) in tourist destinations. These frameworks are

applied to an analysis of tourism product features and of product demand and supply characteristics in Tripoli and Alkhoms. It considers these issues in relation to both domestic and international tourists.

Chapter Seven is the second results chapter, and it focuses on the character of tourism product concentration and diversification, and on linkages between the tourism products, in Tripoli and Alkhoms. The assessment of product and attraction linkages considers the compatibilities, complementarities and conflicts between the tourism products as well as the influence of spatial proximity and of thematic similarity or dissimilarity. Once again this chapter applies the study's overall framework and also the associated specific framework concerning product concentration and diversification.

Chapter Eight is the third and final results chapter, and it applies the second specific framework which examines tourist destination resilience. It identifies a range of issues and processes relevant to destination resilience in the specific circumstances of Tripoli and Alkhoms and which add new detail to the generic framework outlined in Chapter Three. These issues are added to the simpler generic framework in a new diagram at the outset of Chapter Eight, and then they are assessed in some depth in the rest of the chapter. Particular attention is directed to the implications of tourism product diversification and concentration for the economic resilience of the two destinations.

Chapter Nine concludes the study and it relates most particularly to the study's Objectives Four and Five. Its first section summarizes the main findings from applying to both case study destinations the study's overall framework and also the two associated frameworks based, first, on tourism product concentration and diversification among alternative and mass tourism products and, second, on tourist destination resilience. The section evaluates the findings in terms of types of primary tourism products, their development patterns, the intensity of their consumption, the linkages between the products, and the implications of these issues and of others for the resilience of the two destinations. The second section evaluates the practical value of the frameworks and also their potential contribution to new theoretical knowledge about tourist destination products and destination resilience. The final section reviews the study's strengths and limitations, and it makes recommendations for the future development of Libya's tourism, for tourism product strategies more generally, and for further research.

Chapter 2 : Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter critically reviews literature regarding tourism products, tourism product development, tourism product concentration and diversification, tourism product diversification strategies, tourist destination economic resilience, and strategies to enhance destination economic resilience. These themes in the literature are covered in this chapter because the research concerns tourism product development, product and destination diversification, and whether or not that diversification builds economic resilience for destinations. These themes are reflected in the study's objectives, which relate to developing and applying a framework of product development based on the diversification concept in order to assess the wider issue of tourist destination economic resilience. The literature was drawn mainly from the academic field of tourism studies, supported by selected concepts from the fields of business management, planning, marketing, and resilience. Ideas from the latter fields relate particularly to the concepts of product development and planning strategies for product diversification and economic resilience. Also, the literature briefly reviews the influence of local people's culture on tourism development. Ideas developed from the literature review were utilized to construct the study's frameworks related to tourism product diversification and economic resilience.

The sequence to the topics in the literature discussed in this chapter is: tourism products (in Section 2.2), tourism product development (Section 2.3), tourism product diversification (Section 2.4), tourism product diversification strategies (Section 2.5), tourist destination economic resilience (Section 2.6), strategies to enhance destination economic resilience (Section 2.7), and the connections between diversification and economic resilience (Section 2.8). This follows a logical, cumulative sequence which helps to tease out the main issues needed to develop the study's frameworks about tourism product diversification and destination resilience.

2.2 The Tourism Product

The first topic is the concept of the tourism product as it is a key element in tourism product diversification, which is the central idea behind this study. It is essential to identify the nature of tourism products and of the relationships between these products, as they are major components of tourism's supply side in the tourism development process.

Smith (1994) argues that tourism as an industry contains products that result from complex production processes that add value through the experiences offered. The tourism product includes physical goods and places, services and information, events, people and hospitality, organizations, and climate that are integrated together, forming value-added experiences (Kotler, 2001; Smith, 1994). To successfully add value to the tourism product, the integration should not be limited to physical integration of the tourist with the service but it should include integrating the tourist intellectually and emotionally with the production process (Normann, 1991). This suggests that tourism product development should be market-oriented in order to ensure that skills, knowledge and experiences are provided that satisfy the tourists and thus promote tourism growth. Thus, value-added experiences should be the focus of tourism development (Gronroos 2000; Smith, 1994).

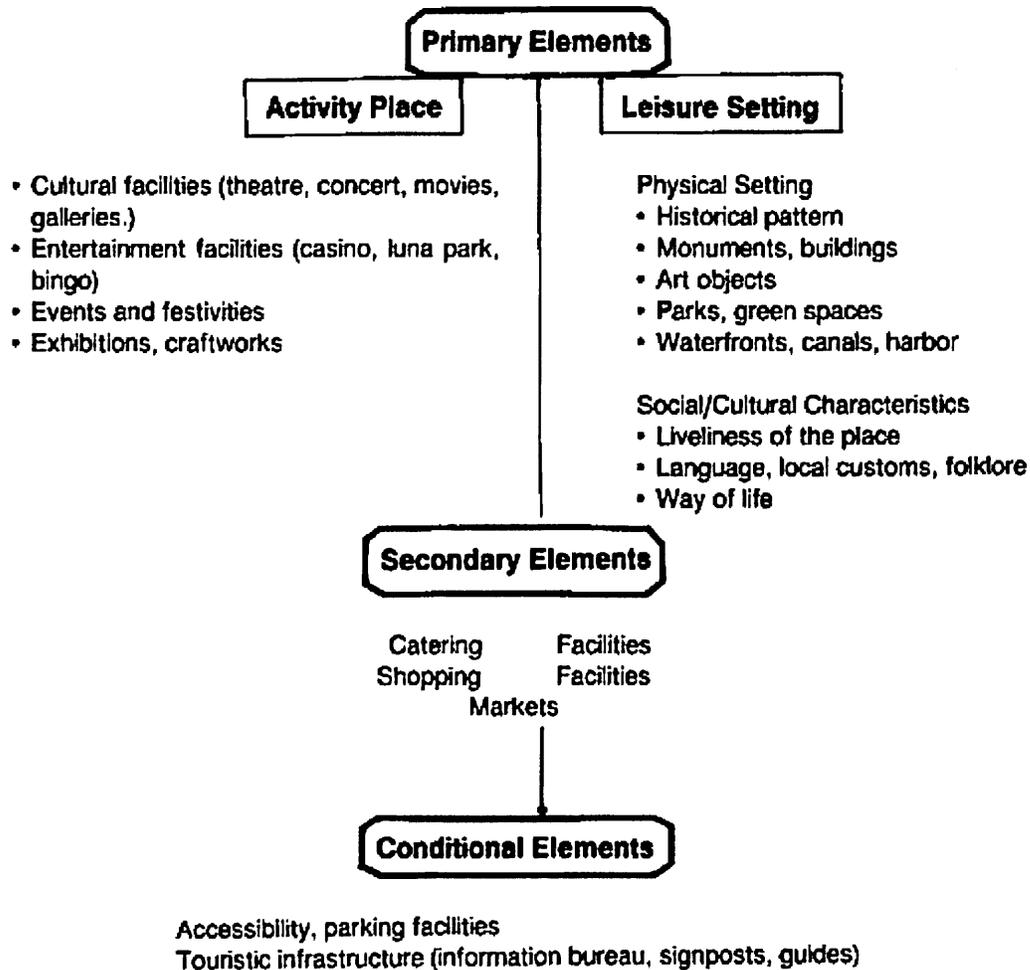
However, value-added experiences may be developed at three different stages of the travel package: before purchasing the trip, during the trip, and after consuming the tourism product. Tourism is about selling experiences created through the interactions between tourists and elements or products within the tourist destination, with tourists often motivated to travel in order to gain unforgettable, unique experiences (Hongna and Liang, 2011). These experiences comprise of both tangible physical components and intangible services, and together these form the total tourism product (Lumsdon, 1997). This could imply that selling high quality and memorable experiences is essential for tourists (Du Plessis, Van Der Merwe and Saayman, 2012). Thus, the attributes of tourism products, and the ways of packaging, managing and marketing them, can influence the tourist's decision to purchase or not to purchase the product (Swanson and Horridge, 2004) as well as the consumption behaviour of tourists, and these in turn affect the patterns of tourism development. Therefore, tourism planners and managers need to realize that developing high quality tourism products that meet or even exceed the tourists' needs is very important for competitiveness and survival in the market.

Jansen-Verbeke (1986) divides the tourism products in cities into three elements, based on their role in motivating tourists to travel, as shown in Figure 2.1. The primary elements have the potential to attract or draw tourists to visit a destination – they can motivate tourists to choose one destination over another. They include two categories: the activity place, which comprises of the activities that exist in the place and can attract tourists to visit; and the leisure setting of the place, which includes both physical and socio-cultural features that can attract tourists. The secondary elements and the conditional elements are

supporting or supplementary facilities and services that are less important as they are not the primary reason for visiting the destination, but they can add value and may well be required to enable tourists to stay in the place and to extend their stay.

Figure 2-1: Typology of Tourism Products based on Their Appeal

The Inner City as a Leisure Product (Supply Side)



Source: Jansen-Verbeke, (1986: 86).

First, there are primary tourism elements, with these considered to provide the main pull factor that motivates tourists to travel to a specific destination. These often differentiate one place from another, and at times they are distinctive and cannot be duplicated. Destinations need to realize the importance of having a diversity of primary products as this diversity of the tourism offer can reduce risk and provide significant other benefits (Weaver and Lawton, 2006). According to Rotich, *et al.* (2012), tourism product diversification, in terms of specific tourism activities and of the bundle of products within destinations, has been an important strategy to achieve sustainable development in Kenya. In the past the majority of tourism development was concentrated in coastal provinces rather than in Nairobi and the

Rift Valley provinces, leading to an unequal distribution of income and employment, and the diversification of products in all these regions has helped to reduce those inequalities. Thus, a destination may develop new primary products because having a range of primary products can enhance the destination's attractiveness, increase tourist satisfaction, and promote tourism growth.

According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003), tourism is firmly tied to destination characteristics, notably the quality and value of the primary tourism products. Murphy, Pritchard, and Smith (2000: 43) state that "Quality and value are concepts that can provide insights on how to rejuvenate products". Primary tourism products need to be developed continually and strategically in order to ensure that they meet customers' requirements, and also to ensure that destination development meets desired economic, socio-cultural and environmental objectives (Bramwell, 1993). This implies that tourism development should be product-led based on a customer orientation. The rejuvenation of primary tourism products often involves making the products more competitive. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) state that destinations often compete to attract tourists by developing new primary products that have clear comparative advantages. These advantages may include: uniqueness and an iconic, quality experience; value added and affordability; accessibility; a strong product range; and an attractive product mix. The diversification of the destination product portfolio might enable the destination to attract new market segments (Agarwal, 2002; Crouch and Ritchie, 1995). Examples include the diversification from reliance on coastal resort tourism by developing cultural tourism in Malta. Here the local authorities for Valletta, the capital city, organised cultural activities and created new tourist attractions so as to complement beach tourism and to help to rejuvenate the city (Theuma, 2004).

The second category of elements identified by Jansen-Verbeke is the secondary elements, with these more related to the infrastructure required in destinations for tourists' comfort and for place attractiveness. These elements are needed to support and complement the primary products (Omerzel, 2006). While secondary products tend not to attract tourists to the destination, some do serve as a strong tourist draw, as is seen with shopping in Hong Kong (Wong and Law, 2003), and shopping in Dubai (Saidi, Scacciavillani, and Ali, 2010). Both primary and secondary tourism products need to complement each other, and they require planning and managing in an integrated and dynamic manner (Russo and Porg, 2002). According to Omerzel (2006: 168), "Without the secondary tourism supply the

tourism destination is not able to sell its attractions...and without the primary supply the tourism infrastructure is not useful".

The third type of tourism products is the conditional elements, with these having least importance in attracting tourists, but they may substantially enhance the quality of the overall tourism product. For example, accessibility to sufficient information about the tourist destination can have a significant influence in motivating tourists to visit one place over another, but taken as a whole they cannot be the main pull factor for tourists. Buhalis (2003) states that e-tourism facilities – the use of information and communication systems – can enhance tourism development, such as through e-airlines, e-hospitality, e-tour operators etc. They add to the ease of tourists in making purchases and payments, and in having more details about their trips before making purchases, and thus they can boost tourist demand and satisfaction.

In this study, the term "elements" was replaced with the term "products", in part because "elements" indicates a broad range of types of products, while the present study focuses on the diversification of primary tourism products. It is most interested in the main supply-side products that are motivators for tourists to purchase holidays in specific destinations (Russo and Van der Borg, 2002). For example, language and local customs, as shown in Jansen-Verbeke's model, can be seen as primary elements, but it is hard to imagine that many tourists will visit a certain place to enjoy a specific language or local customs. And also languages and local customs are not tourism products that are often diversified through new tourism product strategies. It was felt that the term "product" rather than "elements" is useful in limiting the study's scope to focus mainly on those tourism products that can be diversified. Also, in this study the primary tourism products are not divided into the two categories of activity place and leisure setting as in Jansen-Verbeke's model. Rather they remain combined under the one category of primary tourism products. In addition, in this study the secondary and conditional tourism products are combined and they are considered as supplementary or supporting products to primary products. Again this is because the study's focus is on the diversification of primary tourism products.

2.3 Tourism Product development

The second concept in the literature explored here concerns tourism product development. Understanding the patterns and concepts of tourism product development helps in

appreciating the nature of tourism product concentration and diversification and how these can foster or reduce tourist destination resilience.

Tourism product development is an important process to increase competitiveness and market share through meeting tourists' needs. "Product development is a prerequisite for satisfying tourists' changing demands and insuring the long-term profitability of the industry" (Smith, 1994: 582). Omerzel (2006) contends that one important indicator of competitive and productive tourism is the development of new tourism products and destinations. Tourist destinations as a whole can be considered a single tourist product (Hovinen, 2002) or else a composition of attractions, infrastructure, and hospitality (Kozak and Rimmington, 1999). Meler, Magas and Horvat (2011) stress that tourism products should not be considered separately from a tourist destination.

However, tourist destination development and its products emerge in relation either to unplanned processes or to deliberate government-related involvement and regulation (Weaver, 2000). At the early exploration stage of destination development this may be based on alternative tourism (niche tourism) in which a small number of explorers and adventurers discover new places. Garay and Canoves (2011: 653) state that the development process "begins with an 'exploration' of the tourist area where a small group of tourists is interested by the place and attracted by its 'exoticism', its natural and cultural conditions, its purity and authenticity and by the lack of institutionalization of its tourism facilities", and at this stage there may be no or few regulations or interventions by the state to control destination quality or tourist flows (Butler, 1980; Weaver, 2000). As soon as the economic benefits are realized, the development might become based on deliberate government-related planning. In this later stage development is accelerated through more investment, either with or without government involvement, with the private sector often taking the lead if it has the capability to develop and manage the tourism sector by itself based on strong economic returns.

Destination development might occur by concentrating on one primary tourism product. This concentration on one or just a few tourism products may involve high volume mass tourism, as seen in coastal resort development, or it may involve low volume tourism based on a single tourist product with more limited market appeal. Coastal tourism may itself attract only a small number of tourists if there are geographical, environmental, and political problems, as in Dominica (Weaver, 1991). Destination development may also

occur through diversification of the primary tourism products. This can occur, for example, through mass tourism in a coastal resort being supplemented by other products, such as ecotourism development in Kenya which has occurred through wildlife safari tourism being seen as an extra activity for coastal tourists (Weaver, 2001), or through offering ecotourism to general tourists in urban areas (Higham and Luck, 2002). Diversification can also occur through developing a range of specialist interest products that all attract small numbers of tourists, such as through developing diverse rural tourism products (Sharpley, 2002).

Tourism development, whether in mass or alternative tourism forms, can cause economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts in destinations that must be viewed as costs and benefits (Elena, 2007; Weaver and Lawton, 2006). Such impacts affect and are often affected by the attributes of the primary products and are also associated with tourist behaviours such as travelling in groups or as individuals. Gartner (1996) has summarised some of these typical features of mass and alternative forms of tourism developments, as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2-1: Mass Tourism versus Alternative Tourism

General features in relation to consumption patterns	Mass Tourism	Alternative Tourism
	Rapid development	Slow development
	Maximises	Optimises
	Socially, environmentally inconsiderate, aggressive	Socially, environmentally considerate, cautions
	Short term	Long term
	Remote control	Local control
	Unstable	Stable
	Price consciousness	Value consciousness
	Quantitative	Qualitative
	Growth	Development
	Peak holiday periods, seasonal capacity for high seasonal demand	Staggered holiday periods, not necessarily seasonal
	Tourism development everywhere	Development only in suitable places
	Consumed by large groups	Consumed by single people, families, small groups
	Fixed packages	Flexible and designed by tourists
Comfortable and passive activity	More demanding and active activity	

Source: Adapted from Gartner (1996)

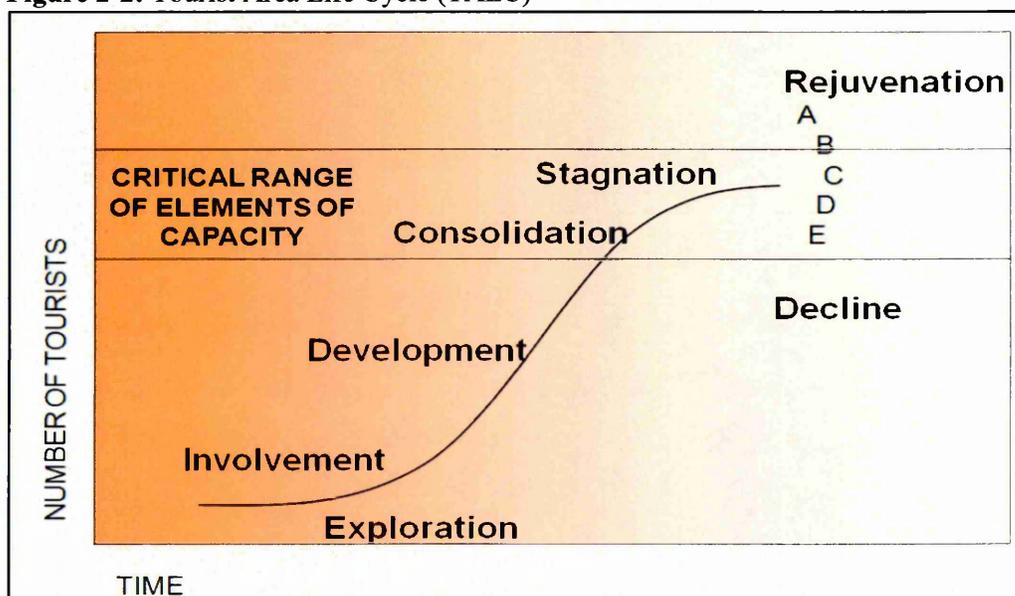
2.3.1 Tourist Area Life Cycle, (Butler, 1980)

Butler (1980) considers the development of tourist destinations in his model of the tourist area life cycle (TALC). The TALC model is underpinned by the idea that tourist destinations are products developed and improved so as to meet the needs of holiday makers, in similar ways to normal goods and services (Butler, 2011). The model, shown in

Figure 2.2, is based on two dimensions of change: the passage of time, and the volume of tourist flows.

The model presents tourist destination development as a sequence of growth stages, including exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, and stagnation, with the latter being when destinations might either decline or revive through potential strategies to extend development. These possibilities are illustrated by alphabet "A to E" in Figure 2.2, and they include no re-orientation of tourism, destination decline, or a re-orientation or even re-invention, leading to further growth or perhaps just stability (Garay and Canoves, 2011). According to Butler (2011), these possibilities for heritage tourism can include: fabrication, commoditisation, recreation, ruination, and cessation.

Figure 2-2: Tourist Area Life Cycle (TALC)



Source: Butler (2011: 6)

However, many researchers argue that the model is too simple and thus it does not always conform to the reality (Agarwal, 1994; Baum, 1998; Hovinen, 2002). Agarwal (2002) states that decline in tourist numbers can result from either external and/or internal threats, but in the model it tends to be seen just as the result of internal threats. The model also assumes that rejuvenation will happen only after exceeding the critical carrying capacity, which is not always the case in practice. One reason for this is that any destination might contain a number of tourist products that differ in their carrying capacities and any one of these might encourage planners to apply rejuvenation strategies, such as tourism product diversification or through applying quality regulations for sustainability, and these can be applied before

all the products reach their critical thresholds. These strategies can also influence the destination adaptability, which in turn may influence its carrying capacity. Thus, for these and other reasons a tourist destination might not follow the development pattern indicated by the TALC. Agarwal (2002) argues that the destination lifecycle should be related to another potential interpretation of destination development, that of restructuring. Both interpretations, however, suggest that successful growth of a destination depends on selecting the most appropriate development strategies based on each destination's unique characteristics and products. When considering such criticisms of the TALC model, however, it is important to note that Butler suggests that the model is an "ideal type" that may or may not be found in practice, depending on the local circumstances. It was always seen as a simplification of reality in order to aid understanding and assessment, and any simplification is bound to miss some things out and to simplify those things it does cover.

Arguably, the TALC model does not sufficiently consider the factors of competitiveness and sustainability that might influence the size of demand and the destination development. This may be because competitiveness and sustainable development can both be achieved by meeting market demands through cost efficient processes and effective and wise use of resources (Bramwell, 1998), and not necessarily through massively increasing the number of tourists. This might imply that a reduction in numbers of tourists does not necessarily entail destination decline - because targeting up-market tourists could lead in the long-term to improved economic viability and sustainability. Papatheodorou (2006: 67) argues that the "TALC framework seems relatively insufficient to address issues of competition and competitiveness in tourism". He explained that competing to increase tourist flows can be through exclusive pricing policies or through product diversification strategies or market diversification. Thus, the TALC may not clearly present the influence of competitive strategies, whether the destination includes a single or multiple tourism products, as these may involve implementing different strategies. Thus, TALC may more accurately present the evolutionary path of a single product and it may not conform to the patterns for multiple products that together often constitute overall destination competitiveness.

Hovinen (2002) argues that the TALC model cannot predict the inevitability and the magnitude of the decline, although Berry (2006) claims that the model does not include the notion of predictability and that it helpfully puts an emphasis on the need for proactive strategic planning to resist decline. But it is contended by the present author that the model does not help by suggesting specific proactive steps for planners and developers to take

with regard to patterns of tourism product development, notably in terms of concentration on one tourism product or diversifying into more alternative or mass tourism products. This gap or deficiency seems to limit the model's utility.

The TALC model also does not consider the relationships between types of tourists and the level of impacts on places and products in the destination. For example, alternative or specialist interest tourists usually engage in location-specific activities that may more often positively impact on destination development, in contrast with general leisure mass tourists who are often blamed for negative impacts on destinations. Thus, the types of tourists rather than the number of tourists might strongly influence the patterns of consumption and whether the consumption patterns promote ecological conservation and respectful social interactions, which in turn influence the destination development patterns and lifecycle.

The model indicates that destinations often become more vulnerable when they exceed their tourist and tourism carrying capacities, such as may be seen with mass tourism. In order for the destination to reduce its vulnerability and to extend its lifecycle, then it suggests that adaptive strategies must be considered in order to avoid stagnation or decline, such as through product diversification and improvements in quality. This indicates the importance for a destination to nurture its resiliency in order to overcome both predictable and unpredictable forces of decline. Thus, there is a need to consider resilience in tourism development research.

The TALC model seems to imply that destinations are very likely to reach the stagnation stage because they exceed their critical carrying capacities limits. But in practice this is not always the case because there are often opportunities to resist decline and to rebound back and maybe forward due to the pace of development in technologies and due to innovative management, development, and marketing approaches. These changes can enable tourism destinations to compete, for example, on quality experiences and by making customer needs and expectations the core focus of their development strategies. Thus, the TALC model might only represent a reaction model based on a supply-side orientation, rather than a proactive model that considers active customization in tourism product development. Thus, in practice it is possible to put into place quality regulations and market-led strategies in the early stages of exploration and involvement in a destination's development. And that can result in different patterns to those suggested in the patterns presented in TALC model. This might explain why Weaver's models of destination development scenarios (2000)

emphasize regulation and intervention through imposing quality control measures to ensure sustainable development.

The critical tourism carrying capacity for a destination might not be easily increased solely through developing more products and services to attract more tourists or through consolidation policies as it can be understood from the TALC model. This is because on the ground changes in the demands of increasingly sophisticated tourists can be faster than the tourism product development processes. Thus, bundles of strategies for tourism development might be needed in combination, such as an adequate regulatory system, infrastructure development, the development of human resources and marketing strategies. Thus, substantial organizational changes might be needed to increase a destination's overall tourism carrying capacity. Van Lavieren, et al. (2011: 67) state that "capacity development involves much more than enhancing the knowledge and skills of individuals. It depends crucially on the quality of the organizations in which they work and whether these organizations are research active". So increasing a destination's tourism carrying capacity might not be possible simply by developing new hotels and services in order physically to accommodate and service more tourists.

The model also does not differentiate between mass and alternative tourism products, which principally are different in terms of the number of tourists and their potential sustainability (Poon, 1989; 1994; Sharpley and Telfer, 2002), and also the model does not explain what consequences there are if mass tourism was scaled down and alternative forms of more sustainable tourism products were developed instead. Baum (1998) states that the TALC model largely ignores the strategy of abandoning tourism altogether – for whatever political or economic reasons – and also the strategy of reverting back to tourism based only on alternative tourism products. The implication is that development through product diversification and concentration can be important issues affecting the destination lifecycle.

The TALC model might embed the notion of competitiveness since growth in the model requires the ability to compete, but it does not give much consideration to how competitiveness influences destination development at each life-cycle stage. Wilde and Cox (2008) argue that the key competitive variables might differ in their importance according to the life-cycle stage. For example, tourism product diversification as a strategy for competitiveness and growth (Agarwal, 2002; Crouch and Ritchie, 1999; Moraru, 2011) can be important even in the early stages of development in order to boost competitiveness and

not necessarily to resist decline. Thus, destinations that rely on marketing just one tourism product might be different in their pattern of development and of carrying capacity from those destinations with a larger scale and range of diversified tourism products. In the latter case, these features can add comparative and competitive advantages that can influence development. Therefore, there is a need to develop a new model that considers the concentration and reliance on one or a narrow range of tourism products, and also diversified tourism products, in order to identify the associated different patterns of development. In addition, resilience in terms of the capacity of destinations to adapt to changes might be related to the TALC model since it considers rejuvenation or post-stagnation as the stage at which the destination adopts strategies to revive in the market, such as through diversification into more products. Niles (2010) argues that the development of non-traditional tourism products, such as business tourism, can help to build a resilient tourism sector against internal and external threats. Other strategies of competitiveness, such as pricing and market diversification, can also help to increase resilience. All of these concepts can be linked to the development and rejuvenation stages in the Butler model.

Growth and development do not necessarily depend on increasing the flow of tourists. For example, diversification or shifting to niche alternative tourism products can lead to growth by attracting up-market tourists in small numbers, and these may spend more than a much larger number of general leisure tourists (Christou, 2012). Thus, the type of tourism product offered at a destination influences whether tourism development there is more or less sustainable and competitive.

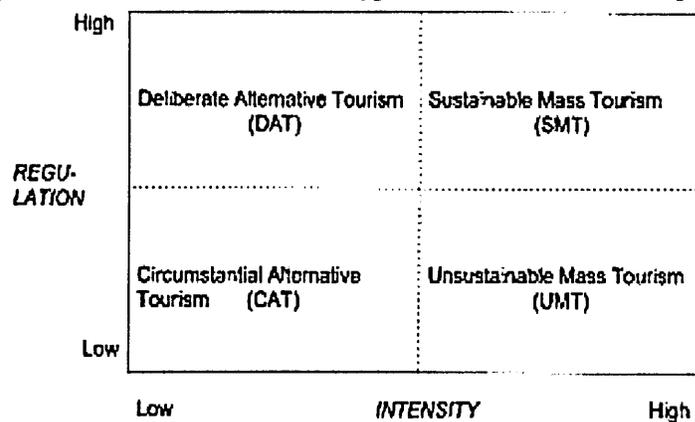
Further, it is likely that tourism products in a destination develop different forms of relationships; notably they may cooperate and collaborate based on their physical or geographical proximity or on thematic features in order to achieve common goals. Such relationships can significantly influence the destination's development. The TALC model does not look in-depth at the influence of relationships between tourism products at different stages of the destination life-cycle. These cooperative relationships may be created in the early stages of development before the stagnation stage due to the desire for more competitiveness and resilience. Tourism operators and government adopts strategies for primary tourism product development at any stage in the destination life-cycle. They can promote diversification either by establishing entirely new tourism products or by connecting together the existed products within new packages, as these strategies can be

more flexible in meeting a wider range of tastes. Thus, it is quite hard to understand the relationship between resilience and diversification through the TALC model alone. The present research attempts to fill this gap.

2.3.2 The Broad Context Model of Destination Development Scenarios (Weaver, 2000)

Weaver (2000) took many ideas from Butler’s tourist area lifecycle (TALC) model when he developed his broad context model of destination development scenarios. Unlike the Butler model, this model does consider which particular types of tourism products are developed and whether there is regulation of the patterns of product development in destinations. Weaver’s model is shown in Figure 2.3. Weaver’s model is discussed here in some detail as aspects of it are incorporated in a model developed in the present study. It should be noted, however, that Weaver’s model has not been evaluated in detail against the experience of specific destinations.

Figure 2-3: Weaver’s Model of Types of Destination Development



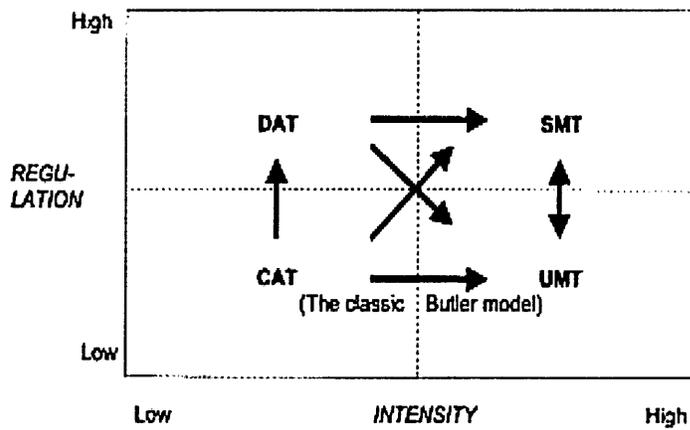
Source: Weaver (2000: 218)

Weaver’s model of destination development scenarios or types (Figure 2.3) focuses, first, on government regulation or intervention, on the vertical axis. Here the government might regulate tourist volumes through entry visa regulations, or else the type of tourism development through encouraging investment in tourism projects. Both of these government interventions can affect whether tourism development is characterized by low or high tourist volumes (Weaver and Lawton, 2006). The model also focuses, secondly, on the intensity of tourist development, on the horizontal axis, notably whether tourism is characterized as high volume mass tourism or as low volume alternative tourism.

Based on the two variables of government regulation and intensity of development, the model in Figure 2.3 identifies four types of destination development. The first is called "Circumstantial Alternative Tourism", or CAT, and it is characterized as circumstantial as there is limited government direction or planning, and as alternative because it attracts only fairly small numbers of tourists and there may well be only limited tourism facilities. CAT tends to occur at the exploration stage in the TALC model, and it may be affected by there being few government regulations to control tourist flows. The major role in tourism development usually lies with the private sector, motivated by economic returns. A lack of regulation, planning and management might lead the private sector to promote rapid development and to the second type of destination development. This second type is "Unsustainable Mass Tourism", or UMS, which is characterized by large tourist volumes and adverse socio-cultural and environmental impacts that are unsustainable. By contrast, the government might become actively involved in the early development processes by implementing regulations and planning in order to restrict the flow of tourists. Bramwell and Alletorp (2001) contend that government can seek to secure the adoption of sustainability measures by tourism operators, and they can encourage businesses to include in their internal accounting the wider environmental and social costs and benefits. Such a planned approach in the case of small-scale tourism development is called "Deliberate Alternative Tourism", or DAT. A fourth type of destination development, finally, involves deliberate regulation and planning of development that attracts large volumes of tourists. This regulated form of mass tourism is called "Sustainable Mass Tourism", or SMT.

Weaver extends the typology of destination development in Figure 2.3, with a more dynamic model of scenarios for the evolution over time of tourist destinations between these four types. Weaver's second model in Figure 2.4 represents the various scenarios for the transition of destinations over time based on trends in the levels of government regulation and in the volumes of tourists and scale of tourism development. This second model can shed light on how regulations and the types of tourism products developed might differently affect the development of destinations, and also might affect the trajectory of development identified in Butler's model.

Figure 2-4: Broad Context Model of Destination Development Scenarios



Source: Weaver (2000: 219)

In Weaver's two models arguably the ultimate desired state is sustainable mass tourism (SMT), and he introduced three paths to reach it: organic, incremental and induced (Weaver, 2012). Weaver argues that niche tourism is not necessarily sustainable (Weaver, 2000; 2006), and he and other authors also contend that mass and alternative tourism can both be sustainable or unsustainable (Harris, Griffin, and Williams, 2002). According to Weaver's second model, reaching sustainable mass tourism along whatever path depends on a dynamic relationship between regulations and the volume of tourists. Weaver's focus is on minimizing the environmental cost to achieve sustainability. Peeters (2012: 1038) argues that sustainability as a dynamic system does not depend only on minimizing costs, but also on "benefits, thresholds, carrying capacities and absorption abilities within the system". However, sustainable tourism development is difficult because the tourism policy environment is complex and its implementation is not just technical but also "is far broader and involves political, cultural, economic, social and psychological change" (Dodds and Butler, 2010). Thus, there is a lot of ambiguity around the implement-ability of sustainable mass tourism. But, on the other side and in relation to diversification, products such as conference and small-scale sport tourism are often characterised as more sustainable than conventional tourism because they are economically high value-added and they have fewer negative impacts on the society and environment, although it should be noted they often involve high resource consumption (Gibson, Kaplanidou, and Kang, 2012; Spilanis and Vayanni, 2004). This could mean that diversification into more sustainable alternative tourism products that have fewer negative impacts and may continue for longer periods might be practically more achievable and implementable than the supposed fully sustainable mass tourism.

However, there are several potential difficulties with Weaver's models. One key problem is that mass and alternative tourism are not necessarily mutually exclusive. One reason for this is that mass tourism can supply the tourists required for alternative tourism products, and they may complement each other rather than conflict with each other, and thus they may develop side by side (Christou, 2012; Kontogeorgopoulos, 2004; 2009).

In addition, regulation is not a pre-condition for any particular stage of tourism development because the private sector can push development and oppose restraints at all stages. With advanced stages of tourism development in developed countries, for example, governments may limit their involvement to a few mandatory and supportive actions (Lickorish, *et al.*, 1991). Similarly, the private sector, such as tour operators, can encourage mass tourism by pushing for, and marketing to, attract large numbers of tourists for economic reasons, and that can lead to the emergence of conflicts with public sector interests around environmental and cultural conservation (Sharpley, 2004). Such conflicts can lead to development patterns in destinations that differ from those found in the context of collaboration and partnership between the private and public sectors. However, private sector roles are diverse, ranging from generating project ideas through sponsoring research studies, financial risk taking, providing experts and technical skills, providing consultation and market research, and lending money. Thus, private sector participation can be crucial for achieving significant progress in tourism development (Mill and Morrison, 2006). To a degree, however, the second model does allow for these differing trajectories, despite the arrows in Figure 2.4 not all being multi-directional.

Another difficulty is that the Weaver models do not clearly explain the crucial importance of primary products, such as their attributes and characteristics and how they are developed. The models also do not focus on the inter-relationships between differing primary tourism products, whether large-scale or small-scale or concentrated or diversified. There is no assistance from these models as to whether primary products are complementary or compatible or in conflict, based on similarity or dissimilarity in their themes or on their geographical proximity, or whether together they promote destination attractiveness and marketing. Further, the Weaver models do not help us understand if a destination's product mix strengthens the destination's ability to resist or cope with changes in demand and tourists' expectations.

Weaver's models might apply more in the case of a destination that contains only one concentrated alternative or mass primary tourism product. For example, it is hard to apply the models for destinations containing different patterns of primary tourism product diversification. It does not help to understand the linkages and other relationships, such as synergies, collaboration, partnership, competition and separate development, which can emerge between diversified tourism products in one destination. These linkages and other relationships between tourism products can substantially determine the direction and the impact of the development. This gap is addressed in the present study by developing a framework that takes into account these important dimensions.

Neither Butler's model nor Weaver's model provides in-depth insights on the influence of product concentration and diversification strategies on destination resilience. Yet these strategies are often vital for destination development and adaptability to cope with changes. These strategies are not mutually exclusive. Thus, there are important gaps in both models, and on their own they could encourage tourism destination planners to neglect certain potential factors of change that should be incorporated into planning strategies. The present study attempts to fill these gaps through developing and evaluating a framework of destination development that focuses on the concentration and diversification of primary products, on the interrelationships between the various products, and on the implications of these for the economic resilience of tourist destinations.

2.3.3 Complexity of Tourism System

Tourism destinations behave as dynamic evolving complex systems, encompassing numerous factors and activities, such as economic globalisation, political and governance systems, private and public sector partnerships, community, natural and geographical systems, transportation and information technologies, fast changing customer behaviour, and demand influenced by intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. All of these issues are interdependent and they strongly influence the industry in a nonlinear manner (Farrell and Twining-Ward, 2004, Bramwell and Pomfret, 2007). Therefore, systems thinking is required to bridge different disciplines in ways that help to explain the complexities of tourism development and put resilience into holistic perspective. Systems thinking helps to simplify complexity, clarify the ambiguities, and to integrate the problems that apparently seem to be isolated from tourism. Focusing on the whole system and how its different parts interact helps researchers to understand a system's feedback and to develop consistent

frameworks that could help them to develop plans and anticipate long-term consequences for whole systems. Thus, tourism product diversification and economic resilience issues are not isolated issues. Both influence and are influenced by very many human, economic and ecological factors at local, national and global levels. Therefore, approaching the problems associated with product diversification and destination resilience requires integration of the many relevant political, cultural, environmental and economic issues at various levels.

2.3.4 Tourism in Developing Countries

Tourism development in developing countries faces major challenges of which almost all are similar. These challenges include poor infrastructure (Harrison, 2001), lack of skilled employees (Dieke, 2001), inadequate policies and regulatory frameworks that control tourism development (Otman and Karlberg, 2007), the dominance of the public sector and the weakness of the private sector (Lew, 2001; Singh, 2001), the dominance of fast profit sectors such as oil and gas industries (Otman and Karlberg, 2007), lack of investment and sufficient budgets, local people resistance and lack of participation, low quality services etc. However, mass tourism plays the major role in tourism development in developing countries compared to alternative tourism which plays only a minor role (Iwersen-Sioltsidis and Iwersen, 1996; Harrison, 2001). Therefore, tourism development in many developing nations could experience decline in tourist arrivals due to their inability to compete globally.

2.3.4.1 The Influence of Local Culture on Tourism Product Development

Local culture can be a key element in strategies for tourism product development and for consumption patterns in destinations. The literature on this subject is given some prominence here because of the distinctive features of local culture, notably those associated with the Muslim religion, in the locations examined in this study.

Local traditions and ways of life underpin people's norms, values, and beliefs, and people apply them in their daily actions. Ignoring local people's culture and needs in tourism development can lead to mistrust and conflicts between residents and tourists. Ambroz (2008:63) contends that "to avoid conflicts local residents should be actively involved in the decision making process of tourism development". This can help to develop infrastructure, tourism products, and the hospitality sector in ways that can be experienced

by local residents, domestic and international tourists in mutually satisfactory ways. It might also encourage flexible use so that domestic tourists may visit in periods when international tourist arrivals are low, thus reducing seasonality (Skanavis and Sakellari, 2011). However, local culture can be negatively affected by some tourism activities. For example, domestic Muslim tourists are an important part of the market in Arab and some other countries, and they fast during the month of Ramadan, so that most restaurants are closed then during the day (Hashim, Murphy, and Hashim, 2007), and for that month the domestic tourist market provides minimal economic returns for the restaurant sector. Maitland (2007) argues that cultural activities are now considered an integral part of how cities function economically, and they are often prominent in strategies for regeneration and development through tourism in developed countries.

In Muslim nations, Islam is a major influence on tourism development. Zamani-Farahani and Henderson (2010: 79) note that Islamic law, especially in theocratic countries where the state and religion are inseparable, "directly and indirectly affects recreation and travel. Religion thus influences individual host and guest experiences, but also the operation of the industry, tourism policy-making and destination development". In Islamic cultures travelling is firmly connected with spiritual, physical and social goals, and this activity must not contradict Islamic teaching, such as around the prohibition of alcohol, non-halal food, gambling and the mixing of men and women; the need to follow Islamic dress codes; and fulfilling religious duties, such as praying or fasting (Kalesar, 2010). Some Muslim countries, such as Saudi Arabia, also restrict women from travelling independently without a close male blood relative as a guardian (Baden, 1992; Tuppurainen, 2010). Also, Jordanian woman cannot obtain a passport without written permission from their husband or nearest male relative (Tuppurainen, 2010). Din (1989) states that, although Islamic religious codes encourage Muslims to travel, to be hospitable, and to respect the environment and other cultures, in practice these codes have had little influence on how tourism has developed in many Muslim countries. Thus, prostitution, gambling, the consumption of alcoholic beverages and many other hedonistic tourism-related activities that are prohibited by Islam can be found in Muslim countries such as Indonesia, Morocco, and Turkey (Michalak and Trocki, 2007). However, this situation has been widely blamed for conflicts with the local culture and for some terrorism, such as in Egypt (Fielding and Shortland, 2010), and thus it can clearly affect tourism development.

Muslims usually have very strong family relationships and family size is often big. Thus, many Muslim tourists are discouraged from travelling as they expect not to find suitable accommodation and infrastructure adapted to their specific needs (Kalesar, 2010). The development of Muslim-friendly accommodation and tourism facilities is growing fast in some Arab nations, however. The availability of appropriate infrastructure can be highly important in promoting domestic tourism and intra-regional tourism within and between Muslim countries (Kalesar, 2010; Razalli, Abdullah and Hassan, 2012). Islamic tourism, or what is sometimes called "Halal Tourism", influences many tourism-related products, such as beach areas that have separate male and family resorts, airlines that provide halal foods, spas that separate males from females, and hotels that provide spaces for prayer and Islamic activities (Kalesar, 2010). The differences in cultures between Muslim and Western countries are often clearly reflected in tourism development patterns. Thus, to avoid culture conflicts and to sustain tourism development and a resilient tourism sector, tourism planners need carefully to consider local people's culture.

2.4 Objectives behind Tourism Product Diversification

This section considers literature concerned with tourism product diversification, notably the objectives behind it, and the potential advantages and disadvantages. Tourism product diversification is a key focus for this study and it is central to the study's objectives, frameworks and empirical research.

International tourist numbers are increasing, reflecting rising prosperity in many countries, and this means that tourism is often seen as a lead sector for economic growth. However, tourism is a vulnerable activity due to its dependence on the effectiveness of other sectors and also on a market which sometimes is very changeable in volumes and tastes, and with increasingly sophisticated requirements (Keller, 2005). Moreover, tourism is often reliant on natural and cultural resources (Holden, 2008) which can be significantly damaged by tourism activities, as well as by climate change and natural disasters. Therefore, diversification into new tourism products may be sensible in order to reduce environmental problems, and to maintain the industry's long-run economic viability and adaptability to changes in demand (Dodman, *et al.*, 2009). For example, Ali-Knight (2011) suggests that the development of alternative tourism products has been a response to calls to diversify the product base in order to capture new tourist markets. Diversification is also used to revitalize the tourism sector for better competitiveness (Hassan, 2000). The fierce global

competition between destinations to attract tourists has also encouraged some tourist destinations to diversify into more products. For example, Moraru (2011) argues that it was the fierce competition for tourists among destinations that left Romania with no option but to act in the direction of product and service development and diversification.

Tourism product diversification can help destinations to develop synergies and partnership linkages between tourism products that can help in improving destination flexibility and competitiveness. In business in general, efficient, specialized firms may not be willing to diversify if they achieve a high level of performance from specialising and concentrating on producing one product or service, and they may also not see a need to secure synergies with other firms. But in some other cases inefficient companies may diversify and secure strategic outsourcing by building synergies with other firms in order to survive in the market (Hummels, *et al.*, 1998; Quinn and Hilmer, 1994). Bianca (1997) argues that the empirical studies that find a negative relationship between diversification and profitability do not necessarily imply that diversification has a negative impact on profitability. But he suggests that a lack of synergy between diversified products might lead to inefficient performance among the diversified firms. Similarly, creating a diverse range of alternative tourism products, such as rural tourism and agro-tourism, may be insufficient unless they are connected together thematically so that they complement each other (Uysal, Chen and Williams, 2000). They may need to be connected together within flexible packages so as to satisfy tourists' needs and to reduce the leakage of revenues by supporting local sales to tourists (McKercher and Lew, 2004).

Due to the nature of tourism products, the concentrated development of just one product may result in product decline after a while due to an inability to compete because of the lack of diversified products. With diversified products in a destination it is important to generate linkages and synergies so that they share management and marketing costs and knowledge and skills in order to improve competitiveness. Concentrating development on just one or two primary tourism products, such as coastal resorts, might no longer be competitive unless this product is itself diversified and also differentiated from other competitors (Bramwell, 2004; Uysal, *et al.*, 2000), such as by adding ecotourism and activities. Another example is adding diving, snorkelling and boating to a coastal beach tourism product (Halim, 2011). Differentiation can help to satisfy the sophisticated needs of tourists, such as by improving their skills and through learning and having new experiences. For instance, the unique nature of mountain tourism can motivate

mountaineers to have holidays in other destinations that enable them to improve their skills (Pomfret, 2006). Differentiation can be achieved through diversification, including by combining the products in new packages or by introducing new products (Moraru, 2011). A failure to create unique products might result in tourist destination decline (Baloglu and Mangalolu, 2001). An insufficient range of quality products could lead to tourist dissatisfaction, and thus tourism developers need to focus on a market orientation. Bramwell (1998) argues that surveys to measure tourist satisfaction with tourism products are important in order to develop appropriate strategies for tourism product development and to improve the attractions for selected users. Without appropriate product development dissatisfied tourists may be more likely to select other places to go to. Also Moraru (2011) argues that product development and diversification has increased tourists' intentions to visit and revisit Romania. Overall, it appears important to develop new, unique tourism primary products in order to enhance destination competitiveness and attractiveness.

Diversification might also reduce accessibility problems. Prideaux (2002) states that with remote tourism sites, the scale and the range of the primary products may need to be increased so as to attract tourists, who otherwise might divert to less remote areas. For example, during economic crises due to the high cost of flights more distant tourist destinations may have a lower economic performance than destinations easily reached by train, bus or private car (Smeral, 2010). In those circumstances, diversification into attractive and quality tourism products could encourage tourists to travel to specific remote destinations even in difficult economic times. Thus, diversification may help to overcome accessibility problems.

Diversification of tourism products is also a useful strategy to overcome seasonality effects, either through substituting domestic with international tourists or by substituting low season, low value markets by higher potential and higher value markets. This can lengthen tourists' stays and encourage them to spend more. Developing indoor tourism activities during seasons with bad weather could encourage domestic and international tourists to visit all-year-round. Tourist destinations offering a wider range of tourism products are often less impacted by seasonality (Yacoumis, 1980), and Koenig and Bischoff (2004) stress that diversification into a range of tourism products can increase demand even in low seasons. A wider range of tourism products can also encourage tourists to stay longer in a destination and to spend more.

According to Spilanis and Helen (2004), mass tourism at beach resorts in Greece's Aegean Islands helped these islands to halt the previous history of economic problems and population losses through generating new jobs and increasing domestic income. But, despite the economic viability of mass tourism on these islands, there were major negative impacts on the quality and quantity of their natural, cultural and human capital. Thus, diversification in the Aegean Islands into high quality tourism products could help to balance the long-term sustainability of the economy, society and environment. Similarly, in Malta the diversification of cultural tourism into festivals and events has helped to broaden the market base and to attract tourists during the off-peak, leading to positive impacts for businesses and residents (Theuma, 2004). Diversification could positively add value and influence tourist demand. For example, in a study of tourism in southern Italy it is argued that tourists were motivated to visit not only by seaside tourism and cultural products but also by a range of alternative tourism features, including specific gastronomic traditions and features that add value to the basic food and wine tourism product (Trunfio, Petruzzellis and Nigro, 2006). This broader type of gastronomic tourism – which has been called enogastronomy tourism – is seen as far more than just food tasting, rather it is depicted as a path of discovery of local culture through food, and it is seen as catering for tourists' expectations not only through offering quality food products that are typical and guaranteed but also to taste typical dishes and meeting the food and culture producers and to be treated with courtesy everywhere (Viganò, 2003).

Diversification into a broad range of tourism products can reduce conflicts and culture clashes between domestic and international tourists, especially if they are culturally very different. These conflicts can result from a lack of synergies between the management of tourism products in order positively to manage these cultural differences. "Conflicts often develop where there is a lack of awareness, perception, understanding, acceptance and evaluation of different needs or a lack of information and communication" (De Jong, 2012: 1). For example, western cultures are obviously different from Arab Muslims and that influences their behaviours and the types of tourism products they consume. Diversification into more tourism products can help to reduce the tensions and conflicts that might emerge between domestic and international tourists by providing different products and experiences to cater for their different needs and interests, leading to substituting the shortages of international tourist flows in difficult seasons by increasing the flow of domestic tourists.

2.4.1 Potential Advantages and Disadvantages of Tourism Product Diversification

Tourism product diversification has the potential to embed the notion of market diversification. But it can be a risky strategy as developing new tourism products requires expanding a destination's infrastructural (physical, human and informational) capacity in order to satisfy the wider range of tourists and stakeholders. That is not easy to achieve, and also there are dangers in moving into markets in which there is little or no previous experience. Thus, there is a need for product research and development, and also for innovation, as well as detailed insights into customer and host community needs. This implies there is a need to understand complex processes in order to achieve successful diversification. Therefore, it is useful to critically discuss some of the potential advantageous and disadvantageous of product diversification in tourism, with the discussion drawing on relevant academic literature.

Potential advantages:

- 1- Diversification into new tourism products, such as business tourism, ecotourism, sport tourism etc., can provide the sector with a wider platform that can consolidate other tourism or hospitality activities, thereby resulting in mutual interdependency (Kontogeorgopoulos, 2009; Rotich *et al.*, 2012; Weaver, 2001b).
- 2- Diversification can allow for the use of existing expertise, knowledge and resources that are in place when expanding into new activities. This may result not only in the transferral of skills and the sharing of costs, but also in knowledge development through learning from new experiences (Holland, 2003, Nordin, 2003).
- 3- Diversification can allow managers to identify declining supply chain activities, which in turn can be eliminated, consolidated or even transformed to more productive ones (Weaver and Lawton, 2006).
- 4- Diversification potentially could encourage internal competition between various tourism suppliers, and that competition might improve quality and performance (Ashworth, 2004; Moraru, 2011).

Potential disadvantages:

- 1- Diversification can often increase the management complexity required to coordinate and control the various activities, resulting in additional costs and inflexibilities (Ansoff, 1957).
- 2- Diversification can intensify internal conflicts about resources between various tourism actors and that can hinder the collaboration required to compete globally (Nelson, 2003).

- 3- Diversification can fail if there is a mismatch between the supply capacity and the needs of the market. Thus, diversification should be guided by both market needs and supply side competencies (Weaver and Lawton, 2006).
- 4- Research on, and planning for, diversification is a complex process and it requires multi- and interdisciplinary knowledge and information. Despite that, it is quite difficult to eliminate its uncertainty.

2.5 Tourism Product Diversification Strategies

Strategic planning for tourism product diversification can have positive long-term effects for destinations. The presence, aims and consequences of this planning are important in the present study of tourism product diversification in Libya, so some of the most relevant academic literature is considered here.

There are different approaches to strategic planning. One involves formulating plans based on a problem-solving approach within an action plan (McCarty, Clifton, and Collard, 1999; Smith, 2001), and another focuses on broader issues of visioning, evaluating the overall purpose, and identifying broad objectives, and it is usually longer-term in its outlook (Oldham, Creemers and Rebeck, 2000). One more recent approach focuses on competency in relation to resources and markets, and also on competence viewpoints (Nelwamondo, 2009). In general, strategic planning is "the formal consideration of an organisation's future course" (Kriemadis and Theakou, 2007: 28). Adopting tourism planning based on the strategic perspectives of competitiveness, sustainability and resilience can help to direct the planning towards long-term goals and can also encourage stakeholder participation in the planning process, which itself can be valuable for long-term success (Ritchie and Crouch, 2000; Simpson, 2001). Strategic planning indicators have been developed by Ruhanen (2004), as shown in Table 2.2, and she suggests that these should be used in tourism development and diversification plans and in the associated implementation processes. These indicators should be applicable for tourism product diversification strategies since diversification is risky and could require large investments and organizational changes in order to secure successful implementation and positive outcomes.

Developing clear and consistent tourism development policies is important so as to ensure there is successful implementation and positive outcomes. Duval and Vogel (2008) have emphasised on the importance of ability of the policies and institutional framework to cushion the initial impacts of crises. Thus, "Tourism policy is an important area for study because of its practical and theoretical importance" (Scott, 2011: 3). The strategies for

tourism product development can vary between concentrating on a single product to diversifying into numerous products. Product concentration may not always entail large-scale development, as a single product in a destination may be small scale. Similarly, product diversification might not always entail small-scale products because there may be several products developed on a large scale. Diversification might be carried out as a response to tourism decline, or it might be launched to attract a wider range of market segments. Diversification might involve developing new mass tourism products at a large scale; or else it may entail establishing new small scale products, such as alternative tourism, in order to attract small numbers of tourists who are attracted by the unique features of places (Bramwell, 2004).

Table 2-2 : Strategic Indicators of Destination Planning

- The plans should be based on objectives with a long-term orientation.
 - The plans should include broad goals related to the nature and scale of future tourism development.
 - The plans should identify the economic benefits of future tourism development.
 - The plans should include environmental conservation goals.
 - The plans should include goals for the protection of local socio-cultural values.
 - The plans should include local community benefits from tourism development and ensure an equitable distribution throughout the destination.
 - The plans should offer a range of alternative strategies by which the general goals can be achieved.
 - The plans should integrate demand and supply to ensure consistency and development balance.
 - The plan objectives should be achievable and measurable.
-

Source: Adapted from Ruhanen (2004)

Strategies for tourism product diversification may be more effective if developed on the basis of product attributes and the destination's carrying capacity, and if the products are developed so that they complement each other. Such approaches may help to improve the overall destination attractiveness (Farsari, Butler and Prastacos, 2007). Lejarraja and Walkenhorst (2007) state that tourists are often attracted by complementary products and by clustered products. Tourism suppliers operating businesses within such clusters and engaging in collaborative relationships between their businesses might seek to block the entry of new competitors. Product diversification might be enhanced if the product themes are complementary. This could occur, for example, through having varied rural tourism products that meet the needs of tourists who seek countryside, nature, and cultural experiences (Choo and Jamal, 2009). This complementarity can also be enhanced through

physical proximity between the tourism products (Weaver, 2001). In addition, diversified alternative tourism products can complement mass tourism products in order to sustain competitiveness (Kontogeorgopoulos 2009). Thus, diversification is related to the issue of complementary relationships, relationships that can play a crucial role in building destination attractiveness (Weidenfeld, *et al.*, 2010).

Thus, strategic planning for tourism product diversification in destinations needs to identify what types of tourists are sought, to establish whether to have product concentration or diversification, and to establish the appropriate mix of the various tourism products (Brau, Scorcu and Vici, 2009). Diversification strategies need to be guided by tourist needs, but attention must also be directed to the needs and preferences of residents in the destination.

2.5.1 The Linkages and Interrelationships between Diversified Tourism Products

The effectiveness of tourism product diversification strategies can be significantly influenced by the strength of linkages and interrelationships between tourism products at managerial and marketing levels. Xi and Wei (2010) argue that only modest economic benefits resulted from the diversification of Macau's tourism because it involved low levels of innovation and the limited cooperation and collaboration between interested actors. Good infrastructure development and place design can also create synergies between attractions and can influence tourist movements and preferences (Dredge, 1999). Tourist movements between different products can also be influenced by constraints imposed by an organized packaged tour (Mckercher and Lau, 2008), by spatial proximity, by the similarity and dissimilarity between the tourism products (Weidenfeld, *et al.*, 2010), and by the use of ICT to promote attraction networking and clustering (Enright and Roberts, 2001). Such diverse variables can influence the patterns of relationships and linkages that may emerge between tourist attractions and products.

However, there is little research on the influence of spatial proximity and of similarity or dissimilarity of thematic features of tourism products for tourism product development and for product diversification. It may be that similar tourism products attract quite similar market segments. This could mean that thematically similar tourism products can cooperate in terms of, for example, knowledge transfer (Nordin, 2003; Novelli, Schmitz and Spencer, 2006; Weidenfeld, *et al.*, 2010), sharing resources, and product marketing and promotional strategies, such as through joint ticketing and vouchers. Bramwell and Lane (1999) argue

that collaboration can provide cost effective management by sharing resources. Thus, "The extent of collaboration and cooperation is an important determinant for the development of a tourism destination" (Baggio, 2011: 1). In addition, collaboration and coordination could help to reduce contradictions and conflicts that could emerge around a destination's tourism products. For example, there can be conflict between the heritage and tourism industries between conservation and commodification approaches (Aas, Ladkin and Fletcher, 2005; MacManus, 1997). Thus, collaboration potentially can help the various stakeholders to find and match their common interests and to reduce conflicts: "then heritage tourism can be developed in a way that preserves the resources of the local community and is beneficial to all" (Aas, *et al.*, 2005: 29). For similar tourism products, collaboration potentially can increase the compatibility linkages between similar tourism products because tourists having the same interests can visit the same tourist places, leading to more benefits and development for each attraction (Nordin, 2003). However, it should also be noted that similarity can lead to fierce competition between similar destinations (Meler, Magas and Horvat, 2011; Weidenfeld, *et al.*, 2011).

Location proximity is also another factor that can encourage proximate tourist attractions to cooperate in various activities, such as in marketing. Spatial proximities can be important, for example, to encourage tourists not to skip or avoid nearby attractions, such as smaller attractions in a cluster (Weidenfeld, *et al.*, 2011). The proximity of tourist attractions could help them to actively build geographical clusters. Tourism businesses in clusters can use the spatial agglomeration, including in their supply chain components, to build further synergies through their proximity, potentially shared thematic features, and their interdependency (Porter, 1998; Rosenfeld, 1997). According to Iordache, Ciochina and Asandei (2010: 105), a "Tourism cluster is a geographic concentration of interconnected companies and institutions through tourism activities". Clustering between tourism attractions based on spatial and thematic similarity and dissimilarity can help the attractions to share skills and training programmes, to innovate their production and supply processes, to better satisfy their customer requirements, to facilitate relations with other organisations, to overcome shared problems, and to achieve shared progress in the markets (Porter, 2000; Weidenfeld, *et al.*, 2011). Thus, tourism clustering can enhance the overall competitiveness of the cluster. Iordache, *et al.* (2010) point out that clustering can impact on competitiveness in three ways: it allows more productivity of the cluster; it encourages and accelerates innovation since tourism is a highly innovative service sector (Aldebert, Dang,

and Longhi, 2008); and it stimulates new businesses that strengthen the overall cluster competitiveness and growth.

Diversified tourist attractions and products with quality services and sufficient facilities could complement or/and be compatible with each other, producing collective efficiency and policy cohesion (Beni, 2003 in Ferreira and Estevao, 2009), which might increase the flexibility of choices for tourists. These features might sustain management networks and generate comparative and competitive advantages.

In contrast, concentration on only one tourism product in a destination is unlikely to encourage collaborative linkages within that destination because of the lack of diversification. Diversification of tourism products through developing competitive clusters and the development of collaboration and cooperation between the products within the clusters can be a valuable long-term strategy. This can help to attract tour operators, who often package tourist attractions together based on their spatial proximity or their thematic similarities or dissimilarities in order to provide value-added experiences for tourists.

However, the packaging together of tourist attractions in fixed packages might not be enough to create positive relationships between tourism products because independent tourists often create their own travel packages online and they can be used flexibly. In those circumstances, attractions may decide to develop innovative approaches to mutual coordination and collaboration in order to meet the needs of independent tourists, reduce production costs, and to improve quality and performance at competitive prices. Thus, the management and marketing of these attractions can gain benefits from collaborative relationships based on the use of location and thematic features as an approach to diversifying tourism products as more flexible and sophisticated products. Such linkages and synergies may help to improve skills and quality in managing and marketing the tourism products. Thus, such improvements could help tourist attractions to compete against rivals and also to resist decline and to adapt to changes.

2.6 Tourist Destination Economic Resilience

This topic is an important part of the study of tourism product development and diversification which follows, and thus this section explores some of the literature and concepts related to the economic resilience in tourist destinations.

Perhaps the first sustained examination of the resilience concept was in 1973 by the ecologist Holling, and it has been used subsequently in many other disciplines, although often in different ways (Tyrrell and Johnston, 2007). In engineering it is regarded as the elasticity of a material without being deformed, and in health it is seen as the ability of human bodies to recover after illness and to reach their full potential and humanity (Friedli, 2009). The tourism sector is driven by a need to survive, so that resilience in tourism concerns survival and growth. It involves a complex process of mobilising or activating tourism's inherent features and of learning to enable individuals, groups and communities to prevent, tolerate, overcome, and be enhanced by adverse events. Perhaps the idea of operational resilience is the closest to the idea of tourist destination economic resilience, with operational resilience defined by Caralli, *et al.*, (2010: ix) as: "the ability of an organization to adapt to risk that affects its core operational capacities in the pursuit of goal achievement and mission viability". However, highly adaptive systems in a place do not always support overall resilience because they could lead to a loss of resilience in other less adaptable places (Schouten, Van Der Heide and Heijman, 2009).

Socio-ecological resilience is defined by Folke (2006) as the capacity of the socio-ecological system to adapt to changes and to continue without a collapse. Berkes and Ross (2013) have combined a socio-ecology and a psychology/mental health view of resilience, developing an integrated concept of community resilience. This community resilience is seen as a function of the community strengths or characteristics that have been identified as important, leading to agency and self-organization. Another view of resilience is a long-term social system perspective, which considers that "a regional economy would be resilient to the extent that its social structure of accumulation was stable, or to the extent that it was able to make a rapid transition from one social structure of accumulation to another" (Hill, Wail and Wolman, 2008: 2).

Regional economic resilience, which may be particularly useful for destination resilience, is defined by Briguglio, *et al.*, (2006) as the ability of regional systems to maintain the pre-existing state (the equilibrium state) after experiencing external shocks, or to avoid the shocks by having an economy that is not subjected to fluctuating demand, or to minimize the effect of decreasing demand in some economic sectors by diversifying the economic base (Briguglio, *et al.*, 2006). Other researchers on regional economic resilience assume that there are multiple equilibria states into which regional economies become locked-in, so that resilience is seen as the ability of regional economies to avoid the lowest equilibrium

state or to move quickly from it to a better one (Safford, 2004). McInroy and Longlands (2010) argue that any economic resilience framework should ensure that all parts of the economy are represented: including the social, commercial, and public economies. They identify two key determinants for economic resilience. First, the preparation for resilience, or the readiness for an effective response, and this concerns the inherent ability to respond to potential changes and disturbances. It includes the preparation of proper and timely actions through the utilisation of networks and communications. Second, there is the actual performance of resilience, including the initial recovery and the ability to learn from experience. It concerns the absorbing and recovering from the changes and the adaptive ability to create new opportunities from it. The two authors also argue that the results of the relationships between preparation and performance range from resilience to stability, and from vulnerability to a brittle economy.

Resilience as a system process is relevant to every stage of a risk reduction process, starting from preparation and ending with recovery. Adger (2000), Deeming (2013), Folke (2006), and Maguire and Hagan (2007) include the following stages within resilience:

- 1- the anticipation element, that might include establishing a mitigation or a buffer capacity,
- 2- running through a response in order to bounce back,
- 3- and recovery or bouncing forward by securing a full transformation process.

Foster (2006) simplified the resilience process into two stages: preparation for resilience, and the performance of resilience. The former comprises of assessment and readiness, while the latter comprises of response and recovery.

Berkes (2007) argues that for a system to be resilient, it must be able to learn from experience through developing platforms of cross-scale dialogue that allow for the spill-over of knowledge and effective partnerships. Diversity is also vital so it reduces the risk of dependency on one source, and local people's involvement is also necessary so as to ensure effective responses and adaptation. In business, IBM (2004) considers to be a process that can include four different proactive actions: protection of business resources, deflection of the impact of normal disruptions, prediction of major disturbances, and adaptation when change is inevitable.

Studying resilience in tourism has been seen as necessary in order to deal strategically with potential change at various levels from the local to global. Holladay and Powell (2013) stress that resilience is important in tourism, and they indicate that it can reflect the ability of a specific community to develop tourism in a sustainable manner. Holladay (2011) argues that organisations need to undertake activities to enhance resilience and sustainability. This is needed so as to improve a system's ability to resist, adapt, and learn from experiences and thus to meet challenges caused by unexpected events, such as market decline, political turmoil, or natural disaster. Bramwell and Pomfret (2007) state that it is important to bring the interested parties to work together in order to address issues of complexity and adaptation associated with tourism. For example, "travel agencies must be agile, resilient and adopt virtual structures, focus on core business and customer needs, developing cooperation between economic actors (reinforcing the concept of networks), build up innovative ICT, in order to take advantage of the differentiation factors and capture sustainable competitive advantages" (Salvado, 2011: 105). Integrating business research with resilience science in tourism research can help to improve sector resilience. It can achieve this by helping to understand the relationships between organisations and the broader economic and socio-ecological systems of which the organisations are a part (Biggs, 2011).

Tourism destination resilience can helpfully be seen in relation to the work of Shurland and De Jong (2008: 8), who discuss: "the capacity of a system, community or society potentially exposed to hazards to adapt, by resisting or changing in order to reach and maintain an acceptable level of functioning and structure. This is determined by the degree to which the social system is capable of organizing itself to increase its capacity for learning from past disasters for better future protection and to improve risk reduction measures". Their definition refers to two capacity dimensions of resilience: the capacity of the existing resources in the system, and also the capacity acquired through learning and experience, such as the emerging competency of destination planning and management.

The economic resilience of a destination involves both inherent and adaptive economic resilience (Rose, 2004). The resilience metaphor of the human body can be useful in order to help to understand the idea of inherent and adaptive resilience. The live human body is regularly exposed to non-serious diseases and minor wounds that the body can recover from because the body has inherent recovery capacities (inherent resilience) without a need for external help. In major accidents or serious illness, assessments of internal capacities

are often done before external help is sought in order to help the body to adapt (adaptive resilience) to crisis. It is notable that the human body can develop internal immunity (learning experience) against germs that have previously attacked it, which means that inherent and adaptive resilience are tightly interconnected. In addition, assessing the inherent capacities advances the adaptive capacity by reducing the costs and ensuring proper adaptation processes.

Inherent resilience refers to the destination's ability to continue functioning well under the normal dynamics of change, either by coping with or resisting those normal dynamics (Carter and Bramley, 2010; Tierney and Bruneau, 2007). Thus, the inherent resilience of a tourism product might be related to the product's ability to attract large volumes of tourists while avoiding negative impacts on a tourist destination's carrying capacity. A diverse range of primary products may promote inherent resilience as this may enhance the destination's capacity to provide flexible tourist packages based on customization, and these products may also offer authentic experiences and good value. The geographical proximity of primary tourist products may also enhance the inherent resilience as it may increase the destination's competitiveness (Miller, *et al.*, 2007).

By contrast, adaptive resilience refers to the flexibility of tourism products during and after crises, which is demonstrated by their ability, or the whole destination's ability, to bounce back and function again after a crisis (Duval and Vogel, 2008; Tierney and Bruneau, 2007) or bounce forward through transformation to a new more sustainable state in which resilience is concerned with concepts of renewal, innovation, regeneration, reengineering and reorganisation (Maguire and Cartwright, 2008). The capacity of a tourist destination to balance its tourism supply with the tourist demand and satisfaction after a crisis is linked to the availability of the primary products, their interrelationships and synergies, and their compatibility to tourists' expectations. The combination of all these features of a destination can be crucial for it to respond efficiently to meet major changes in demand. Moreover, responses to major changes in demand might involve altering the price of travel to, and of activities within, the destination in relation to the quality of experience in order to increase tourist visits (Weaver and Lawton, 2006). These adaptive responses can enhance the destination's affordability for better tourist satisfaction. Another potential response to major change might involve improvements to the quality and value experience of the tourism products through destination rejuvenation strategies, such as product diversification (Murphy, *et al.*, 2000). Diversification can also provide improved experiences of place

authenticity through developing products produced by local people, with some considering these two features as a key to destination economic recovery (Handmer and Choong, 2006).

Both inherent and adaptive economic resilience potentially can be enhanced through product diversity, alternative livelihoods for host residents, the prevention of economic leakages from local tourism economies, economic returns that benefit local communities and local actors' participation in tourism planning and in the tourism developments (Holladay and Powell, 2013).

2.6.1 Critical Features of Resilience in the Literature

Problems with the concept of resilience:

- 1- There are many conceptual inconsistencies in the literature due in part to differences between the different disciplines and points of view of the authors.
- 2- Work on resilience is still in an early theoretical stage (Turner, 2010). One of the challenges for resilience approaches is to integrate ideas from multiple disciplines, methods, and perspectives (Berkes 2007). This helps to understand why the present researcher found it difficult to understand the issues and to link them to the research problem.
- 3- Resilience is still something of a bandwagon concept (Manyena, 2006), which needs more critical reflection.
- 4- Many researchers suggest that the risks and threats of big ideas, such as diversification, are becoming a problem in current society. In that context resilience is becoming a key idea and many studies have come out of it. It is interesting that at the moment it is conceptually still messy and vague and not very practical.
- 5- Given the lack of clarity in the research literature, it is understandable that the business community finds it difficult to understand exactly what it needs to do to become more resilient.
- 6- It is also difficult to know what resilience may mean because things need to change as an inevitable part of life.

Advantages of the concept of resilience:

- 1- Although the vagueness of the resilience concept can be a problem for policymakers, its vagueness is actually a possible advantage for researchers because it encourages it being investigated across interdisciplinary boundaries and it being understood in the context of the broad complexity of the tourism system.
- 2- The many definitions of resilience contain some common useful characteristics, although they are varied in their details (McAlsan, 2010).
- 3- Resilience does provide a very interesting extension to the ideas of competitiveness and sustainability.

This brief review of literature on resilience has identified some important issues. **First**, it suggests that disruptions are an inevitable part of our lives, but they can differ in their type and magnitude and, thus, there is no specific model that will fit all systems where the resilience determinants differ, but there are some common determinants that could fit all. **Second**, resilience capacity changes as a reflection of the continuous processes of improvements of internal characteristics and capacities, to more radical changes due to altering external conditions. Improvements in internal capacities can be managed and they are important to help self-resistance and reorganization to be more robust, vibrant and aligned with the external situation. This emphasises that the relationships between internal and external factors are dynamic and must be seen as mutually interactive relationships. **Third**, a resilience assessment process in a complex system such as in tourism should include two stages, including the assessment of the pre-crisis conditions in the system to see how ready the system is to adapt to change. This resilience groundwork is static, but it is essential in order to be able to go further to the next stage, which is assessment after the crisis.

2.7 Strategies to Enhance Destination Economic Resilience

This study considers how destinations might enhance their economic resilience, and thus consideration is now given to literature and related concepts that are relevant to this.

Tourism is a vulnerable sector (De Sausmarez, 2007). Thus, Moreno and Becken (2009) argue that it is important to gain improved knowledge about the influences on vulnerability for the tourism sector. This can assist in developing present and future resilience strategies for tourist destinations. Holladay and Powell (2013) argue the actions that support resilience and sustainability can increase the tourism sector's ability to thrive, adapt and also to learn to meet different future challenges. Putting resilience strategies in place can be important as this potentially can save time, money, and effort (IBM, 2009). McNroy and Longlands (2010) argue that since economic, socio-cultural and environmental change is unavoidable and quite normal, then tourism plans and strategies should seek actively to respond to future changes by integrating general place policy with tourism policy. Thus, tourism policy needs to be compatible and linked with other policies, such as for land use and city regeneration, events programmes (Smith 2012), transportation, economic policies, ICT technologies, and education and skills. Local community leadership is also needed to increase local community participation in the planning and control over tourism projects

(Holladay and Powell, 2013). These proactive and integrated policies may help destinations to bounce back from adversity, including through enhanced learning from what has happened in order to be better prepared for future crises. Faulkner (2002) states that strategic planning involves responding to emerging and evolving market trends through ongoing environmental scanning and a strategic assessment process, and he suggests these are central components of tourism business survival. Thus, strategic planning in tourism is vital to ensure growth, competitiveness, and resiliency, and to reduce the vulnerability factors. A lack of strategies and plans could lead to several negative impacts at all levels of business processes. Mill and Morrison (2006) identified the types of negative impacts that can result from a lack of tourism planning, as shown in Table 2.3. The table presents several important symptoms that significantly weaken the tourism industry's ability to stay in the market and adapt to future changes.

Measuring the scale of economic resilience requires knowing the variations in economic performance over a period of time (Briguglio, *et al.*, 2009). Rose (2004) argues that measuring resilience is a key to evaluating and selecting suitable strategies for securing continuing economic returns and reducing the economic losses from disasters. Thus, fostering resilience in normal conditions and after disasters is important for tourism. Resilience strategies can be divided into two types: mitigation strategies and adaptation strategies. The form of appropriate strategies will differ between different tourism destinations due to the differences in their characteristics, but both strategies are complementary and must be combined (Klein, Schipper and Dessai, 2005). Mitigation and adaptation strategies will be discussed in turn.

Mitigation strategies are intended to reduce tourist destination vulnerability under normal conditions, and thus to increase inherent resilience. Briguglio *et al.*, (2006) state that mitigation strategies can be implemented at smaller costs compared with adaptation strategies. Wilkinson (1989: 172) states that one such strategy for destination areas is that they "adopt or refine themes and events that reflect their history, lifestyles, and geographic setting, with promotion of local attractions being subject to resident endorsement". Mitigation strategies might often be related to tourism product quality and attributes enhancement.

Table 2-3: Consequences of Poor, or a Lack of, Tourism Planning

Impacts	Symptoms of a Lack of Tourism Planning
Physical	Damage or permanent alteration of physical environment
	Damage or permanent alteration of historical and cultural landmarks and resources
	Overcrowding and congestion
	Traffic problems
Human	Less accessibility to services and visitor attractions for local residents in local vicinity of tourism activity
	Dislike of visitors on the part of local residents
	Loss of cultural identities
	Lack of education of tourism employees in skills and hospitality
	Lack of community awareness of the benefits of tourism
Marketing	Failure to capitalize on new marketing opportunities
	Erosion of market shares due to the actions of competitive destination areas
	Lack of sufficient awareness in prime markets
	Lack of a clear image of destination area in potential markets
	Lack of cooperative advertising among tourism businesses
	Inadequate capitalization of packaging opportunities
Organisational	Fragmented approach to the marketing and development of tourism, often involving "competitive" splinter groups
	Lack of cooperation among tourism businesses
	Inadequate representation of tourism's interests
	Lack of support from local government authorities
	Failure to act upon important issues, problems, and opportunities of common interest to tourism
Other	Inadequate interpretation and guiding services
	Inadequate programs of directional signs
	Lack of sufficient attractions and events
	High seasonality and short lengths of stay
	Poor or deteriorating quality of facilities and services
	Poor or inadequate travel information services

Source: Adapted from Mill and Morrison (2006: 123)

In this context, alternative tourism products often reflect unique features, authentic experiences, and a greater participation of local people in tourism businesses in comparison with mass tourism. Alternative tourism can also reduce tourism's economic leakages and increase its multiplier effects. Berkes and Ross (2013) suggest that infrastructure improvements and economic diversification can be seen as resilience-building strategies because both strengthen community adaptability. Regarding infrastructure improvements, Dwyer, Forsyth and Dwyer, (2010) identify benefits from infrastructure improvement that are related to enhancing diversity and destination resilience. This is because investment in infrastructure can help on the supply side to meet the growth of demand, the construction and operation of infrastructure can create more jobs, the infrastructure can increase supply side efficiency in distributing services and products, the tourism infrastructure assists with long-term tourism growth, and the infrastructure components are essential for overall competitiveness. These ideas are also likely to be applicable to diversification strategies.

Therefore, diversification into new tourism products can be very important to cope with changes in tourist demand and to reduce tourism seasonality (Baum and Hagen, 1999). However, Foster (2007) argues that a diversified portfolio in a region will not necessarily protect it from social or environmental shocks, but it possibly will mitigate their impacts and provide a more reliable basis for recovery.

According to Porter, *et al.*:

"It was advocated in the analysis of clusters that are less diversified, with less knowledge content and a lack of entrepreneurial dynamics may be more easily left behind in scenarios of crisis. In this way, it was evident that one of the answers towards additional economic resilience in coastal tourism is the preparation of a set of new tourism products that diversify the destination offer. We have stressed the importance of eco-tourism and cultural products as a means of exploring and exploiting new opportunities that respond to the demands of new tourists and simultaneously create a diversified product with knowledge incorporation, more value added and linked with other economic activities in the destination" (Porter, *et al.*, 2012: 18).

Diversification can also be considered as a form of risk reduction management strategy. Ansoff (1957) identifies three general categories of objectives behind diversification strategies that can be linked to the resilience concept. These are: growth objectives, which are designed to improve the balance under favourable trend conditions; stability objectives, which are designed as protection against unfavourable and foreseeable contingencies; and flexibility objectives, which strengthen the organization against unforeseeable contingencies. Thus, diversification theoretically may or may not sustain resilience based on how far diversification is able to achieve these objectives. However, risk reduction in relation to diversification can be understood based on the argument that you "don't put all your eggs in one basket". Thus, risk reduction can be achieved through developing a portfolio that combines different investment types as individual variables that may offset one another. This is applicable either on the tourism level only, or on the level of all other sectors at national level.

This suggests that economic resilience might be sustained by tourism diversification. An example of a mass diversification product is urban ecotourism, and it has been suggested that "urban ecotourism developments are more able than most to fulfil the lofty ambitions to which ecotourism operators are required to aspire" (Higham and Luck, 2002: 36). This is because the easy access in urban areas reduces the time and the costs of travelling for

ecotourism experiences, and the capacity of urban areas is greater so that ecotourism can operate all-year-round and employ permanent staff, all of which promote economic viability (Higham and Luck, 2002). Conference tourism can similarly attract large numbers of specialist interest tourists and thus promote destination economic resilience: "The conference industry is one of tourism industry's lead revenue generators for many destinations worldwide" (Odunga, *et al.*, 2011: 2).

The second type of strategy in response to the impacts of major changes or crises is adaptation strategies. These are actions that seek to secure an improved quality of experience, higher economic profits, and more sustainable development (Scott and McBoyle, 2007). Scott, *et al.* (2008) argue that a tourism recovery course after a crisis might lead to creating new relationships, and developing new business opportunities or social objectives, which had not existed before the crisis.

Some tourism products are synergetic by nature, such as wine tourism and gastro-tourism, but other tourism products might build indirect relationships, such as urban tourism and cultural tourism, and adventure tourism and cultural tourism (Csapó and Remenyik, 2011). Successful employment of synergetic relationships between tourism products as an approach of diversification might sustain destination attractiveness and competitiveness, flexibility and adaptability, help to meet a wider range of tastes, assist in creating new jobs, and encourage tourists to spend more. Thus, building and strengthening linkages between tourism products can be important for resilient tourism.

One of these adaptation strategies is clustering and diversification. Surugiu, *et al.* (2011: 67) state that, "Adaptation measures, referring especially to tourism product diversification and attracting tourists for various activities". Tourism product development in terms of diversification can compensate for declining tourist demand in off-peak seasons. For example, the diversification of mountain resorts into new tourist activities can compensate for the loss of winter tourism caused by lack of snow (Surugiu, *et al.*, 2011). Thus, tourism product diversification and clustering based on product location and thematic linkages can be a part of resilience policies. Dawley, Pike and Tomaney (2010) contend that resilience varies between, and even within, sectors within any given local or regional economy, and thus overall development policies could contribute to resilience policies.

Thematic clustering in tourism can involve collaboration and synergy between supply chain participants to develop packages that provide inclusive experiences based on market segmentation (Nordin, 2003). According to Gollub, Hosier and Woo (2004), a clustering of primary products promotes complementary linkages within tourist destinations, which in turn reduces the economic leakages. Since tourism is a vulnerable sector influenced by seasonality, climate changes and global events, then clustering can be valuable for nurturing resilience. Gollub, *et al.* (2004: 41) state that, "a cluster based economic strategy that focuses on growing a region's entire portfolio of clusters will, over time, not only contribute to building the tourism value chain but also strengthen demand through the complementary growth of other clusters". They added that a multi - cluster approach can maximize tourism's resilience for better managing the economic uncertainty within tourism and thus enhancing economic performance.

Attractions located close to each other can cluster based on their proximity and can develop synergies between them, such as by allowing them to share knowledge and new ideas about new mixes of tourist adaptable packages for competitiveness. Weidenfeld *et al.*, (2010) state that, the spatial proximity of tourist attractions can enable the attractions within the cluster to benefit from knowledge transfers, a key element in the innovation process. Those transfers can enable them to develop new flexible tourism products and marketing processes for competitiveness. However, to achieve those transfers the businesses and attractions in the tourism cluster need to cooperate rather than engage in competition (Huybers and Bennett, 2003). Ritchie and Crouch (2000) state that some tourism products tend by their nature to be in competition or to complement each other. Using the same resources without cooperation can lead to conflicts between attractions. Therefore, building the values of collaboration and partnerships can be enhanced by location proximity where attractions build linkages of compatibilities and complementarities for gaining a competitive edge.

Regarding similarity, Weidenfeld *et al.*, (2010) argue that similarity between tourist attractions is a powerful tool for sharing knowledge and innovation, which enhances compatibilities, while dissimilar attractions might be more in a complementary relationship. In relation to the concentration and diversification of tourism products, the destinations that rely on one concentrated primary tourism product are unlikely to benefit from proximity and thematic similarity/ dissimilarities because there no diversified products. This may discourage innovation and knowledge transfers, which in turn can affect the destination's

economic resilience. By contrast, destinations with more diversified tourism products are able to benefit from spatial proximity and thematic similarity and dissimilarity through their being compatible and/or complementary. These linkages can help them as collective attractions to resist new entrants and to collaborate together for competitiveness, leading to improved resilience.

Robinson and Jrive (2008) argue that the diversification of tourism products in Arugam Bay in Sri Lanka after the tsunami disaster demonstrated a successful recovery strategy. By contrast, Perrings (2006) suggests that a concentration strategy for a destination might achieve short term returns, but it may reduce the overall resilience of the system. Thus, this suggests it is often important to diversify the portfolio (Perrings, 2006).

It is obvious that mitigation and adaptation strategies for tourism destinations are mutually supporting and need to be selected and managed properly based on an understanding of primary tourism products attributes and the destination characteristics.

2.8 The Connections between Diversification and Economic Resilience

This topic concerns the theoretical relationships between tourism product diversification and destination economic resilience. There is only very limited literature which touches on the subject, but it is discussed as this subject is a major theme in the study.

Destinations often diversify their tourism products aiming to offer a wide range of flexible choices of packages that can meet a wide range and scale of tastes, thus being economically more robust or resilient. Fuentes, Ramskogler and Silgoner (2011) note that in Switzerland "the high degree of diversification in the Swiss economy and the specialization on products that are comparatively robust to cyclical fluctuations...[are] important reasons for the country's resilience to the crisis". Briguglio *et al.* (2005) state that dependence on a narrow range of exports increases vulnerability to shocks that are associated with a lack of diversification. Similarly, in the tourism sector the diversification of tourism products into high quality and differentiated, unique, and added-value experiences can be a valuable strategy to make destinations more resilient. In contrast, Udovc and Perpar (2007) state that even a high level of diversified tourist offerings is not a guarantee of systems resilience and robustness. This might imply that tourism product diversification in its own right, as an inherent feature, is not sufficient to secure destination economic resilience, so that it may

need to be combined with the building of clusters and synergies between tourism products and attractions to be attributed with adaptability. These synergies could help with spill-over skills and knowledge at a low cost and could help tourism developers to develop higher quality products that could attract and satisfy a wider range of markets, and thus could lead to improved resilience. Thus, inherent and adaptive features are crucially important to enhancing the economic resilience for a tourist destination.

Tourism product diversification can also minimise the influence of seasonality. For example, the development of festivals and events may increase visitation in low periods (Goulding, Baum and Morrison, 2004) and it may attract different and new markets (Jang, 2004). Thus, it may help to reduce negative seasonality effects on employment and the destination economy (Lee, *et al.*, 2008).

2.9 Conclusion

The chapter reviewed groups of relevant literature, and through that it identified key ideas in this field of study. The literature that was reviewed covered: tourism products, tourism product development, tourism product diversification, tourist destination economic resilience, and the connections between diversification and economic resilience. The reviews identified gaps in the literature and there was discussion of potential new connections and ideas to fill those gaps. The study subsequently develops these ideas further and it does so through developing frameworks that helped to accomplish the study's objectives.

The literature indicates that primary tourism products are the main factors that motivate and attract tourists to travel to one destination over another. Destinations that offer a sufficient range of diversified tourism products are potentially more competitive in tourism markets. Diversification strategies for tourism products can be achieved by developing entirely new tourism products and also by connecting the existed products in ways that increase their flexibility and adaptability. The literature suggested that such features can be enhanced through collaboration and synergies based on location proximity and thematic similarity and dissimilarity between primary tourism products, which in turn can promote their complementarities and compatibilities. Collaboration and synergy relationships can help tourism products to resist or adapt to changes, making the economy of the destination more resilient. These issues are not extensively discussed in the literature, and instead they are

often only touched upon as parts of other discussions and often only in incidental ways. Moreover, the topics in the literature reviewed here are not consistently linked together. This chapter brought these topics together and sought to establish links between them based on the limited relevant literature that is available. Thus, this study seeks to fill the gaps about the concentration and diversification of tourism products and about how that influences tourist destination economic resilience.

Chapter 3 : The Frameworks

3.1 Introduction

The research focuses on primary tourism product concentration and diversification and the relationships between diversified primary tourism products and whether they promote destination economic resilience. The major focus was on examining the tourism product aspects and slightly less focus was put on the consequences of this for resilience. To accomplish this aim, three theoretical conceptual frameworks are developed in this study. The first is a general overall framework (Figure 3.1), while the second (Figure 3.2) and the third (Figure 3.3) are more specific and relate to key issues in the general framework. Thus, this chapter presents in an order according to their development stages the frameworks that were developed in this research, explaining why and how they were developed and applied. These three frameworks and the empirical primary findings from their application are key contributions to knowledge of this research. In deductive research, the reasoning works from general to more specific, starting with developing a theory around a specific issue. Gilbert (2001: 6) states that "a theory highlights and explains something that one would otherwise not see, or would find puzzling". According to Miles and Huberman (1994: 18), "a conceptual framework explains, either graphically or in narrative form [diagrams are much preferred], the main things to be studied - the key factors, constructs or variables - and the presumed relationships among them".

Thinking about the research issues related to primary tourism products, the concepts of concentration, diversification and tourist destination economic resilience encouraged the researcher to be selective in his reading of relevant literature. That helped him to identify the important ideas that guide the frameworks so as to answer the study's research question (Marshall and Rossman, 1999, Maxwell, 2008). The moderate amount of relevant literature in tourism was combined with literature from other disciplines in a deductive start to the research process in order to develop the study's general framework, shown in Figure 3.1. This highlights the main dimensions necessary to be examined in order to address the study's research question. And the next two more specific frameworks (Figures 3.2, 3.3) were based on specific aspects of the dimensions and relationships shown in Figure 3.1. These three frameworks were developed starting from the general framework and ending with the related specific ones, and all three were important to address the study's research objectives.

3.2 The First Framework

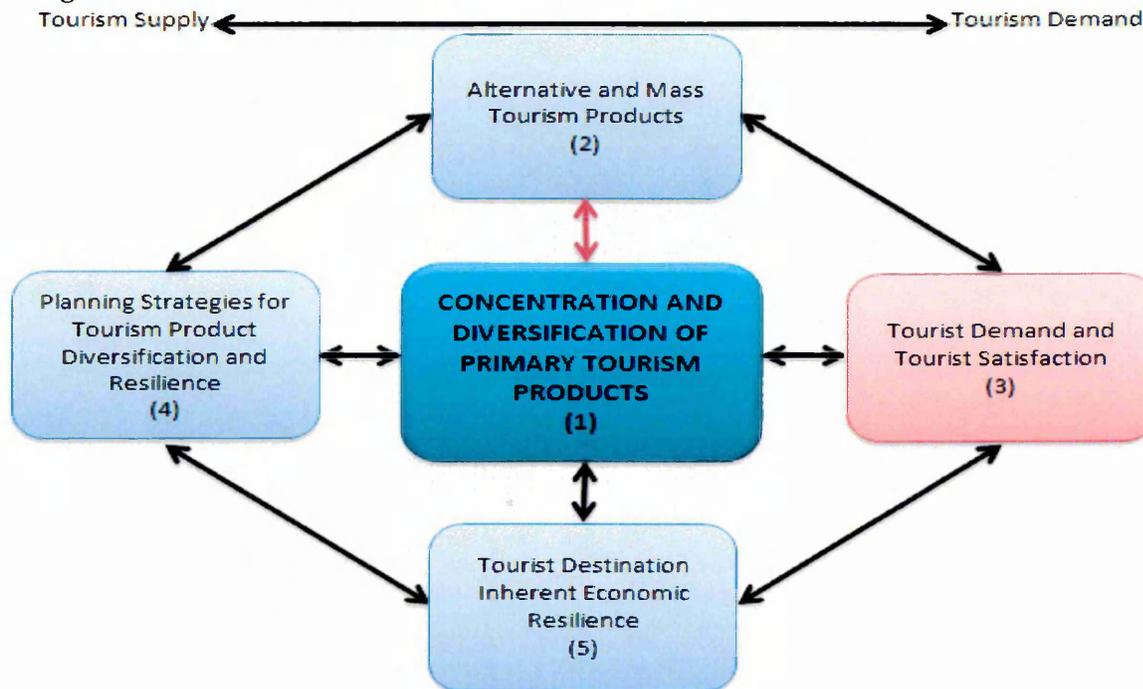
The first framework is an overall, integrating framework, shown in Figure 3.1, connecting the study's different elements. It was intended to be a very general and loose framework because this area of research is still new, there is only a moderate amount of directly relevant literature, and all elements needed to be brought together in a way that did not pre-determine the results. It was developed by the author based on ideas and issues that emerged from the literature reviewed in Chapter Two. Developing a broad framework was also intended to allow it to be applicable and relevant for consideration by a range of other researchers. The concepts of concentration and diversification of tourism products are the focal point of the framework as they are considered key domains of tourism product development. It was empirically examined and evaluated subsequently through collecting largely qualitative data from fieldwork in the study's two case study areas in Libya.

3.2.1 Background to the First Framework

The first framework (Figure 3.1) is quite general in that it brings together issues and processes considered important in order to help in delivering the study's aim and objectives of the study. It seeks to assist in developing a clear understanding of tourism products in tourist destinations and of the extent of their product concentration or diversification, with these shown as the central box in Figure 3.1. It is intended to help to establish whether there is an appropriate mix and range of products in order to satisfy tourist requirements, to retain them in the destination for long enough to increase the economic returns, and to provide an economically resilient tourist destination. It seeks to help in assessments as to whether the concentrated or diversified tourist products in a destination are compatible with each other and support each other, and whether concentrated or diversified products promote destination economic resilience. It is important to specify here that this research focuses on the primary tourism products – that is, the products providing the major pull in motivating tourists to visit the destination because it is “worth a visit” (Weaver and Lawton, 2006; Jansen-Verbeke, 1986; Bramwell, 1989). Primary tourism products can include cultural, natural, sport and amusement facilities, and physical and socio-cultural features that make destinations attractive to tourists. The secondary and conditional tourism products are those required to support the attractiveness of the primary tourism products. The criterion used to differentiate primary tourism products from other tourism products is its potential to attract tourists. It is evident, however, that some secondary products can become primary products, such as shopping in Hong Kong and Singapore (Hsieh and Chang, 2006).

Therefore, this research considered some apparently secondary tourism products as primary ones because they were seen to play a significant role in drawing some tourists to the destination.

Figure 3-1: The General Framework



Source: developed by the author

Tourism product development in a destination can be described in different ways, such as in terms of the scale, specialism or diversity of product development, whether large or small, mass or alternative/niche, or concentrated or diversified (Bramwell, 2004; Weaver, 2000). A concentrated pattern of destination tourism products is considered to involve a primary tourism product portfolio that focuses on just one or a very small number of primary tourist products at a destination, whether used by large or small numbers of tourists. An example of a concentrated tourism product in a destination might be coastal tourism in Portugal's Algarve (Simões and Ferreira, 2012). It is concentrated because it depends only on the beauty of sun, sand, and sea to attract tourists, with few influential additional draws, and thus too it is usually a seasonal product. By contrast, diversified tourism products in a destination concern a broader or more extensive range of products, perhaps involving a highly varied product portfolio (Agarwal, 2002). A case would be Malaga in Spain, which diversified into cultural tourism by opening a Picasso Museum and contemporary arts centre, and with the city's archaeological features also helping to increase tourist demand and to reduce seasonality (Fernandez-Morales, 2003).

For this study, the focus on concentration and diversification, which is at the centre of Figure 3.1, is on the range of primary tourism products. This study is also concerned with the relationships between the diversified tourism products in a destination in terms of whether there are compatible and complementary linkages between these products, such as whether tourists use the whole mix of products or select only some of them that match their interests. Consideration is also given to whether these features help to sustain the destination's economic resilience, an element presented as the lower box in Figure 3.1.

Only economic aspects of tourist destination resilience were examined in the study. However, tourist destination resilience is a broad concept that includes socio-cultural, economic, and environmental dimensions. Together these encompass a very widely drawn view of resilience, which is necessary and important for a full understanding. The breadth of issues included in the resilience concept, however, would have created difficulties for the present research, given the necessary limits of time and resources. Consequently, this research was focused only on the elements of economic resilience. This is because economic resilience is often vital for the dynamic growth and competitiveness of a destination. Thus, the study focused more specifically on what is a good mix of diversified primary tourism products, and what are effective relationships between them, that support the economic resilience of tourism in a destination in the long term.

The relationships between tourism products could demonstrate whether or not the products and their associated inter-relationships tend to promote a resilient tourism economy for a destination (the lower box in Figure 3.1). Diversification as a strategy for product development may help to sustain economic resilience. Fuentes, Ramskogler and Silgoner, (2011: 67), for example, argue that "The key factors in explaining Switzerland's resilience to the crises are the country's high degree of economic diversification and its specialisation on/in products that are fairly robust to cyclical fluctuations". This could mean that diversification and the attributes of diversified products are two important dimensions to sustain resilience. This understanding is applicable to the tourism domain since tourism product diversification offers a wider range of products that can meet a wider range of tourists' needs. Moreover, building synergies through collaborative relationships between diversified tourism products can support long term adaptability and competitiveness, leading to better resilience. Salvado (2011) states that collaborative networks and information exchanges have increased the productivity of Portugal's tourism, providing sustainable competitive advantages.

Tourists are becoming more sophisticated regarding the tourism product features they require, often being attracted to destinations offering a good range of quality products that are associated with a unique and strong image, a high quality authentic experience, and value for money (Cohen, 2008). These features of tourism products can be linked to success in destination development strategies that also have relatively few negative impacts. The impacts of tourism development, either negative or positive, affect the destination's economy (Ardahaey, 2011), community culture (Spanou, 2007) and environment. Positive or sustainable impacts from tourism product development might nurture the capacity of the destination to adapt to the increasingly sophisticated requirements of tourists and to changing market demands, thus enhancing overall destination resilience. The pressure of these impacts is largely influenced by the development strategies, whether they are focused more on concentration or diversification. Xi and Wei (2010: 131) argue that "diversification is obviously important when Macau encountered the financial crisis". Thus, diversification can lead to long term competitiveness and thus better resilience.

3.2.2 Details of the First Framework

There is now a more detailed explanation of the different elements of the general framework shown in Figure 3.1, including of the topics in the boxes.

The horizontal line at the top represents the relationship between tourist demand and tourism supply, as essential basic components in the tourism system that need integrating when planning tourism product development. Matching and balancing tourist demand and tourism supply sides is crucial for tourism development in a destination, and this can be achieved through a number of strategies, such as by diversifying into more tourism products to meet the increased demand or reducing the number of tourists to maintain quality measures (Weaver and Lawton, 2006). Thus, this framework is consistent with balancing demand and supply side issues and concepts.

The study's focus is on the mix of products in terms of product concentration and diversification, so this is placed in the centre of the Figure 3.1. This box is surrounded by, and interconnected with, all the related issues considered in the study. The framework shows the relationships between all these components as reciprocal in terms of causal relationships, and this is represented through the use of bi-directional arrows. The diagram

highlights the five key components affecting the impact of product concentration and diversification on tourist destination resilience, and it also importantly looks at the critical linkages between these five components.

In order to address the research objectives and to apply the general framework subsequently in the study, the concepts behind each component are discussed next, together with selected practical issues around their application in the study. Each concept and related box is explained in turn, following the numbering system shown on the boxes in Figure 3.1

Box 1 in Figure 3.1 Concentration and Diversification of Primary Tourism Products

As discussed previously, the concentration and diversification of primary tourism products in a tourist destination is the central concern of the study and thus it is placed in the centre of the diagram in Box 1. Product concentration involves a focus on only one or a select few primary products at a destination. Consequently, there is a very limited offering, potentially representing a high degree of inflexibility and fixed packages rather than a range of offerings. The patterns of consumption could involve a few alternative tourist products consumed by a small number of visitors, and over time these might develop into mass tourism products, with this pattern seen in some coastal and urban tourism destinations. With concentration on a few tourism products in the destination the potential for customisation to the specific needs of tourists may be relatively limited due to the lack of a diverse product mix. The rigidity of the product portfolio, due to the lack of options, could increase the economic vulnerability of tourism in the destination in the face of fluctuations in tourist demand and of the increasing sophistication of tourists that increasingly demand more customised products, improved experiences and added value. These are important issues for tourism product development, highlighting the need to connect Box 1 with Box 4, which concerns the tourist destination's planning strategies, including the strategies to develop more flexible quality products, such as alternative tourism in addition to mass tourism.

Diversified products in a destination could offer a range of products to meet and satisfy various types of tourists, and the greater flexibility then allows tourists to select their own packages. The diversified products could involve developing new, large - scale products for specialised but large markets, such as golf courses, casinos and exhibitions and

conference events, or developing alternative small - scale tourism products that have more unique attributes, for instance attractions that draw on historical features or the ecology of an area (Bramwell, 2004).

In this context, diversified tourism products can enhance their attractiveness through their compatibility with each other in terms of their mutual attraction to specific new market segments. Indeed, compatibility between tourist products can be enhanced through various strategies. One is to establish clustering between the products on the basis of the theme or their geographical or spatial proximity (Weidenfeld, *et al.*, 2010). Clustering could enhance the synergetic relationships between products within the cluster, such as through better coordination and cooperation between them, so that they complement each other rather than conflict with each other. The complementary nature of the relationships between products might be enhanced through the development of secondary products that enhance the appeal of the primary tourism products (Dredge, 1999).

Box 2 in Figure 3.1 Alternative and Mass Tourism Products

The framework considers next the issues around alternative and mass tourism products, as this theme is very closely connected to the issues around tourism product concentration and diversification. While concentration and diversification relate to the range or diversity of all the primary tourism products in a destination, the concepts of alternative and mass products relate to the scale of the production and the scale of consumption of each product in the place. For example, tourism products that are produced to be consumed by mass numbers of tourists, such as beach resorts and shopping, can be labelled as mass tourism products irrespective of whether they are concentrated on one tourism product or diversified into many tourism products. In contrast, alternative tourism products are those produced to be consumed by niche markets or special interest tourists, such as wild tourism, scuba diving, and cultural tourism products, irrespective of whether they are concentrated on one tourism product or diversified into many tourism products.

In this study mass tourism products are considered to be the primary tourism products at a destination that are visited by large number of tourists, and that involve large-scale production or provision of the product. The large scale of the associated tourist activity may lead to the development of much tourist accommodation and even to “resort” features. The quality of the mass products might or might not be low, depending on the product

attributes, patterns of product use, and the effectiveness of control and regulation. These relationships are not pre-determined, but large-scale tourism can increase the risks of tourist destination decline resulted from passing various thresholds, with tourist dissatisfaction leading them to choose competitors (Butler 2011). But good regulation and planning can avoid these features.

Mass products might be associated with the potential for either inflexible or flexible package content. The former is associated with the tourist demand being concentrated in specific periods of the year, such as during warm weather seasons in coastal areas, or in specific places, as seen in the physical concentration in urban areas or zones within urban areas. This concentration may lead to problems of a lack of control of the number of visitors, a lack of appropriate planning, and deficient infrastructural facilities (Bramwell, 2004), and the resulting dissatisfied tourists and falling tourist demand can lead to destination decline. By contrast, flexible tourist packages can still occur with mass products. This can be referred to as mass diversification, such as seen in some forms of urban ecotourism that have high capacity (Weaver, 2005). According to Weaver (2005), urban ecotourism demonstrates the capacity for mass tourism to be environmentally friendly, because of the associated significant economic returns and the potential for quality control applications in restricted areas. This means diversified mass tourism products may be effective at meeting changes in tourist demand.

By contrast, alternative products attract small numbers of tourists, and have limited scales of development or provision. This form of product development may occur because the destination is still in an “exploration” stage of development, or because the destination has a low capacity. Alternative products are linked to a small scale of development, but they may also be associated with a wide range and mix of products in terms of product diversification. They may also be characterised by a high level of flexibility in terms of prices and package content, quality product and product uniqueness, and image and authenticity. These important features of the tourism product may be affected by the planning and management strategies in the destination, with these activities potentially taking into account the tourists’ needs and expectations. Conversely, an alternative product in a tourist destination can involve concentration on just one product that receives a small number of tourists.

The successful matching and packaging of products in a tourist destination should be based on a good understanding of the potential characteristics of the products and of tourist requirements. Thus, in one destination the combination of mass and alternative tourist products can offer a strong range of products that could be wrapped in various offerings to meet the individual needs of many tourists. Mass and alternative products can be introduced to complement each other in a destination, such as where tourists visiting a place primarily to experience mass products are given opportunities to experience alternative products. This can be seen in tourist resorts in Kenya where the tourists can also experience ecotourism products, although these too may become mass tourism in the wildlife safari areas of Kenya (Weaver, 2001), and similar relationships are seen in Phuket in Southern Thailand (Kontogeorgopoulos, 2009). This compatibility between mass and alternative products can create an overall tourist destination image that influences the overall pattern and level of tourist demand and customer satisfaction.

The scale of the development of tourist products – whether mass or alternative – may or may not evolve through deliberate policy decisions and regulation by government. In many cases it is the private sector, mostly for their own economic reasons, that plays a crucial role in shaping and delivering the form of tourism, with government intervention and regulation often playing a relatively minor role. Consequently, the regulation variable in Weaver's (2000) broad context model of destination development scenarios, which was discussed in the literature review, is not necessarily required for tourism development to take place. Instead, tourism development might be shaped in different forms partly or completely through private sector efforts and interests. This limitation in Weaver's model encouraged the development of a new framework of tourism product development in destinations, which is shown in Figure 3.2, and this framework is discussed following the explanation of the other boxes in the overall framework.

Box 3 in Figure 3.1 Tourist Demand and Tourists' Satisfaction

Tourist demand and tourists' satisfaction, shown in box 3, are key influences on tourism product development. For this study tourist demand is understood in terms of the volumes of tourist arrivals and the tourists' motivations and expectations in relation to specific and also combined tourism products in a destination (Page and Connell, 2006). This is related in particular to, first, product attractiveness; second, product availability; and, third, accessibility.

First, the attractiveness of the product may be based on its unique features that could provide valued experiences for the tourist. Second, availability can involve whether there is an adequate mix of primary attractions. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) consider the availability or the abundance of tourism products as a comparative advantage that could include the naturally occurring as well as created resources. Availability is an important factor that could affect the ability of the product to draw visitors and it depends on quality, quantity, diversity, uniqueness, and image (Weaver and Lawton, 2006; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). Deficiencies in availability can directly affect the size of tourist demand.

Third, accessibility is understood in terms of whether there is an adequate supply of easy entry visa, information, communication, accommodation, and the means of transportation in terms of the proximity of the tourist destination for the tourists. Accessibility is a key factor influencing the volume of tourist consumption.

Tourist satisfaction can be related to the specific context of the tourist product. It involves consideration of tourists' attitudes and perspectives about the product mix, quality, and image, added value in relation to price, value for learning, experience, and the extent to which these products could meet their expectations.

There are several benefits of assessing tourist demand for, and tourists' attitudes to, primary tourism products, whether alternative or mass products, and their patterns of consuming these products. It assists with understanding tourists' satisfaction and in developing typologies of tourism products and of the linkages between them. It also helps to reveal whether the tourism products, the linkages between them, and the compatibility, synergies, and complementarities between them, are likely to promote flexibility and adaptability to meet current and future tastes. This affects the products' ability to resist decline, and thus influencing the economic resilience of the destination. The type of products provided must meet the tourists' expectations and requirements – as seen in tourist satisfaction. Destination planners and management must also understand tourists' requirements and develop appropriate policies in relation to product innovation, prices, and product mix, and also strategies to adapt to changes in tourist requirements and volumes or to mitigate the consequences of those changes.

Box 4 in Figure 3.1 Planning Strategies for Tourism Product Diversification and Resilience

Box 4 relates to the planning strategies for product diversification and resilience that could be developed based on an understanding of tourist demand and tourist satisfaction (Bramwell, 1998) as well as of characteristics of the destination products. These strategies need to match tourism supply with tourist demand. However, these relationships between demand and supply are not static and they change over time due to the influence of diverse internal and external factors relevant to the tourism sector. Thus, planning strategies for tourism product development should incorporate flexibility so that they can adapt to the forces of change. Policies need to incorporate government, tourism industry and community attitudes to tourist product development.

The planning strategies for product diversification and resilience might relate to creating new primary tourism products or to establishing better coordination between these products in order to promote product compatibility. Other policies might relate to planning for diversification of the destination products, through developing alternative products, such as rural tourism, ecotourism, and hiking tourism. Alternative product development may require infrastructure improvements and large investments, perhaps because of problems of the spatial and seasonal spread of tourism. One issue to consider in strategies for new product development is whether the tourists put together their own packages of tourism products or whether this is done by tour operators and other industry professionals.

The strategies for product diversification and resilience may also consider whether the products complement each other or conflict with each other. Whether they complement each other may well reflect the flexibility of the marketing and packages, the networking and the clusters among the products in the destination. A diversification strategy, in terms of offering a range of alternative products, could complement mass tourism (Brohman, 1996). And also this diversification could encompass various tourists' requirements through the creation of customized products.

Fluctuations in tourist demand and the changeability of tourist satisfaction increases uncertainty and the vulnerability of a tourist destination. Therefore, developing a range of offerings for tourists based on their requirements could reduce vulnerability and increase the product and destination resilience. In this context, resilience can be defined as the

ability of the tourism destination products to maintain their attraction for tourists, to adapt to changes in demand and tourist satisfaction, and to avoid any deterioration of product image and attractiveness. Resilience can be nurtured through creating new tourist products and innovating with various new tourist packages. This may require coordination and cooperation relationships between these products in order to enhance the compatibility between them, thereby increasing the destination's flexibility to respond efficiently to decline.

Box 5 in Figure 3.1 Tourist Destination Inherent Economic Resilience

Resilience is a relatively new concept within the field of tourism research. The notion of tourist destination resilience, as stated earlier, is a very broad concept that encompasses environmental, socio-cultural and economic resilience. To give this study of tourism product diversification more focus and depth of analysis it focuses only on the inherent economic resilience of tourist destinations. The focus on economic resilience was taken because it is often the economy that underpins the dynamics of a successful tourist development.

The study also only focuses on the inherent economic resilience of a tourist destination, as shown in Box 5, this being a concept based on the inherent capacities of a destination to resist and cope with the forces and dynamics of change in normal times. The inherent capacity of the individual tourism products to cope with changes under normal conditions ("inherent resilience") is related to the product features. The reasons why only inherent resilience was explored in detail are explained subsequently in Section 3.4. By contrast, the tourism product's capacity to cope with crises and to bounce back and function again arises from its "adaptive resilience", and this adaptive resilience often depends on the efforts exerted to enable the product to cope and bounce back (Rose, 2004). However, a system can bounce forward after crises since risk-taking can bring rewards as "adjusting to changing circumstances and learning from experience have always been part of human development" (Manyena, *et al.*, 2011: 415). The forces of change can include alterations in the level of demand for the tourism product, and shifts in tourist satisfaction with the product's availability, accessibility, safety, and affordability (in terms of reduction in costs and prices, money exchange, product image, tourism facilities and service quality, range of offerings, and uniqueness of the products). These are linked to the preparedness attributes

of the tourism products and tourism industry as well as to the tourist expectations and requirements.

The concepts of “inherent resilience” and of “adaptive resilience” (Rose, 2004) of the destination product can be seen alongside the concept of product diversification as powerful tools in order to understand the capacity of tourism products in destinations to respond to the forces of change and crisis. They can also assist with the planning strategies in tourism destinations. Thus, for example, it may be possible to sell diversified tourism products within flexible offerings in order to meet the needs of individual tourists and also in order to complement other products on the basis of proximity and similarity and complementarities in order to add value to the tourist experience.

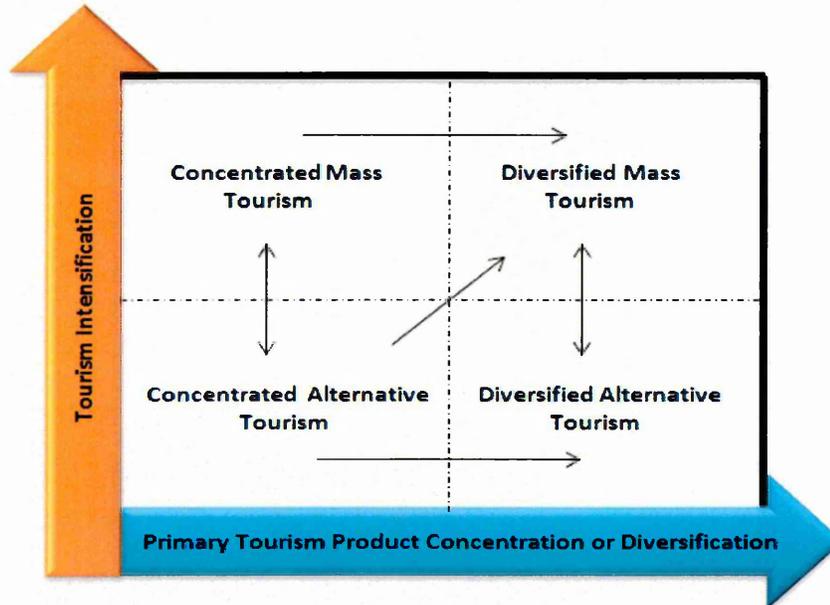
It can be concluded that the resilience of a destination can be fostered by appropriate planning strategies for product development, such as through product diversification, but it can also be influenced by customer demand and satisfaction, such as in relation to the mix of mass or alternative products in the destination. Thus, the economic resilience of a tourism destination can differ from place to place, based for example on the inherent and adaptive features in relation to the extent of tourism product concentration or diversification.

In sum, the general framework was designed based on broad concepts derived from the literature associated with the concentration and diversification of tourism products, and tourist destination economic resilience, and related general issues. The general character of the framework is advantageous for its wider application. The general framework informed the study’s research design in terms of helping to assess and refine the goals, developing the research questions, selecting the specific research methodology, applying the research in the field work, and organising the findings chapters of the thesis. Thus, the findings chapters were divided into three connected chapters, with each focused on specific issues in the general framework. The first findings chapter concerns the concepts of primary tourism products, the second focuses on the patterns of concentrated and diversified products and their relationships, and the third findings chapter focuses on destination economic resilience in the light of the previous findings.

3.3 The Second Framework

This framework, presented in Figure 3.2, was developed for a specific key part of the general framework. It focuses on relationships between the concentration and diversification of tourism products (as presented in Box 1 in Figure 3.1) and alternative and mass tourism products (as presented by Box 2 in Figure 3.1). Thus, the second framework arises from the general framework and it is a framework that other researchers doing research in the specific areas of tourism product characteristics could use.

Figure 3-2: Framework of Tourism Product Development in Destinations



Source: Developed by the author based on Weaver's model (2000)

It was developed deductively based on ideas in relevant literature concerning primary tourism product development in terms of concentration and diversification, and alternative and mass tourism products. It was also developed based on ideas from the tourism destination life cycle model developed by Butler (1980) and the broad context model of destination development scenarios developed by Weaver (2000), but from the angle of scale of diversification and scale in the use of primary tourism products. It was used to assess relationships between concentrated and diversified primary tourism products in terms of synergies, compatibilities and complementarities, and conflicts and competition in relation to spatial proximity and thematic similarities and dissimilarities, and whether these features sustain the attractiveness of these products. This framework was used to structure many of the interview themes and questions as well as the structure of the findings

chapters. It was empirically evaluated in this study using the data collected and analysed in the findings chapters.

This is a more specific framework of primary tourism product development in destinations than the general one. It is based on two scales. The first scale concerns whether primary tourism products in a destination are concentrated or diversified, and the second concerns the intensification of the development and use of the destination's tourism products, specifically whether they are alternative or mass tourism products. Thus the two scales link together the concentration and diversification of tourist products in the destination, as presented in Box 1 in Figure 3.1, with the scale of the tourism product production and consumption in the destination, ranging from alternative to mass tourism products, as presented in Box 2 in Figure 3.1. Thus, it flows directly from specific aspects of the general framework.

This second framework, of tourism product development in destinations, shown in Figure 3.2, as mentioned already, is based on combining two scales of variability in the attributes of tourism products in destinations: first, variation in the intensity of the scale of the tourism products and of tourist use of the products (on the vertical axis on a scale from alternative to mass); and, second, variation in the degree of concentration or diversification in the tourism product in terms of the number of tourism products offered for tourists during their visit to a certain destination (on the horizontal axis on a scale from concentration to diversified).

This framework of potential tourist destination development situations and development scenarios was influenced by Weaver's (2000) broad context model of destination development scenarios that was reviewed in the literature review (Figures 2.3 and 2.4). But this framework is somewhat different, in five key ways.

First, Weaver's model focuses on how regulation by government alters tourism destination development, in terms of government control of tourist numbers and of the quality of the destination products. This focus on regulation in destination development is important. But from another perspective, Weaver's model does not take sufficient account of how a great deal of tourism development occurs in destination areas without government regulation, because in reality the private sector often plays the most substantial role. Second, Weaver's model might be taken to imply that, if there are no regulations in the destination, then there

might be no tourism development, and of course this is unlikely when the private sector often has the capacity to prompt development due to its financial resources and know-how. This does not deny the importance of government regulation; rather it simply highlights how development can take place independently of regulation. Third, regulation is a dependent variable, because the effectiveness of regulation depends on the factors of commitment, awareness of all the tourism actors, and of the ability of these regulations to meet local people needs and to address environmental issues. This means that good regulations might fail to achieve successful or sustainable development if stakeholders' interests are not incorporated or if the regulations are not properly implemented.

Fourth, this framework focuses on primary tourism products as the key influence on tourism development, and also on two key dimensions of their development. On the supply side this concerns whether there is a pattern of concentrated or diversified development, and on the demand side this concerns whether the products are characterised by alternative or mass forms of consumption. It looks at these dimensions rather than, like Weaver, focusing on the trajectories of development based on the scale of government intervention in relation to sustainability. The proposed framework here might be a more practical framework for those concerned with tourism development, particularly in developing countries where government regulation often lags behind the rapid growth of tourism and where there is more focus on economic returns than on sustainable development (Dabour, 2003; Panakera, *et al.*, 2011).

Fifth, the present framework assists in considering the conflicts and/or synergies in product development based on spatial proximity and thematic linkages between diversified tourism products. Such patterns of compatibilities and complementarities can be reinforced through spatial clustering and network building. These interrelationships are more likely to be built between diversified tourism products, whether alternative or mass tourism in form, rather than between concentrated alternative or mass products. This could offer greater flexibility and adaptability for diversified tourism products to meet sophisticated tastes. Thus, the framework might suggest implications for resilience from product diversification, suggesting that resilience should be integrated in tourism product development strategies.

The framework of tourism products and destination development in Figure 3.2 focuses more directly on the tourism product characteristics, and in particular on the primary

products since they are the main pull motivating tourists to travel to one destination rather than another.

Within the framework the arrows do not represent inevitable directions of temporal movement in terms of tourism product characteristics. Instead, they merely indicate possible directions of movement in relation to the two extremes of, first, product concentration and diversification; and, second, of the scale of product production and consumption from alternative to mass. These product features can happen with or without government intervention and regulation, with regulation seen as only one of several influences on product development patterns. Moreover, the dotted lines in the framework indicate that there are no clear cut boundaries between tourism product development scenarios so that various patterns of development can be found at the same time in a specific destination, and also that transitions from one state to another do not happen overnight, but rather they usually take a significant time. Further, the tourism products may differ in their speed and direction of change, and this influences their adaptation capacity, which in turn is likely to influence the economic resilience of tourist destinations.

The principles behind the framework are that the main attraction motivating tourists to visit a tourist destination is its primary tourism products, with these characterised on scales from concentration to diversification and also alternative to mass. The framework in Figure 3.2 presents four different situations that may characterise a destination based on these principles.

The situation labelled “concentrated alternative tourism” represents a destination with one or just a few primary products that attract a fairly small number of tourists. This form of development may not be able to achieve substantial economic benefits in terms of tourism receipts and jobs. It is quite similar to the level of destination development at Butler's (1980) exploration stage of destination development, when it is suggested that adventure tourists as individuals come to discover and explore these areas. At this point the adventure tourists may more fully engage with local people and make only a modest impact on the overall destination. In addition, there is no necessity that there is compatibility between these few primary products. Compatibility as mentioned previously can be understood as the effect of one primary product upon another due to place proximity, similarities or dissimilarities or complementarities, and measured by the number of tourists shared by the attractions (Weidenfeld *et al.*, 2010: 2). With “concentrated alternative tourism” tourists

may not stay long because they may be very limited in what they can do and see based on their own specialist interests. Tourists might be individuals or very small groups. Therefore, this form of product development may not nurture destination economic resilience and it may not be able to adapt to changing demand.

“Concentrated mass tourism” involves a destination attracting tourists travelling in large numbers, whether as individuals or groups, for the destination’s single or limited number of primary tourism products. When there is a very limited range of tourism products there is product inflexibility. The physical development of secondary and conditional products (Jansen-Verbeke, 1986) in “concentrated mass tourism” destinations is often rapid around the single or few primary tourism products, and it often involves accommodation, transportation and leisure facilities. The quality of the tourism products may be low due to mass production and consumption features concentrated on one or a very few products. The economic multiplier may also be low due to significant economic leakages through international tour operators and international chain hotel companies. Further, in relation to economic resilience this form of destination may no longer be able to meet the increasingly sophisticated needs of tourists if the few products are inflexible and of low quality.

“Diversified alternative tourism” occurs when a destination has a range of primary attractions that are each worth a visit for tourists, but the attractions are visited by relatively small numbers of tourists. The small numbers may be due to government regulation, a lack of sufficient infrastructure (such as good roads and transportation facilities), the spread or diffusion of tourism over a very large area, or a lack of investment in reasonable accommodation, and each of these might hinder the mass use of the primary products. However, with diversified alternative tourism, tourists may experience a more broadly-based mix of product packages. These products may be characterised by a degree of compatibility due to theme similarity, proximity or complementariness. These relationships between primary products can enhance the growth of the destination and can increase tourist satisfaction. On the other hand, this form of development might fail to meet the varied interests of the diverse stakeholders because the product quality might not be high enough. For example, this may not satisfy the tourists because of infrastructure problems or compatibility problems due to the low quality of supplementary products. Rather differently, tourist satisfaction can be high due to the high flexibility of the packages that allow for customization (Lee, Chang and Chen, 2011), and the products may support each other due to the synergy relationships between them (Weidenfeld *et al.*,

2010). In economic terms, this type of product development may not be able to achieve large and quick economies of scale compared with mass tourism, but its advantages of quality and flexibility may be more important for the destination (Christou, 2012). In the context of resilience, this form of development could have good overall resilience for the destination due to the complementary relations between the products that can promote synergies and clustering strategies that may offer better flexibility in the face of shocks and possible decline.

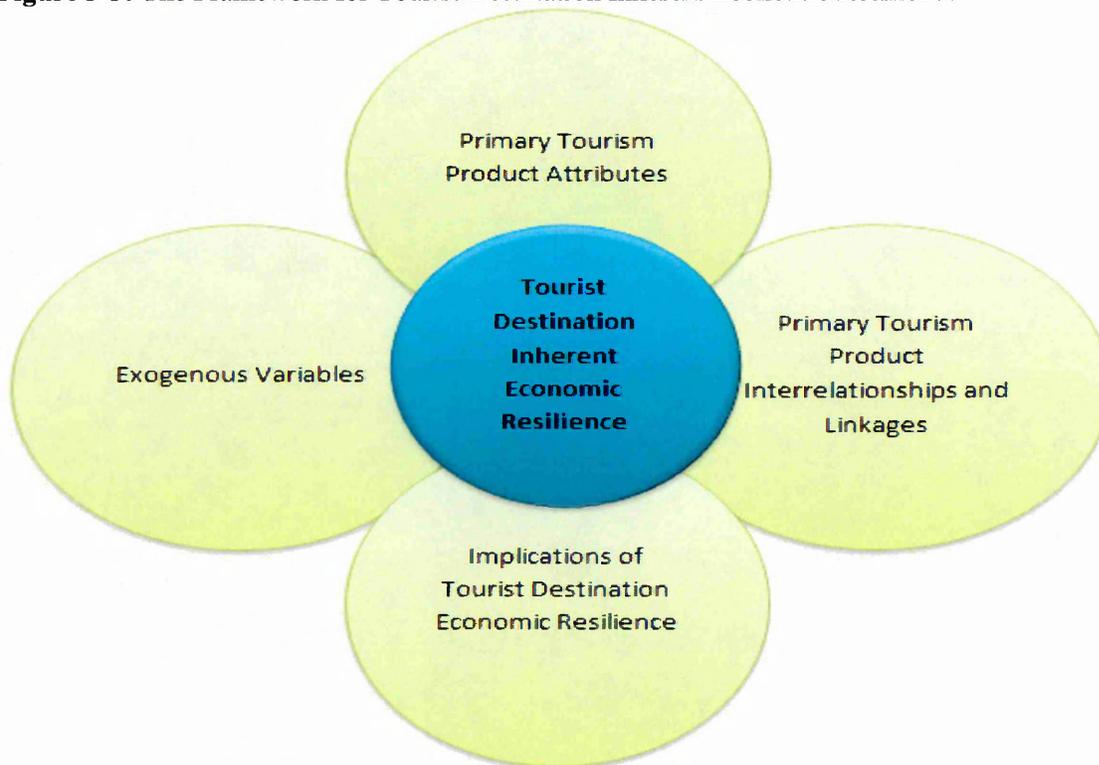
“Diversified mass tourism” occurs where there is a relatively broad range of primary products visited by large numbers of tourists. This form of tourism development is often evident in large cities, such as London and Rome, which have quite diverse types of primary attractions that are the main motivators for tourists to travel there. The compatibility determinants are there in terms of adjacent attractions and complementarities. Also, it seems in such areas the development of infrastructure and tourism supplementary and supporting products are often well established, but that can affect prices and environmental quality. It might be the case that the most suitable example of a diversified mass tourist destination is an ecotourism destination which achieves economies of scale as well as a suitable level of quality (Weaver, 2001). Ecotourism can be offered to the large numbers of tourists at mass beach tourist resorts or cities so that they can see and learn about the natural attractions. In terms of resilience, this form of destination development may require substantial amounts of investment, strong quality control and appropriate management as well as a richness of primary products that may not be available for some places. However, this form of destination may be highly vulnerable due to the crowds of tourists that could accelerate damage to the tourism product and its image of uniqueness.

In sum, the second framework has been explained. It was developed by adapting some ideas from the model developed by Weaver (2000), but differently so as to present the patterns of primary tourism product development based on relationships between concentrated and diversified developments and also between alternative and mass tourism products. Four potential development scenarios resulted from the relationships. The framework also suggests there can be relationships between tourism products based on synergies or conflicts that could influence the adaptability and flexibility of the products and potentially also the destination’s economic resilience.

3.4 The Third Framework

This generic framework, shown in Figure 3.3, considers tourist destinations' inherent economic resilience. This is considered a key part of the general framework, as presented in Box 5 in Figure 3.1, which focuses on the concentration and diversification of tourism products (Box 1 in Figure 3.1). Economic resilience is defined as "the policy-induced ability of an economy to withstand or recover from the effects of such shocks" (Briguglio, *et al.*, 2008: 1). The third generic framework is diagrammatically and conceptually linked to both the general framework (Figure 3.1) and the second framework (Figure 3.2).

Figure 3-3: The Framework for Tourist Destination Inherent Economic Resilience



Source: Developed by the author

Again, the third generic framework was developed deductively based on the literature, in this case concerning tourism and economic resilience of relevance and links to the concentration and diversification of primary tourism products and their linkages. Thus, all three frameworks were developed in relation to the concepts of tourism product concentration and diversification, thus they are strongly interconnected. Again this third framework helped to structure the analysis and presentation of the findings, in this case notably in Chapter Eight. It is intended as a theoretical framework for examining the inherent economic resilience rather than adaptive resilience of tourist destinations.

The concepts of inherent and adaptive economic resilience were recognised from the literature, but in this study, there was only scope to investigate inherent resilience (potential resilience in the context of more normal perturbations and circumstances) in more depth. There was not the scope to examine in any depth the concept of adaptive resilience, which concerns activities during and after major crises. This was not possible due to constraints of time and funding. The focus on inherent resilience is because the inherent capacities of a tourist destination concern the ability of a system to deal with changes under normal conditions. These inherent capacities are linked to products and other influences in terms of internal and external factors. The study examines the strengths and weaknesses of these factors that could influence destination inherent resilience.

The generic framework of tourist destinations, and their tourism products and their concentration and diversification, relates those features to the destinations' inherent economic resilience. This is useful as discussion of these potential connections is rare. The framework recognises that tourist destinations cannot be isolated from external factors, that there are interactions between all of the associated elements, and that these all affect the adaptability and resilience of the destinations. Therefore, the generic framework is intended to assist in understanding how primary tourism products affect the inherent economic resilience of tourist destinations.

The inherent and adaptive economic resilience of tourist destinations has not received the same amount of research attention as ecological resilience has received. Ideas about resilience are adapted here from the work of other researchers, such as from work on economic vulnerability and the resilience of small islands (Briguglio, *et al.*, 2008), the resilience of regional and local economics (Simmie and Martin, 2010), socio-ecological resilience (Biggs, 2011; Ruiz-Ballesteros, 2011), and economic resilience in terms of inherent and adaptive resilience concepts developed by Rose (2004; 2007) in order to attain a deeper understanding of economic resilience in relation to tourism product development. The framework developed here, as with the other two, is original and it was developed deductively as a generic framework based on the literature.

This particular generic framework (Figure 3.3), however, was subsequently further elaborated upon at the start of the results Chapter Eight concerning economic resilience, with the resulting Figure 8.1 combining the deductive framework Figure 3.3 with details and sub-themes from the inductive fieldwork. Thus, the revised framework presented in

Figure 8.1 is summative of Figure 3.3 and of the results from the fieldwork. The themes in the revised Figure 8.1 are used to organise the reporting of results in Chapter Eight.

This initial simplified generic framework (Figure 3.3) is an elaboration of a key part of the general framework (Box 5 in Figure 3.1), and it also relates to the second framework. The more obvious link between the third and the second framework is the impact of concentrated and/or diversified tourism products on the inherent economic resilience of tourist destinations. Therefore, the three frameworks in the research are closely related and developed consistently.

The generic framework in Figure 3.3 focuses on destination economic resilience and it is surrounded by four interrelated generic attributes likely to be linked to the inherent resilience of primary tourism products in destinations. The attributes and adaptability of primary tourism products influence whether they are likely to satisfy different tastes, thus they influence destination economic resilience. Each of these four major attributes or variables can be elaborated into related sub-variables. It can be suggested that economic resilience can be nurtured and improved when there are mutual interrelations between the variables and when they are managed properly. Conversely, any weaknesses in these variables could negatively affect destination economic resilience. If "tourists are more concerned with the value for their money, the quality of the attractions, and the depth of the experience" (Sorupia, 2005: 1772), then defects in product attributes and flexibility could make the destination poorly adaptable to attract and satisfy tourists, restricting the potential for economic development. Thus, improvements in the dimensions of inherent and adaptive resilience should be taken seriously in order for organizations to respond proactively to unexpected events (IBM, 2009).

Economic resilience can be understood as an issue for planners and managers to focus upon for improvements. All the relevant variables can be integrated together in a holistic system to ensure consistency and to increase long-term resilience. This understanding of economic resilience in tourism also draws attention to the competitiveness conception which might usefully also be linked to resilience notions.

Competitiveness in tourism implies that destinations must focus on both comparative and competitive advantages in order to survive in the market (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). Competitiveness and resilience requirements are to some extent alike, but perhaps there is

added depth to the resilience concept as it is more concerned with abilities to respond to crises in the long term. Competitiveness by comparison can be limited to short term objectives and may not necessarily be concerned with resisting decline and rebounding back. This suggests that planners should continuously sustain economic resilience so as to avoid the pitfalls of reactively making corrections and also to find new ways to ensure proactive responses to future uncertainties. Dawley *et al.* (2010) draw attention to resilience as a dynamic and continuous process of adaptation and improvement in order to cope with changes. This means that resilience strategies should be integrated into development strategies. Poon (2010) argues that success should not only be measured by growth and how far objectives are achieved, but it should also be measured by how resilient the sector is. Thus, strategies that support the inherent resilience, such as by strengthening the tourism product attributes, and that support adaptive resilience, such as by increasing flexibility, complementarities and synergies, are needed in order to nurture overall economic resilience.

The following sections discuss the four categories of generic variables within the third framework (Figure 3.3) that affect tourist destination economic resilience. These are: Primary Tourism Product Attributes, Primary Tourism Product Interrelationships and Linkages, Exogenous Variables, and Implications of the Tourist Destination Economic Resilience.

3.4.1 Primary Tourism Product Attributes

Primary tourism products that have strong attributes might have an improved inherent resilience. The attributes of tourism products are probably closer to the notion of comparative advantages (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003), though these comparative advantages can offer inherent resilience for the destination. For example, major cities have inherent features of power and resources that enable them to harness massive fiscal resources and expertise to combat crises and to recover from them (Handmer, 1995). These attributes are important because they are used by tourists in comparing and selecting between destinations (Buhalis, 2001), and they also can add value for tourists (Dwyer and Kim, 2003). The attributes of tourism products can help to secure inherent destination resilience and competitiveness (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Crouch, 2011). Enright and Newton (2005) argue that it is important to address all the attributes and their importance to sustain destination competitiveness. However, the attributes could differ in their importance based

on the specific circumstances of the case study. Thus, it should be understood that an initial list of attributes may not include all attributes in a specific case. The point to be clarified here is the importance of tourism product attributes in promoting competitiveness and resilience, since these attributes are critical in determining destination performance. Thus, maintaining and sustaining these attributes should be a key focus of development policies, and that can lead to enhanced economic resilience for destinations.

The attributes of tourism products are important for destination attractiveness and image, key influences on tourists' decisions to select destinations for holidays. "The product attributes refer to the various characteristics of products that influence a customer's decision to purchase or not to purchase the product" (Chaiboonsri, *et al.*, 2008: 69). The attributes are complex and include a wider range of product traits that taken together form the product. Crouch (2011) identifies 36 attributes that influence destination competitiveness and tourists' perceptions. Among these attributes, but not limited to, are abundance, accessibility, affordability, uniqueness, and iconic attractions. Abundance means the availability of a diverse range of tourism products and activities which may gain more tourism market segments, which means investing in diversifying tourism products can be crucial to sustain the economic resilience of destinations; otherwise the destinations may not be able to face unexpected changes (Holladay, 2011).

While these attributes differ in their importance, they are essential for a destination to appeal to tourists and make the destination more competitive. In addition, each tourist experience might differ from other experiences based on the influence of these attributes. Thus, strengthening the attributes requires identifying which attributes have major, common, positive and direct influences on tourist satisfaction. It is important for tourism planners and developers to determine and measure the relative importance of these attributes so as to recognise the primary ones, and the defects in these attributes which can be improved (Gartner, 1989), and thus to enhance the destination's inherent economic resilience.

3.4.2 Primary Tourism Product Interrelationships and Linkages

The interrelationships or linkages of tourist attractions can be important to increase destination competitiveness and adaptive economic resilience. The interrelationships and linkages between tourism products might be important to increase their adaptability and

customisation to meet a wider range of tourists' needs, and that can make them more resilient. Tourism products interrelationships perhaps emphasise the importance of the diversification of tourism products; after all, it is unlikely there will be many such linkages when there is only one concentrated tourism product. Diversifying tourism products and connecting them into packaged valuable experiences can provide flexibility to meet a wide range of tourist needs, and this might improve adaptive resilience. Dwyer and Kim (2003: 382) assert that "the mix of activities possible within a destination are important tourism attractors.....the more diversified a destination's portfolio of tourism products, services and experiences the greater is its ability to attract different tourist market segments". Gaining new tourist markets can create more jobs and achieve growth, and it may also encourage suppliers to collaborate and share knowledge and skills to sustain their competitiveness, again possibly leading to better overall adaptive economic resilience. For example, combining alternative and mass tourism products, such as ecotourism with beach resorts, could attract more tourists and build complementarity features between both types of tourism (Christou, 2012; Kontogeorgopoulos, 2004, Weaver, 2001b). Complementarity between diversified tourism products can create potential benefits where it "enables a firm to jointly procure input factors and share marketing and distribution activities, [so that] a firm can enhance economies of scale and decrease learning costs" (Kang, Lee and Yang, 2011: 411). These complementarities between diversified products could lead to the building of synergies in operational processes and product marketing (Kang *et al.*, 2011; Wiedenfeld *et al.*, 2010), which in turn can improve the performance and adaptive resilience. In addition, location features could help tourist attractions to arrange in clusters based on spatial proximity and/or thematic similarities or dissimilarities, giving them an opportunity to share knowledge, skills and costs, which in turn might help the attractions and tourism firms within the cluster to compete and adapt according to market needs (Ivanovic, Katic and Mikinac, 2010; Nordin, 2003). These interrelationships between tourism products can be crucial to add comfort and a high quality experience for tourists.

The interrelationships again perhaps are more about competitive advantages, although that might reflect the adaptability that the tourism products acquire. Competitive advantages come not only from external environment possibilities, but also potentially from the internal strength and readiness to use the resources effectively (Martin, 2012). The interrelationships between tourism products can take various activities, such as developing quality primary tourism product, spatial and thematic clusters, synergy for competitiveness and resilience, diversification into new products. All these activities are concerned with the

interrelationships and developing linkages between tourism products in order to sustain the positive experience for tourists at a low cost.

3.4.3 Exogenous Variables

External variables must be taken into account in establishing a more resilient tourism industry, this being the third category of variables influencing tourist destination economic resilience. Clerides and Pashourtidou (2007) contend that demand for tourism depends on the circumstances in countries of origin and also other exogenous factors affecting the tourism sector within the country. For instance, Thitthongham and Walsh (2011) identified several external variables that influence the competitiveness of the tourism sector within Thailand: political turmoil, epidemic disease, economic situation, disaster, media, crime and war, technology, culture, education, environmental issues, marketing planning, and demographic changes. Biggs (2011) states that the external factors influencing the resilience of tourism-based enterprises and the tourism sector in general are broad. These factors can differ not only from one destination to another but also in their effects on tourism development. But addressing them and their impacts can be critical to sustain tourism destination development and resilience. These factors can be extended or reduced according to the specific circumstances. There can be many factors or sub-variables that may be included under this category, which are considered external to the tourism sector as it may or may not be able to influence the factors but it cannot control them. In this study they will be limited to factors that can be classified at a national level. Examples of these factors or sub-variables are: government role, community participation and involvement, reliable infrastructure, SME's role, market diversification, human resources.

This external variable highlights how the tourism sector cannot be isolated from its global, regional, national, and local conditions, with the sector vulnerable because of its dependency on national and global conditions. Thus, exogenous factors are important to be carefully considered in studying long term economic resilience. "Recognition and prioritization of environmental factors affecting the tourism industry is one of the most important steps in developing long-term plans and regional and national strategies" (Asadi, 2011: 150). These external influences must be seriously taken into account in policies to improve competitiveness, sustainability, and economic resilience. However, competitiveness, sustainability, and resilience share most of the same variables and determinants. Dwyer and Kim (2003) state that the most competitive tourist destination is

that which most effectively creates sustainable development economically, ecologically, socially, culturally and politically, as well in the long term. Therefore, many of the variables mentioned in the competitiveness models developed by Hassan (2000), Dwyer and Kim (2003), and Ritchie and Crouch (2003) are also considered important variables that influence both sustainability and resilience. Thus, what is important here is that this variable should not be ignored in developing tourism sustainability and resilience.

3.4.4 Implications of Tourist Destination Economic Resilience

This is the fourth category in the study's third framework. The interactions between the main three generic sub-variables in the third framework could lead to several implications that can be used as indicators to measure the economic resilience of tourist destinations. Thus, this category is perhaps a dependent variable and could include several sub-variables. On the other hand, improvements in this variable could positively influence destination resilience. For example, tourists' satisfaction or economic leakages can be improved through applying certain strategies, and such improvements could also lead to improved destination economic resilience. Thus, it is important to include this variable in the framework although it is slightly different in type from other three variables.

For this study, the implications will be limited to include: tourists' satisfaction and loyalty, and economic leakages. Due to time and funding constraints, however, these issues are not the focus of this particular study, and thus discussion here will be limited just to these issues, on the basis that they can give useful indications of economic resilience.

Since resilience is associated with the flexibility of an economy to be adaptable and bounce back to business during and after crises, then the inability to bounce back and adapt with changes could lead to fiscal deficiency and high unemployment rates (Briguglio *et al.*, 2011). In relation to the tourism sector, less resilient tourist destinations can be recognised in low accommodation occupancies, an inability to create new direct and indirect jobs in tourism and related industries, and falling tourist numbers. The lack of job opportunities and also lack of qualified local people to take over jobs in tourism could lead to hiring employees from other countries, leading to leaking substantial amounts of money outside the country, and that could lead to reductions in the multiplier effect from tourism resulting in low destination resilience. "Local economic activity is a key to disaster resilience in much of the world. Without the flows of money generated by such activity, the ability to

continue living, let alone recover, is limited" (Handmer and Choong, 2006: 8). This means that to secure improved tourist destination economic resilience, planners need to encourage local people to gain skills and qualifications that enable them to take over tourism jobs at all levels.

Another implication is the tourists' satisfaction which might encourage tourists to be loyal to specific destinations since they might recommend their friends and others through various media technologies to visit the destinations they have gained unique experiences in. In contrary, tourists' dissatisfaction could result from bad experiences, such as due to poor quality services or lack of enough range of quality tourist attractions (Okello and Yerian, 2009). Dissatisfied tourists could recommend others to avoid poor quality destinations resulting in a decline in the number of visitors and then the destination suffers from low resilience.

3.5 Conclusion

The three frameworks were deductively developed based on the literature and they were developed to be consistent with each other. The general framework, shown in Figure 3.1, included general themes that helped in designing the thesis structure. The core concept in the general framework is the concentration and diversification of tourism products and related concepts of alternative and mass tourism products, tourist demand and tourist satisfaction, planning and strategies for diversification and resilience, and tourist destination inherent economic resilience. The general framework is assessed in the fieldwork and in all the results Chapters Six, Seven, and Eight.

The other two frameworks are more specific and they elaborate on specific parts in the general framework. The second framework, shown in Figure 3.2, specifically deals with the patterns and scales of concentration and diversification in relation to the patterns of consumption around alternative and mass tourism products. The second framework was examined empirically in the field work, and it is applied and discussed most in chapters Six and Seven.

The third framework, shown in Figure 3.3, focuses on the concept of tourist destination inherent economic resilience and it was also developed deductively from the generic factors or variables in the literature. It too was empirically evaluated in the field work, and it is applied and assessed most in chapter Eight.

Chapter 4 : Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research methodology employed in this study, including the research philosophy, the research approach, the methods used for data collection, and the data analysis. It also considers the ethical issues in relation to the methodological approach adopted. The chapter starts with discussion of the study's philosophical position in order to clarify the choice of appropriate methodology. A qualitative case study approach is used in this research, based on paradigms of interpretivism and critical realism. This methodology allows for in-depth interpretations of the opinions of interviewees from the supply and demand sides of tourism development in the two case study areas. This chapter also explains the methods used in collecting the primary and secondary data, and the triangulation techniques employed. In order to gain a clearer picture about the issues under study, the primary data were collected using semi-structured, face-to-face interviews with a wide range of tourism actors, including officials in tourism-related government sectors, actors from the public and private sectors involved in tourism, and domestic and international tourists. Secondary data were collected from varied sources to complement the primary findings from the interviews. The primary data were cross-checked with the secondary data, and both were analysed using a content and thematic analysis approach based on the pre-defined themes and newly emerging themes to determine whether the evidence supported the study's frameworks.

4.2 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy provides the basis for deductive framework building, and in the current research the researcher pragmatically adopted a position that combines interpretivism and critical realism. However, the philosophical stances of interpretivism and critical realism are rather contradictory. This is because the former ontologically and epistemologically considers that knowledge is subjective, while critical realists accept the existence of the thing in itself as knowable. However, a critical realist epistemologically can be interpretivist when it is considered that there are structures and mechanisms that exist beyond empirical reality and are not knowable and can only be understood through multiple subjective views (Jefferies, 2011). Thus, Meyer (2007) states that in pragmatism genuine objectivity is the fruit of the authentic subjectivity.

According to Creswell (2003), in pragmatism knowledge claims arise out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions. Thus, instead of the methods being more important, the problem is most important, so that the researcher uses pluralistic approaches to derive knowledge and understand the problem, rather than sticking to one specific approach. Thus, the pragmatic stance gives freedom of choice. Pragmatism also allows for more triangulation of methods to solve the research problem (Parsiri, 2005). In the present research, the researcher believed that to advance understanding, combining both interpretivism and critical realism philosophical stances pragmatically helps in choosing freely the methods, techniques, and procedures of research that best meet the needs and purposes of the study.

The approach to data collection and analysis also complied with the researcher's philosophy or beliefs. This philosophy concerns the perceptions, beliefs and assumptions about the nature of reality, and it is often described through the ontological, epistemological, and methodological positions that influence decisions about how to tackle the research topic, from its design to its conclusion. The nature of the research, the research problem, the aim and objectives, and the type of data needed to accomplish the research, all of these are guided by a chosen philosophical framework, which in turn is related to assumptions about the nature of reality (ontology) and knowledge (epistemology) (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Finn, Elliott-White and Walton, 2000; Quinlan, 2011). Holden and Lynch (2004: 1) assert that "research should not be methodologically led; rather that methodological choice should be consequential to the researcher's philosophical stance and the social science phenomenon to be investigated". This means that different perspectives and knowledge can be derived through observing the same social phenomenon from different philosophical stances. This is because humans involve the notions of choice, free will and individualism.

This research focuses on relationships connecting diversified tourism products in ways linked to the economic resilience of case study destinations. It suggests that the relationships and processes that link the various tourism products influence the adaptability of the destination towards change, which in turn influences its economic resilience. The research starts with framework building by developing three deductive theoretical frameworks based on the literature (discussed earlier in Chapter 3). Deduction is a technique used to examine and draw from existing theories (Gilbert, 2001; 2012). "Theories are conceptual frameworks to help make sense of the research findings" (Finn *et*

al., 2000: 13). These theoretical frameworks represent the assumptions and propositions the researcher holds in his mind about the nature of social reality, or "ontology", and that he wished to assess through the fieldwork in order to recognise whether or not these relationships existed in reality. In the current research he evaluated whether these frameworks coincided with the actual relationships between the concentrated and diversified tourism products, and whether these features influenced economic resilience. In brief, ontology defines the claims on the nature of reality: whether it is an objective reality that really exists in the world, or only a subjective reality that is created in our minds (Blaikie, 2010). It is argued here that the researched reality in this study is both objective and subjective. It is subjective as it has multiple faces based on the interpretations of the interviewed people, who each construct their own opinions differently from the others. The words used by informants are the backbone in developing clear themes that can be interpreted to answer the research question, and to get nearer to the actual or objective reality out there. Creswell (1998: 19) argues that "Knowledge is within the meanings people make of it. Knowledge is laced with personal biases and values. Knowledge is written in a personal, up-close way. And knowledge evolves, emerges, and is inextricably tied to the context in which it is studied". By examining multiple views and by triangulating these points of view the researcher can begin to get closer to understanding objective reality.

The epistemological stance in this study reflects the researcher's beliefs and decisions on how to understand reality, and it facilitated what questions were asked in order to understand reality. "Questions about the methodology and methods used in the research project relate to our understanding of knowledge and how it is created, and to the value we ascribe to knowledge....[and these] are questions of epistemology" (Quinlan, 2011: 95-96). Tribe (1997: 639) contends that "the question of knowing about what one knows about tourism is an epistemological question....The epistemology of tourism thus explores the character of tourism knowledge, the sources of tourism knowledge, the validity and reliability of claims of knowledge of the external world of tourism, the use of concepts, the boundaries of tourism studies, and the categorization of tourism studies as a discipline or a field". The methodological position, on the other hand, is the practical approach that is employed to answer these questions in order to achieve the research objectives. Thus, ontological, epistemological, and methodological positions inform the assumptions that the researcher makes to guide subsequent actions.

Tourism knowledge has developed chronologically from a more single discipline approach, to become multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and even extra-disciplinary (Tribe, 1997). However, Phillimore and Goodson (2004) suggest that these four approaches to tourism study have tended to crystallise around an interdisciplinary approach, often focused on tourism business studies, which can lend it some coherence and a structured framework. Jennings (2001) states that an interdisciplinary approach means that other disciplines influence the researcher in deciding on the most appropriate research process, helping to broaden the understanding of data collection methods. In this study, various theories were drawn on from disciplines other than tourism, such as planning, management, marketing, and resilience studies. This does not mean this study solely considers the business dimensions of tourism, although it does focus mostly on the economic resilience dimension of tourist product development. But also the complex nature of tourism studies opens up a wide range of methodological choices that complicate decisions on the best choice of philosophical framework.

This study employs interpretivism based on subjective viewpoints, in part because it was very hard to acquire quantitative empirical data on Libya. Interpretivism is the study of the ways in which people attach meanings to what they do, and interpretivists interpret these meanings in order to understand the phenomena in question (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Orlikowski and Baroudi 1991). Interpretivism is frequently connected with qualitative research based on in-depth interviews, observation and qualitative document analysis (Phillimore and Goodson, 2004). However, in this study, using interviews as a basis for the researcher's assessment of theoretical frameworks was not considered to be a sufficient approach for exploring the nature of reality. That is because individual respondents may have no idea about some relationships and processes that exist between tourism products. Thus, Myers (2009) argues that researchers using a qualitative approach should look critically at their work to ensure that the understanding, validity and the scope of their knowledge is appropriate. According to Tribe (2005), there is a danger that a subjective approach may fail to address important issues that respondents themselves may be unaware of. It may ignore issues such as power relations that have a significant influence on tourism development, but may not be immediately obvious to the interviewed respondents (Ateljevic, Pritchard and Morgan, 2007).

According to Bhaskar (1989), to understand the social world it is important to identify the structures at work that generate events and discourses, because these structures are

unobservable in the observed events. Critical realists attempt not only to understand what is experienced, such as by interviewees, but to go beyond to understand structures and powers behind surface realities (Olsen, 2009). Further, interpretivism alone might magnify the participants' voices over the researcher's voice, and the latter has had the benefit of wide reading of academic literature on the topic, has pulled together ideas from that literature, has developed a framework to organise that thinking, and is able to evaluate the interviewees' responses from this informed perspective. The present research considered, for example, a broad range of critical factors, such as success factors (Brotherton, 2004), vulnerability factors (McEntire, cited in Ritchie, 2009), and factors affecting destination competitiveness (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003), and the researcher was well placed to interpret these based on the wider reading and the range of empirical data, including the interviews. Thus, the approach to interpreting the data in this study was also informed by critical theory, with the resulting interpretations drawing on theoretical insights and concepts about tourism product development in destination areas.

In relation to the integration of interpretive and critical theory perspectives, it can be said that the researcher attempted to listen to people's views and understand their perspective on the issues. This study is not fully interpretivist, however, because the researcher was not examining the whole range of world views among well-informed respondents. Instead, this research set up theoretical frameworks deductively, and it then asked people about the ideas and concepts that constituted the theoretical frameworks in order to gain their opinions about them. Then, a range of other evidence from other sources was examined in order to achieve a broad view and to find out whether or not this evidence supported the frameworks. So, this research is partly interpretivist and partly critical realist. A critical review of the literature, study of the related documents and other secondary data sources, and interviews with supply side actors and with tourists were carried out to facilitate understanding of the reality of the relationships between tourism products and the development and resilience of these products. Thus, critical realism is important for this study because the researcher believed that interpretivism alone could not reveal all the relationships between tourism products and their influence on destination economic resilience.

4.3 Research Approach

This research adopted a qualitative methodology to collect relevant primary data. Research is "a systematic process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting information (data) in order to increase our understanding of a phenomenon about which we are interested or concerned" (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010: 2). Thus, it involves collecting relevant information from appropriate sources, and analysing the collected data in a way that answers the research problem and accomplishes the research objectives. Consequently, the selection of a relevant methodology is important, and it needs careful justification at all stages to ensure overall consistency.

Selecting the most appropriate research methodology to examine tourism product diversification and resilience was difficult because the information required to answer the research problem was diverse. For example, the types of data needed were related to the policies and strategies of tourism product development, and the linkages and relationships of cooperation, collaboration, separation, and competition between diversified tourism products. "The extent of collaboration and cooperation is an important determinant for the development of a tourism destination. These features are usually assessed through qualitative investigations" (Baggio, 2010: 1). Strategies that are adopted to meet stakeholders' needs, and exogenous factors that influence the ability of the destination to cope with changes, also need to be considered. Hence, in this study it was necessary to collect in-depth data on issues such as the actors' attitudes and perceptions about plans and strategies of tourism development. These data were mostly only available from high ranked employees in tourism planning and management organisations, people who prefer face-to-face interviews rather than self-completed questionnaires because the flexibility of the interview format allows them to express their own opinions (Fontana and Frey, 1994). Some data could be gathered in quantitative form, however, such as information on economic viability and tourist satisfaction and demand. However, it is important to ensure there is compliance between the research philosophy, the methodology and the methods of data collection and analysis. This is because decisions on the selection and stages of the research emerge one from another (Quinlan, 2011). However, the decision on which research methodology is most suitable for any given part of the research depends on several important issues, some of which are explained below:

First: the nature of the problem under study. This is an extremely important factor in selecting the methodology since the research question needed to be answered by one specific methodology or by combining methodologies. The question of this study concerns primary tourist products and economic resilience. Diversification in terms of the number of primary products that pull tourists to visit a certain place can be counted, but diversification also depends on spatial and thematic linkages between tourist products that influence peoples' attitudes and experiences about variety and flexibility, and it might not be possible to measure such factors quantitatively. It might be better to measure these qualitatively. In addition, economic resilience can be measured both quantitatively and qualitatively. According to Hill, *et al.* (2008), definitions of equilibrium, path-dependence, and systems and long-term perspectives allows on examination of regional and national economic resilience through both quantitative and qualitative research methods, enabling measurement of essential indicators of resilience, such as economic growth rate, employment, economic leakages, tourist satisfaction and people's attitudes about flexibility and adaptability. However, since this research is concerned with processes of diversification that might promote economic resilience rather than simply the outcomes in terms of economic returns, a qualitative approach was considered more suitable for the majority of this research.

Second: the accessibility and availability of information sources. In the Libyan case, and specifically in the study of Libyan tourism, there is an extreme lack of available statistical information and documented data relevant to the case study areas. Moreover, the available information is not very detailed and does not cover many issues related to the research question, because tourism is a new sector in Libya and there is a scarcity of related research. The key informants in this research are high ranked officials in charge of planning, managing and operating tourism facilities who are able to provide the needed in-depth information. Those key people generally preferred to answer the questions face-to-face so they could provide their opinions and reflect on them freely without the constraints of a structured questionnaire. Thus, qualitative data is critical to exploration of the underlying issues linking diversification and economic resilience.

Third: the researcher's ability, skills and preferences. It is important that the researcher is well trained and skilled to conduct the research methodology, and this influences his selection and use of methodology. In addition, confidence in conducting interviews and interacting with people, and with using quantitative methods, are crucial factors in

selecting research methodologies (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Fortunately, the university provided intensive courses on research methodologies that enhanced the researcher's ability in both qualitative and quantitative research.

In selecting the appropriate research methodology it is important to understand the differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches. "For a researcher to decide which method is best suited for a proposed study, the researcher must closely examine the research questions and relate them to the philosophical and methodological differences between qualitative and quantitative methods of research" (Johnson, 2008: 2). However, quantitative and qualitative methodologies are significantly different in their underlying assumptions and in the data collection and analysis procedures used. In addition, quantitative and qualitative methodologies differ in analytical objectives, the form and flexibility of questions they use, the instruments of data collection, and the forms and flexibility of the data collection processes. The major differences are summarized in Table 4.1.

Relationships between tourist product diversification and economic resilience also might not be easy to examine quantitatively based on cause and effect principles because successful diversification depends on several factors that cannot be quantified, such as synergies, competition, and clustering. Instead, applying an interpretive approach to the meanings people develop around this specific phenomenon in its natural setting might expose important features of the sought reality. Data needed to achieve this objective must often be teased out from people most knowledgeable about the plans, management, development, and marketing of tourism products. These knowledgeable people are often few in numbers, and in Libya they were found in government and other public and private sector organisations. Thus, the acquisition of qualitative data through in-depth interviews was considered the most suitable research method.

However, some factors related to economic resilience, such as employment opportunities, hotel occupancy rates, tourist satisfaction, tourist demands, tourist expenditure and economic leakages, can be examined by either method, but it was decided to use qualitative methods, in part for reasons of consistency. Also, the focus of the research was on concentration and diversification patterns of tourism product development rather than on tourist demand and satisfaction or the destinations' economic resilience. Thus, it was decided to focus on qualitative data from actors on the supply side, including the attitudes

and perceptions of supply side respondents from the private and public sectors, and on gaining their in-depth insights into tourism product development. Tourists, on the other hand, might well be unaware of the strategies for tourism product development, although their behaviour, satisfaction, loyalty, movements, and expenditure could influence the product development issues and strategies. Therefore, tourists were also interviewed about the same issues as the supply side actors, thus ensuring consistency.

Table 3-1: Major Differences between Quantitative and Qualitative Methodologies

Approach	Quantitative	Qualitative
Assumption about the reality	Single rigid reality	Multiple relative realities
General framework	Seeks to confirm hypotheses about phenomena that are formulated before study begins	Seeks to explore phenomena, hence the design emerges as data are collected
	Instruments use a more rigid style of eliciting and categorizing responses to questions	Instruments use a more flexible, iterative style of eliciting and categorizing responses to questions
	Uses highly structured methods, such as questionnaires, surveys, and structured observation	Uses semi-structured methods, such as in-depth interviews, focus groups, and participant observation
Analytical objectives	To quantify variation	To describe variation
	Explain phenomena in order to predict casual relationships and fundamental laws that explain consistency of social world	To describe and explain relationships for understanding and interpretation
	To describe characteristics of a population	To describe individual experiences To describe group norms
Question format	Closed-ended	Open-ended
Data Format	Numerical (obtained by assigning numerical values to responses)	Textual (obtained from audiotapes, videotapes, and field notes)
Generalization	Findings can be generalized to larger population	Findings cannot be generalized for other samples
Bias	Value free since the researcher cannot influence the researched object	Value bound since it is not possible to separate the researcher from the researched participants
Language of research	Formal, based on researcher definitions	Informal, and can be changed during the processes of data collection
Flexibility in study design	Study design is stable from beginning to end	Some aspects of the study are flexible (for example, the addition, exclusion, or wording of particular interview questions)
	Participant responses do not influence or determine how and which questions researchers ask next	Participant responses affect how and which questions researchers ask next
	Study design is subject to statistical assumptions and conditions	Study design is iterative, that is, data collection and research questions are adjusted according to what is learned

Source: Compiled from Decrop (2004); Holden (2004); Johnson (2008); Neuman (2003); Mack *et al.*, (2005).

Attitudes toward tourist destination products continually change. Thus, to satisfy tourists and increase demand, it is necessary to develop and improve primary tourism products on a continuous and innovative basis. Actions toward tourism products either from the supply or demand side can create relationships between the products in terms of conflicts or synergies. These relationships can be understood in terms of the perceptions, attitudes and actions of tourism product suppliers on the supply side and of tourists on the demand side. According to Amiel (1998), the essence of a subjective qualitative approach is the investigation of people's perspectives in order to derive from them the ways of measuring the phenomenon. Lincoln and Guba, (2000) state that the qualitative approach involves deriving findings through interaction between the researcher and the researched people. According to Creswell (2003: 18), "A qualitative approach is one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives (i.e. the multiple meanings of individual experiences, meanings socially and historically constructed, with an intent of developing a theory or pattern) or advocacy/participatory perspectives (i.e. political, issue-oriented, collaborative or change oriented) or both". The qualitative approach thus was selected in this study for the critical exploration of the nature of these linkages.

4.4 Case Study Design

The research was based on case study design. Yin, (1994: 19) states that, "every type of empirical research has an implicit, if not explicit, research design". Research design concerns how to conduct the study. According Kumar (2005), research design is developed by the researcher to answer the research question and to accomplish the objectives validly, accurately and at the lowest cost. Rowley (2002: 18) states that, "a research design is the logic that links the data to be collected and the conclusions to be drawn to the initial questions of a study; it ensures the coherence". The present study involved developing a research process to gather evidence to answer the research question and that process provides a logical structure to the inquiry. However, there is little academic literature about tourism products and the relationships between them in the context of a destination's economic resilience. Thus, this study is partly exploratory because "exploratory research is conducted when very little or no data exist on the tourism phenomenon being investigated" (Jennings, 2001: 17). Moreover, Jennings suggests that an exploratory approach is flexible and can be achieved qualitatively. In identifying which design is more appropriate for this research, the various research designs presented in Table 4.2 were considered.

Table 3-2: Various Research Designs and Their Characteristics

Design Approaches in Research	Description and use
Experimental	This is rare in business and management research because the "vast majority of independent variables with which business researchers are concerned cannot be manipulated" (Bryman and Bell, 2011:45).
Cross-sectional	According to Bryman and Bell (2011), the cross-sectional design involves collecting quantitative data about two or more variables in more than one case study at a single point of time in order to detect patterns of association.
Longitudinal	This research design involves repeating the process of data collection for the same variables over a long time period to determine the pattern of change based on time. Kumar argues that longitudinal design "is appropriate for measuring change in a phenomenon, situation, and attitude and so on, but is less helpful for studying the pattern of change" (2005:97).
Case Study	Case study research entails comprehensive analysis of a single or multiple cases. Bryman and Bell (2011) contend that advocates of case study design often favour qualitative methods of data collection, such as semi-structured interviews and participant observation, because these methods help to extract very detailed examinations of the case. A qualitative case study enables exploration of a phenomenon in its real context using various data resources (Baxter and Jack, 2008)
Comparative	Comparative study involves a comparison between two or more cases for comparison purposes and also because such comparison exposes meaningful differences in reality contexts.
Level of analysis	According to Bryman and Bell (2011), the level of analysis refers to the drawing and comparison of samples from different levels in order to produce meaningful analysis

Source: Compiled by the author from Bryman and Bell (2011)

As this brief review indicates, a case study method was selected as the appropriate research design for this study. This is justified on three grounds: the theoretical dimension, research question issues, and practical reasons. The theoretical justification is that a case study in social science research can provide an in-depth understanding of important issues, especially when examining the effects of external factors on a specific phenomenon. De Vaus (2001: 232) argues that "case study designs are particularly useful when we do not wish to or are unable to screen out the influence of 'external' variables but when we wish to examine their effect on the phenomenon we are investigating". Punch (2005: 148) states that case study research facilitates "discovering important features, developing and understanding of them, and conceptualizing them for further study". This means that case studies can be used to develop models and theoretical frameworks that can subsequently be used to investigate similar cases, which is also an aim of the current study. Further, according to Remenyi *et al.* (2005), a case study can be used as an approach to data collection from both a positivist and phenomenological philosophical position. They add that in a non-positivistic analysis of a case study a holistic interpretation of the evidence is required (2005). According to Yin (1994; 2003) and Rowley (2002), case studies can be

used to investigate a phenomenon in its real life context when there are no clear cut distinctions between the phenomenon and its context and where it is not possible to manipulate the behaviour of the study's participants. Rowley (2002: 17) contends that "case studies are one approach that supports deeper and more detailed investigation of the type that is normally necessary to answer how and why questions". This study explores the phenomenon of primary tourism product development, which is connected with many other tourism-related issues in the destination. The phenomenon could not be considered separately from its context, Libyan tourism, and more specifically the contextual settings in which the primary tourism products were developed. This was a justification for using the case study approach, as was the fact that case studies allow for the extraction of rich data about the issue under investigation (Yin, 1994; Sakaran, 2000).

This study focuses on tourism product concentration and diversification in relation to economic resilience. Libya first began to develop its international tourism sector decades ago, but basically it depends on concentrated tourism products in Alkhoms, with a wider range of tourism products in Tripoli. Analysis of differences between the two cases helps to reveal the influence of concentration and diversification policies on each destination's economic resilience, especially since data on tourism's economic performance does not exist. The study's research objectives are explored for the case of one developing country and for two case study locations within the one country, Alkhoms and Tripoli. Although these places are within the same country, they differ in terms of tourism development. The Libya case is interesting as the country's tourism development strategy has emphasised tourism product diversification, and this current study helps to identify the progress of these plans and their influence on economic resilience. Thus, the case study design allows for comparison of developments on the ground in the two cases in order to track the direction of these developments and their implications. Tripoli and Alkhoms were chosen because of their differences in terms of tourism product development patterns, based on concentration and diversification, with comparisons of such differences helping to sharpen our understanding of the relationships between diversification and economic resilience.

To gain a clear picture of a phenomenon under study, it is important to collect case study information for different levels and types of levels. De Vaus (2001: 221) states that "A well-designed case study will avoid examining just some of the constituent elements. It will build up a picture of the case by taking into account information gained from many levels". Therefore, this study involved interviews with a range of types and levels of

respondents from the supply side and also with domestic and international tourists' as well as field observations and relevant secondary data.

The assessment of tourism product development is based on the specific case study context of the North African, Mediterranean nation of Libya. Relatively little research has previously been conducted on Libya's tourism industry or its primary tourism product development, which provides another justification for an exploratory case study research design (Sekaran, 2000).

This study focuses on two case study tourist destinations within Libya. These two destinations are located relatively near to each other on Libya's western coast and in one of the most visited regions in Libya. The first is Tripoli municipality, which includes the capital city, has the main international airport or tourist gateway to the country, and also has many primary tourism products, such as museums, historical and religious sites, and coastal resorts. The second tourist destination of Alkhoms municipality is 120 km east of Tripoli, and it is the researcher's own home town. It is well known as the location of the Leptis Magna archaeological site. Leptis Magna is a Roman ruin visited by most of the international tourists in the region. Other tourism products in Alkhoms include Villa Celine, the former relaxation place for an ancient Roman family which is located 12km to the west of Leptis Magna, and beach resorts, which are mainly used by domestic tourists.

These two tourist destinations were chosen for their importance as tourist destinations in Libya, with both usually included in tour packages and thus they are visited by most international tourists. Another practical reason for their selection was proximity to each other, enabling the researcher to travel easily to them. In addition, each has its own separate local authority that steers the tourism sector based on the destination's resources, although they also operate under the Libyan Tourism General Board (GTB). The researcher considers that these two destinations provide valuable information about patterns of concentrated and diversified primary tourism products and about the linkages between those products. These cases also enabled the researcher to examine whether these relationships promoted economic resilience in the destinations. Moreover, the different local authorities in the two areas provided interesting insights into their respective operational and planning issues.

Both destinations also operated all year round, with only a small seasonal effect in terms of decline in international tourism in the summer time, at a time when domestic tourism peaks, particularly domestic beach tourism. Beach tourism is the most obvious form of domestic tourism activity and it is almost non-existent outside the summer season. Thus, the summer was chosen for the fieldwork because it was the most convenient season to collect data about domestic tourism, allowing the researcher to observe and take photos in relation to the impacts of beach tourism development, and it enabling him to plan his work programme and observe both inbound and domestic tourism. A second reason was to comply with the study's work schedule.

The field study was conducted over a three month period, between July and September 2010, and just four months before the political revolt that led to the fall of Gaddafi's regime. Thus, the study relates to the period before the end of the Gaddafi regime. Consequently, the data collected for the study is relevant to the influence of Gaddafi's regime on Libya's tourism development. However, the study is also highly relevant for future tourism development in Libya since tourism product development is highly dependent on the prior development of infrastructure and the operation of established practices, which usually takes a very long time to change. Future tourism development in Libya will have to build from its existing physical stock of tourist facilities and the range of social outlooks and mentalities that have been established over previous decades.

This research also used a comparative approach to highlight the differences between the two cases, and thereby to gain insights and understanding of issues associated with the research question.

4.5 Methods and Data Collection

4.5.1 Methods for Primary Data Collection

4.5.1.1 Face-to face Interviews

The present study used individual, semi-structured, face-to-face interviews and informal observations as two key methods of data collection. The purpose of the research, and the time and other resource constraints, all affected the selection and implementation of these research methods (Finn, *et al.*, 2000). Bryman and Bell (2011) identify five methods that are used in collecting qualitative data. First, ethnography/participant observation, where

the researcher becomes part of the social setting for some time in order to observe, listen and feel the culture of a social group. Second, qualitative interviewing, where the researcher engages in qualitative interview methods, such as individual face-to-face interviews. Third, focus groups, where a group of people are interviewed through a discussion based on a focal issue. Fourth, qualitative selection and collection of archival texts and documents, and finally language-based approaches to recorded interviews, such as through using discourse and conversation analysis (Gillen and Petersen, 2007). Participant observation and language-based approaches were not particularly applicable to this study, as it was not based on ethnography or conversation analysis, and also it was not possible practically to bring together the interviewees from private and public sector organisations in order to conduct focus group discussions.

During the individual face-to-face interviews, the researcher was able to establish a good rapport with the interviewed actors by giving them his full attention and by creating meaningful interactions, which in turn generally created an environment of trust (Fontana and Frey, 1994; Phillimore and Goodson, 2004). In addition, the researcher accessed the relevant people for the interviews through the use of a snowball sampling method (Etter and Perneger, 2000). In-depth interviews also helped the interviewer to administer the interviews because he used pre-determined topics and themes, although the respondents also introduced new themes, which were also pursued if seen as relevant. The interviews also allowed the researcher to probe deeper into the newly emergent themes in order to gain new and clearer insights (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Thus, individual face-to-face interviews were employed in this research in order to enable participants to provide valuable, detailed information from their own points of view and using their own words (Boyce and Neale, 2006; Egan, 2010; Myers, 2009). Questions about what, how and why enabled the researcher to extract the participants' perceived meanings and reactions.

There are two established designs for qualitative, individual face-to-face interviews, namely, the unstructured interview and the semi-structured interview, although in practice these lie at two ends of a continuum. The former was excluded because the study focused on evaluating the study's frameworks, although other views, insights and perspectives were also encouraged so that the frameworks could be critically evaluated and further refined (Wimpenny and Gass, 2000). To accomplish this objective, a number of topics and themes were identified and prepared in advance for addressing with the interviewees. Hancock, (2002: 10) stated that "Semi-structured interviews tend to work well when the interviewer

has already identified a number of aspects he wants to be sure of addressing". Interesting and relevant topics that emerged in the interviews were also encouraged and recorded.

The semi-structured interview used open-ended questions that were prepared in advance. Bryman and Bell (2011) contend that it is useful to use semi-structured interviews when there is only one chance to interview a specific targeted person, such as people in high positions in government, and when similar wording must be used from interviewee to interviewee to cover the same themes. Since supply side actors were the most important participants in this study and some of them could only be accessed once, and since the questions drew on relevant themes that had been prepared previously, the semi-structured interview approach was selected for this study. It also enabled the researcher to keep some degree of control in terms of time, and it helped to prevent the conversation from slipping into irrelevant topics. At the same time the interview was only semi-structured, and there was scope for the interviewed actors to identify their own issues. The interviewer was then able to extend the discussion of these newly emerging topics in order to seek clarification and elaboration.

4.5.1.2 Observation Methods

Alongside in-depth individual interviews, field observation was used as a complementary method of primary data collection. There are two established observation methods: structured and unstructured, again on a continuum. Structured observation is usually used in positivistic research, while unstructured observation is more related to interpretivist research (Mulhall, 2003). Observation can also be categorized as participant or non-participant. In the former, the researcher needs to become actively immersed in the researched community, while the latter involves observing people without interacting with them (Bryman and Bell, 2011). This study is interpretivist and it employed unstructured, non-participation observation, mainly in the form of taking notes and photographs about aspects and issues surrounding tourism products in the case study areas. Veal (2006: 175) states that "observation is useful not only for gathering data on the number of users of a site but also for studying the way people make use of a site". For both case studies, the observation data included data about the range, types and availability of tourism products and services, the patterns of tourism product development, the number of tourists using different products, the types of tourists (such as domestic or international tourists), new projects under development, the impacts of developments, the opening hours of attractions,

the layout of attractions, the crowds on roads and in parks, the cleanliness and pollution, and the hospitality and helpfulness of local people. Patterns of tourist use and behaviour can be affected by the availability, accessibility, affordability and quality of primary tourist products and their distribution and arrangements in the sites (Lew and McKercher, 2006). Knowing the movement patterns of tourists and the activities they are involved in can help in understanding the strategies for destination management, development, and marketing, as well as the intentions of tourists (Lew and Mckercher, 2006; O'Connor, Zerger and Itami, 2005). These means can help in understanding the consequences of tourism developments for a destination's economic performance and resilience. Managers and planners could take into account such findings when making changes to primary tourism products, on the basis of spatial proximities and thematic linkages, and that might increase the efficiency of the arrangements for tourists.

Photographic images were also taken as records of sites in both case study areas in order to complement the other primary data. Schwartz states that if photographs are viewed as records, then the "photographs are thought to reproduce the reality in front of the camera's lens, yielding an unmediated and unbiased visual report" (1989: 120). Thus, photographs were taken to show what was there, including any practical problems or examples of good practice, and also to show how the researcher saw and evaluated the world.

These were valuable data that could be cross checked with data collected from other sources for a better understanding and improved interpretations. The observation sites and the dates of visits to the two study cases are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 3-3: Tourist Sites and Dates of Observational Visits in the Two Case Study Areas

Alkhoms	Date, 2010	Tripoli	Date 2010
Leptis Magna site and museum	23 rd , 24 th , 29 th , 30 th July	Saraya museum	02 nd , 07 th August
Lebda beach resort	25 Jun	Libya museum	02 nd , 07 th August
Family beach resorts near the harbour (Sindibad)	26 th , 27 th July	Old Medina	03 rd , 04 th , 15 th , 16 th , 17 th August
Ganeema beach resort	28 th July	Old markets	
Bisis beach resort	28 th July	Hotels- Zumeet, Elmukhtar, Alkabeer, Elwaddan, Esafwa	16 th , 17 th , 25 th , 26 th , 27 th , 28 th August
Villa Celine	2 nd , 9 th July	Palm City	11 th September
Severus hotel	26 th , 27 th July	Janzour beach resort, and Janzour Musuem	11 th September
Sidi Omair planned beach tourism	03 rd , 04 th August	Tajoura beach resorts	12 th , 13 th August
Sim Edees protected area	12 th August	Garaboulli resorts	02 nd August

Source: the author

4.5.2 Collecting the Secondary Data

Various secondary sources were also collected as complementary methods and evidence. They included public documents, such as Libyan Laws and Acts related to tourism, drafts of Libyan tourism plans, international organisation reports on tourism in Libya (such as Oxford Business Group Research 2008, 2010, and Doing Business in Libya reports), articles from local and international newspapers (such as Al-Arab newspaper, and The Tripoli Post), Libyan tourism booklets (such as Aoun Elmergeb, and Leptis Magna Comes Alive - 2003), data from the websites of government bodies (such as the General Tourism Board, General Information Authority, General Investment Board), reports about tourist numbers for some attractions, and local regulations and contracts for beach tourism development. Electronic sources included surveys and projects concerning Libyan tourism from the UNWTO and the World Bank.

Web blogs have become an increasingly popular method for collecting qualitative data as they save time and money and allow data to be collected from worldwide sources. Thus, comments made by bloggers (usually international tourists) about tourism in Libya on various web blogs were used as secondary qualitative data. Such web blogs represent a relatively new and little explored data source for tourism researchers (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Although the use of blogs in tourism marketing is growing (Schmallegger and Carson, 2008), relatively few tourism researchers have so far used blogs in order to collect qualitative data (Bolan, Boyd and Bell, 2009; Jenkin, 2010). Blogs by international tourists published on the websites of Tripadvisor, TravBuddy, Lonelyplanet, Travelblog, and VirtualTourist, that describe their experiences and opinions about tourism in Libya were used as additional secondary findings. Table 4.4 lists the bloggers and reviewers, using their coded names and the website links used to access their opinions. The information provided by the bloggers and reviewers is probably fairly honest and authentic since most of them had freely expressed their opinions as they were able to hide behind coded names. This seems probable, although it is difficult to verify this.

Table 3-4: The Sample List of Bloggers and Reviewers Accessed in 2011-2013

Reviewer Code	Internet Link
iwys, 2007	http://www.virtualtourist.com/travel/Africa/Libya/Baladiyat_Tarabulus/Tripoli-2059036/Shopping-Tripoli-TG-C-1.html
tj1777, 2007	http://www.travbuddy.com/travel-blogs/23243/
Zhena, 2010	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/ShowTopic-g293807-i9128-k3146489-Tourist_visa_to_libya-Tripoli_Tripoli_District.html
Simms, 2010	http://www.telegraph.co.uk/travel/activityandadventure/8167751/Leptis-Magna-Libya-Rome-by-the-sea.html
Koshkha, 2010	http://www.igougo.com/journal-i73965-Libya-Libyan_Memories_-_part_one_A-Z_and_Tripoli.html
Jim Keeble, 2009	http://www.travelintelligence.com/travel-writing/weekending-libya
Hlwdgrl, 2008	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/ShowUserReviews-g293807-d318012-r126500247-Tripoli_s_Medina-Tripoli_Tripoli_District.html
traveller1230_10, 2010	http://www.tripadvisor.com/ShowUserReviews-g424912-d323961-r90274710-Leptis_Magna-Al_Khums_Al_Marqab_District.html
Cosmo44, 2007	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/ShowUserReviews-g424912-d323961-r49191090-Leptis_Magna-Al_Khums_Al_Marqab_District.html
Sears-Collins, 2012	http://www.visahunter.com/visa/libya/how-to-get-a-tourist-visa-for-libya/
Briginshaw, 2001	http://www.highbeam.com/doc/1G1-69709357.html
Gobbledyspook, 2012	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/ShowUserReviews-g293807-d301269-r143334214-Corinthia_Hotel_Tripoli-Tripoli_Tripoli_District.html
Yves C, 2012	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/ShowUserReviews-g293807-d301269-r133354206-Corinthia_Hotel_Tripoli-Tripoli_Tripoli_District.html
philannie, 2009	http://www.travelblog.org/Africa/Libya/Tripoli/blog-539385.html
malcognito, 2010	http://www.travelblog.org/Africa/Libya/Tripoli/blog-488209.html
Ken, 2010	http://www.travbuddy.com/travel-blogs/77983/
Libyatravelandtours, 2012	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/Attraction_Review-g293807-d318012-Reviews-Tripoli_s_Medina-Tripoli_Tripoli_District.html
magvey, 2011	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/Attraction_Review-g424912-d323961-Reviews-Leptis_Magna-Al_Khums_Al_Marqab_District.html
AussieroversAmman, 2012	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/ShowUserReviews-g293807-d301269-r137317393-Corinthia_Hotel_Tripoli-Tripoli_Tripoli_District.html
DYSMoscow, 2010	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/ShowUserReviews-g293807-d1510012-r115202502-Al_Waddan_Hotel-Tripoli_Tripoli_District.html
tomek18pl, 2007	http://www.sianrobinsondavies.com/themanandhisstreet.htm
Bob and Sherri, 2010	http://wander-wege.blogspot.co.uk/2010_07_01_archive.html
Nomen_Nescio74, 2010	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/ShowUserReviews-g424912-d323961-r119131610-Leptis_Magna-Al_Khums_Al_Marqab_District.html
Peter L, 2006	http://www.tripadvisor.com/ShowUserReviews-g424912-d323961-r6009501-Leptis_Magna-Al_Khums_Al_Marqab_District.html
Rumples, 2011	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/ShowUserReviews-g293807-d942286-r117577223-Al_Athar_The_Ruins-Tripoli_Tripoli_District.html
Maine Explorer, 2011	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/ShowUserReviews-g424912-d323961-r126215951-Leptis_Magna-Al_Khums_Al_Marqab_District.html
Arimaya, 2007	http://www.tripadvisor.ie/ShowUserReviews-g293807-d600549-r126500056-The_Arch_of_Marcus_Aurelius-Tripoli_Tripoli_District.html#REVIEWS
Pablo1000, 2007	http://www.tripadvisor.co.uk/Hotel_Review-g424913-d1086742-Reviews-or10-Dar_Ghadames_Hotel-Ghadamis_Nalut_District.html
travelmad9, 2010	http://www.tripadvisor.com/ShowUserReviews-g293807-d301269-r61275528-Corinthia_Hotel_Tripoli-Tripoli_Tripoli_District.html
Llyw, 2012	http://www.tripadvisor.ca/Attraction_Review-g424912-d323961-Reviews-Leptis_Magna-Al_Khums_Al_Marqab_District.html
TheWanderingCamel, 2005	http://www.virtualtourist.com/travel/Africa/Libya/Warnings_or_Dangers-Libya-TG-C-1.html

Source: Compiled by the author

4.5.3 Triangulation of Methods and Sources of Data

The data collection process involves triangulation of the data collection methods and data sources. Guion, Diehl and McDonald, (2011), Mathison (1988) and Shenton (2004) state that triangulation is used to broaden the researcher's understanding of the topic, and to add to confidence in the finding's reliability and credibility. The use of multiple methods, or triangulation methods, is in order to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). Triangulation was established by using various data sources, data collection methods, and by collecting a range of views among respondents from different groups. Guion *et al.* (2011: 1) contend that "data triangulation involves using different sources of information in order to increase the validity of a study". The use of multiple methods, or method triangulation, is in order to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question. In this study, primary data were collected using interviews and observations, and various types of secondary data were collected, not only during the interviews but throughout the study period. These varied research methods and data sources helped to increase the findings' reliability. The data collection methods and sources used in this study to facilitate triangulation are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 3-5: Types of Data and the Methods and Sources Used for Data Collection

Type of Data		Method	Source of Data
Primary Data	Interview transcripts	Semi-structured, face-to-face interviews	Supply side actors: Officials from General Tourism Board (GTB) Actors from the public sector at local level related to tourism Actors from the private sector related to tourism
	Unstructured observations	Field visits to take photographs and make personal notes	Demand side actors: Domestic tourists International tourists
Secondary Data	Government documents, drafts of tourism plans, statistical documents for the Leptis Magna site and Saraya museum accessed from their management, tour operators' itineraries, leaflets and brochures, websites of tourism-related organisations, blogs.		

Source: the author

The varying methods and data sources allowed the researcher to assess the issues from different types of data and using different methods. This helped in assessing the validity of the study's interpretations and in identifying potential contradictions and complexities.

4.6 Developing the Interview Themes and Questions

In order to maintain consistency between the research aim and objectives and the data for operationalizing the deductively developed frameworks, seven pre-defined broad themes were developed in advance. These were used in designing the interview questions in order to maintain some control or focus in the interview process. There are relatively fewer questions on economic resilience rather than on product and product relationship issues. This is because the study focuses relatively more on the aspects of tourism products in destinations. The researcher was aware that what was important for tourism suppliers would not necessarily be important for tourists. Thus, to avoid misunderstanding of the interview questions, two groups of interview questions were developed: one for the supply side actors and the other for interviewing international and domestic tourists. The objectives behind the questions for the two groups were kept the same by adhering to the same seven pre-defined broad themes, but the wording of the questions was adapted to each group of interviewees' concerns and viewpoints, and to the knowledge that they could provide. The lists of themes and associated questions, and related research objectives, for the supply side actors and also for the tourist interviewees, are presented in Tables 4.6 and 4.7 respectively.

Table 3-6: Interview Themes and Objectives Related to Supply Side Interview Questions

Broad Themes	Interview questions and themes related to Objectives 2, 3, 4, and 5	
A -Types of tourist attractions and products	1	Is it possible to put the many tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms into broad categories or types-and, if so, what are they?
B -Tourist attractions and products, and tourist numbers	2	Are there sufficient tourist attractions or products in Tripoli/Alkhoms to individually attract very large numbers of tourists?
	3	Have any of the tourist attractions or products in Tripoli/Alkhoms that individually attract very large numbers of tourists been developed or opened in the past ten years?
	4	Are there sufficient tourist attractions or products in Tripoli/Alkhoms catering for specialist interests and attract fairly small numbers of special interest tourists?
	5	Is there a sufficient number and range of tourist attractions or products in Tripoli/Alkhoms for tourists who stay there for a week or more?
	6	Have any of the tourist attractions or products in Tripoli/Alkhoms that cater for specialist interests and attract fairly small numbers of special interest tourists been developed or opened in the past ten years?
C -Mix or diversity of tourist attractions and products-product diversification and concentration	7	Is there an appropriate mix or diversity of tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms, and why do you think that?
	8	Is there an appropriate mix of broad overall themes for the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms, and why do you think that?

	9	Has the mix or diversity of tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms improved or deteriorated in the past ten years, and why do you think that?
	10	Are there any gaps in the mix of tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms, and why do you think that?
	11	Is there a need for more tourist attractions and products that appeal to very large numbers of tourists, and why do you think that?
	12	Is there a need for more tourist attractions and products that attract smaller numbers of tourists with specialist interests, and why do you think that?
	13	Are there any plans or strategies to broaden the mix or diversity of tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms, and, if so, what are these plans?
	14	Are there any plans or strategies for the future development of new or improved tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms?
	15	How effective do you consider the plans or strategies to be for the future development of tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms?
D -Different types of tourists and the tourist attractions and products	16	Are there any differences in the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms that are visited by international tourists as compared with domestic tourists? If so, what are the differences?
	17	Have there been any changes over the past ten years in the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms that are visited by international tourists?
	18	Have there been any changes over the past ten years in the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms that are visited by domestic tourists?
	19	Are there any differences in the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms that are visited by tourists here just for 1 or 2 days compared with those visited by tourists for a week or more?
E -Packaging and imaging of tourist attractions and products	20	Which tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms are often included in packages put together by tour operators?
	21	Are some tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms frequently included in packages by tour operators on the basis of some overall theme, and, if so, what are the themes?
	22	Do the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms cooperate sufficiently with each other in order to share ideas, develop their products together and to market together?
	23	Does Tripoli/Alkhoms have a clear and coherent image as a tourist destination, and why do you think that?
	24	Is there a need to make the image of Tripoli/Alkhoms as a tourist destination more clear and coherent, and why do you think that?
	25	Are there any plans or strategies to make the image of Tripoli/Alkhoms as a tourist destination more clear and coherent?
F -Tourists' satisfaction	26	Based on your experience what features of the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms are tourists most satisfied with?
	27	Based on your experience what features of the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms are tourists most dissatisfied with?
	28	Are there plans and strategies to improve the satisfaction of tourists with the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms, and if yes, what are they?

G -Economic resilience	29	Is there scope for Tripoli/Alkhoms to become more reliant on tourism, or is it too risky for this destination to become more reliant on tourism?
	30	Are the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms managed separately or collectively for mutual benefit?
	31	Do the tourist attractions and products effectively provide maximum economic returns and jobs for local people in Tripoli/Alkhoms?
	32	Have the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/ Alkhoms been developed in ways that best meet local community needs?
	33	Is the type of tourism found in Tripoli/Alkhoms likely to withstand future economic recessions in the world economy?
	34	Are sufficient domestic tourists attracted to the tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms to compensate for any decline in the number of international tourists?
	35	Is there a sufficient range of tourist attractions and products in Tripoli/Alkhoms to enable the destination to withstand changes in tourist tastes?
	36	Is there effective planning and implementation of that planning in order to improve the tourism industry in Tripoli/Alkhoms?

Source: the author

Table 3-7: Interview Themes and Objectives Related to Demand Side Interview Questions

Broad Themes	Interview questions and themes related to Objectives 2, 3, 4, and 5	
Introductory questions	I	Is this your first visit to this attraction in Tripoli/ Alkhoms?
	II	Are you coming to Tripoli/Alkhoms for work or for leisure?
	III	Are travelling with your own or family group?
	IV	Are you travelling independently or are you with an organised group?
A -Types of tourist attractions and products	1	What broad types of tourist attractions and tourist places do you think are available in Tripoli/Alkhoms?
	2	Which attractions have you visited in Tripoli /Alkhoms?
	3	Which attractions would you love to visit in Tripoli/ Alkhoms?
B -Tourist attractions and products and tourist numbers	4	Do you think there are enough things to see and do in tourist places in Tripoli/Alkhoms or that there are not very many tourist attractions to visit?
	5	Is it easy to find out about and access the tourist attractions in Tripoli/Alkhoms?
	6	Were there many tourists visiting the tourist attractions in Tripoli/Alkhoms, if so, why?
	7	Are there one or more attractions in Tripoli/ Alkhoms that you would certainly want to see?
	8	Were there certain attractions in Tripoli/Alkhoms that prompted you to choose to visit Tripoli/ Alkhoms?
C -Mix or diversity of tourist attractions and products-product diversification and concentration	9	Is there something to interest everybody in your group in Tripoli/Alkhoms, e.g. for children, disabled people, old people, families, etc.?
	10	Do you have special interests regarding tourist attractions, if so, what tourist places in Tripoli/Alkhoms do you think meet your special interests?
	11	What could you do in Tripoli/Alkhoms that is connected to your special interests?
	12	What tourist attractions should be developed in Tripoli/Alkhoms?

	13	Can you list the tourist places you have visited in Tripoli/ Alkhoms?
D -Different types of tourists and the tourist attractions and products	14	Have you visited Tripoli/ Alkhoms before, and, if yes, when?
	15	How often have you visited Tripoli/ Alkhoms in the past 10 years?
	16	Have you noticed any changes in the things to see and do while you have been here over the past 10 years?
	17	Are you visiting Tripoli/ Alkhoms this time with a large group or small group of tourists or as an individual tourist, and why?
E -Packaging and imaging of tourist attractions and products	18	How did you find out about Tripoli/ Alkhoms?
	19	How many nights are you spending in visiting tourist attractions in Tripoli/Alkhoms and is this long enough to visit all tourist places in Tripoli/ Alkhoms?
	20	Who by and how was your package made?
	21	Is your visit today organised through a tour operator, if so, what sort of packages are you on?
	22	What other places are included in your package?
	23	Are there other places you have visited/ will visit in Tripoli/Alkhoms, which are not included in your travel package?
	24	How did you imagine the tourist attractions in Tripoli/Alkhoms, and what supported your thoughts about your trip?
	25	Are there any differences between the image and reality, if so, what are they?
	26	What do you think could be done to make the image of Tripoli/ Alkhoms, as a tourist destination, stronger and more appealing?
	27	Did the tourist places in Tripoli/ Alkhoms confuse/amaze you in their thematic packaging?
F -Tourist satisfaction	28	Taking the best attractions you have been to, what were they? And what appealed to you about them?
	29	Taking the least satisfying attractions you have been to on your visit so far, why were you not satisfied with them?
	30	Have your expectations been met, if so, how?
	31	Will you come back and recommend Tripoli/ Alkhoms to other tourists, if so, why?
G -Economic resilience	32	Is your tour operator located outside Tripoli/Alkhoms? If so, is it an international company?
	33	Have you experienced any sort of challenges on your holiday in Tripoli/ Alkhoms, and, if so, what are they?
	34	Did you use local products and services during your trip in Tripoli/ Alkhoms? If yes, which local products and services did you enjoy most?
	35	Are there enough of the local products and services that you need during your trip?
	36	What do you make of the quality of the local products and services?

Source: the author

4.7 Interviewing Supply Side Actors

The thematic content of the interview questions for people from the supply side in the tourism sector was strongly guided by the information needed to accomplish the study's objectives. The objectives largely focused on the concentration and diversification of

tourism products and the relationships between tourism products and economic resilience for the two destinations. Thus, the interviews sought to gain relevant in-depth information from knowledgeable respondents working in government, particularly in the tourism sector, from public sector tourism officials at local level in Tripoli and Alkhoms, and from the private sector working in tourism-related businesses, including tour operators, tourist guides, managers of local beach resorts, and hotel owners.

4.7.1 Sampling Techniques for Supply Side Actors

Purposive sampling, snowball sampling and more random sampling were used in identifying potential interviewees from the supply side. In this sampling, the researcher needed to be clear about the research's principle themes and to have a clear rationale for the sampling design (Creswell, 1998). According to Kumar (2005: 164), "sampling is the process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (the sampling population) to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of an unknown piece of information, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group". At the same time, qualitative research does not claim to be fully representative, and does not claim to be fully generalizable to the whole population of all potential respondents. A small, purposeful sample of knowledgeable respondents was used in this qualitative research in order to provide important information, and they are not necessarily "representative" of a larger group, although care was taken in selecting the range of respondents (Hancock, 1998; Sale, Lohfeld and Brazil, 2002).

The size of the sample in qualitative research is usually related to some notion of a saturation point, which is taken as the point at which the researcher feels that no more or little further valuable information is likely to be obtained from further interviews (Kumar, 2005). Ritchie, Lewis and Gillian (2003: 84) identify seven factors that determine the sample size in qualitative research: "the heterogeneity of the population; the number of selection criteria; the extent to which 'nesting' of criteria is needed; groups of special interest that require intensive study; multiple samples within one study; types of data collection methods use; and the budget and resources available". The sample size in qualitative research cannot be determined in terms of a specific number since the focus is on the quality of the information gained and the depth of insights provided, and this does not necessarily depend on the number of interviewees. Thus, the target sample size may

change as the interview process progresses, and interviewing of new people ceases when regular repetition of answers and themes begins to occur.

In this study, the sample was limited to those people working at different levels of the tourism and hospitality sector, in particular those people who had been employed in this sector for a fairly long time as they were considered to be the most knowledgeable about tourism development. Thus, they were selected purposefully on the basis of their ability to provide relevant and detailed information in response to the research questions. Creswell, (1998: 118) states that, "the purposeful selection of participants represents a key decision point in a qualitative study". In this study the purposeful selection of the sample was based on the key criterion of their affiliation to an organisation related directly or indirectly to the tourism industry (Egan, 2010).

In practice, because the researcher lacked full information about potentially knowledgeable people in the tourism sector, a snowball technique was applied to this study, where early interviewees were asked to suggest other knowledgeable people for subsequent interviews. In addition, the sampling process for choosing private sector tourism actors was partly based on convenience, except in the case of the four tour operators, who were selected according to the snowball method. The more convenient method involved choosing tourist guides, managers of hotels, restaurants, and beach resorts partly according their availability and willingness to participate in interviews, but care was also taken to get a spread by type according to the important industry sectors in the case study areas (Marshall, 1996).

The supply side sample included government officials working for the General Tourism Board (GTB), government officials working in local government tourism authorities, staff from local public sector tourism organisations, and managers and owners of private sector businesses related to the tourism and hospitality sector. Table 4.8 lists the 30 interviewees from the supply side, who included 11 governmental officials. It is worth mentioning here that the government's staff working in local government tourism authorities directly follow the central tourism authority represented by the General Board Tourism (GTB), and also that these organisations do not directly deal with tourists. Thus, respondents from both the central and local government authorities were categorised as government officials.

Table 3-8: Characteristics and Sample Size of the Tourism Supply Side Actors

Categories and Numbers of Respondents		Code used in thesis
Government officials (11 officials)		
1	The chairman of the Monitoring Committee and supervisor of the project for the modernization of tourism development	Government official 1
	The coordinator and head of the information section for tourism development projects	Government official 2
	Secretary of the General Tourism Board (GTB)	Government official 3
	The head of the tourism planning and training department in the GTB	Government official 4
	The head of the tourism marketing department in the GTB	Government official 5
	The head of the tourist information and statistics department in the GTB	Government official 6
	The head of the handicraft industry department in the GTB	Government official 7
	The head of the department of handicraft development and quality in the GTB	Government official 8
	The head of the local tourism authority in Tripoli	Government official 9
	The head of the local tourism authority in Alkhoms	Government official 10
	The head of the marketing section in the tourism authority in Alkhoms.	Government official 11
Interviewees from Public and Private Sector Related to Tourism (19 Actors)		
2	The director of archaeology and museums in Tripoli	Public sector actor 1
	The manager of Libya Museum in Tripoli	Public sector actor 2
	The manager of Saraya Museum in Tripoli	Public sector actor 3
	The director of archaeology and museums in Alkhoms	Public sector actor 4
	The manager of Alwaddan Hotel in Tripoli	Public sector actor 5
	Tourist guide class A	Private sector actor 6
	The manager of Severous hotel in Alkhoms	Private sector actor 7
	The manager of Sindbad local beach resort in Alkhoms	Private sector actor 8
	The manager of Bisis local beach resort in Alkhoms	Private sector actor 9
	The manager of Alhasanaen hotel in Alkhoms	Private sector actor 10
	The manager of Negaza hotel in Alkhoms	Private sector actor 11
	The manager of Lebda (Aljarra) local restaurant, Alkhoms	Private sector actor 12
	The manager of Arkno tour operator in Tripoli (tourist guide class A)	Private sector actor 13
	The manager of C-Libya tour operator in Tripoli (tourist guide class A)	Private sector actor 14
	Local tourist guide in Tripoli (class B)	Private sector actor 15
	The manager of Asafwa hotel in Tripoli (via Skype)	Private sector actor 16
	The manager of the local beach in Tripoli	Private sector actor 17
	The operations manager of Fezzan tour operator in Tripoli	Private sector actor 18
The manager of Taknes tour operator in Tripoli	Private sector actor 19	

Source: the author

There were also 19 representatives of public and private sector tourism organisations, including 11 interviewees from Tripoli and 9 from Alkhoms. Public and private sector related tourism were put into one category in Table 4.8 because people from both sectors often directly deal with tourists. Thus, they might know more about tourists and day-to-day processes of tourism management and business than did the government officials, who know more about plans and strategies for tourism development.

To maintain confidentiality, especially for the public and private sector actors, each participant was given a code in Table 4.8, which is used when reporting the results.

4.7.2 Administering the Interviews with Supply Side Actors

The researcher faced challenges in accessing interviewees, especially the high ranking government and public sector officials, because many were not inclined to participate in the interviews, claiming that they did not have the time to take part. Therefore, the researcher was compelled to utilize personal relationships and networks to reach some of the targeted people. In Libya personal, family and clan relationships are an effective tool to gain access to people, and also to gain their trust. Since the researcher had had very limited previous contact with people working in Libya's tourism sector, he also utilized a snowball method, asking interviewees to suggest other potential interviewees. Most respondents were helpful, providing the researcher with unofficial recommendation letters that helped him to access other necessary interviewees from government and public departments.

The researcher assured the interviewees that the interview would not touch on any sensitive issues, and he explained that the interviewee could ask at any time for clarification and that they could refuse to answer any question or could withdraw from the interview without any obligations. Emphasising the ethical issues at the start helped the researcher to build trust and an ambience of collaboration, and also to gain valuable data (Finn, *et al.*, 2000). The interviews began with a brief general introduction and explanation of the research's purpose. General questions were also placed at the start of the interview in order to create a comfortable environment for respondents as well as to set the context for the interview (Jennings, 2001).

It was noticed that tour operators, tourist guides and hoteliers were easier to interview, and that enabled the researcher to build a rapport with them. This might have been helped by communication with people being a fundamental aspect of their jobs. Interviews with governmental people, however, were often more formal, sometimes even having a slightly tense atmosphere. These interviewees sometimes tried to speak in general terms in order to gloss over the situation with regard to tourism in Libya, and they tended to be very careful when speaking about political and management problems that influenced tourism development. They tended to blame the "state" rather than blaming Gaddafi's regime or particular officials. For example, one interviewee stated that "the state does not want to

invest in tourism as it prefers to invest in oil". This response conceals the fact that the state had opened the door for local and foreign investors to invest in tourism projects, but that Gaddafi's sudden interventions had led investors to prefer to invest instead in oil as a quick profit sector. The environment of suspicion restricted the researcher's attempts to delve deeply in questioning the ideology that controlled and distributed decision-making powers, and it was also crucial to assess critically the meanings behind their words. Also it was noticed that the governmental officials did not accept criticism of the performance of the tourism industry, and they were quick to state that problems were not the tourism industry's responsibility but the responsibility of other sectors. Such responses reflected how deeply rooted a "blame culture" was in Libya's public sector organisations, and the extent to which they lacked a collaboration culture. Thus, to avoid cancellations of interviews, political and corruption issues were avoided.

Most supply side participants were interviewed in their place of work, and that gave the researcher the opportunity to acquire some useful documents from the participants' offices. One person from the private sector agreed to be interviewed via Skype, in part due to the difficulties in conducting interviews by telephone in Libya. The Arabic language was used with all of them.

4.8 Interviewing Demand Side Actors

Interviews with international tourists and also domestic tourists were another key primary data source required to accomplish the research objectives. International tourists' views might be expected to differ from those of domestic tourists as Muslim Arab culture is very different from Western culture. Such differences could have affected the ways in which the different tourists consumed tourism products, and also could have affected the strategies for tourism product development in ways that could increase or reduce conflict between cultures. Cultural issues and contradictions could have reduced flexibility in the consumption of tourism products due to a limited substitutability between the international and domestic tourists, especially in times of economic downturn, which in turn could have influenced a destination's economic resilience. Thus, there was a need to understand the different tourist attitudes about tourism products and how they were packaged and consumed, including tourists' perceptions about product quality, variety, diversification, and gaps in provision. As mentioned earlier, the two sets of interview questions were built on different wording but based on the same six themes. International tourists were

interviewed in Tripoli hotels the day before they left to return to their home country. This was done to ensure that they would be able to provide sufficient information about their stay in Libya in the two case study areas. Domestic tourists, on the other hand, were interviewed in the beach resort of Villa Celine and the Leptis Magna site in Alkhoms, and the Saraya museum in Tripoli.

4.8.1 Sampling Technique for Selection of Tourists

A sample of 13 tourists was interviewed, with 7 domestic tourists and 6 international tourists, as shown in Table 4.9. There were some constraints for these interviews due to the tourists' tight schedules and the limited time they could offer for the interviews. However, this quite small number of interviewees generally proved satisfactory because the interviewer noticed that often the same answers were repeated, suggesting that possibly limited new information would be gained by conducting further interviews. The interviews were conducted with international tourists who were English language speakers in order to avoid translation difficulties. By contrast, the Arabic language was used with domestic tourists. A reasonable spread of tourists was sought in terms of gender, age and different types of travel packages purchased. All tourists were sampled based on their availability at the hotels or tourist sites (as mentioned earlier), and on their agreement to be interviewed.

Table 3-9: Characteristics and Sample Size of Demand Side Tourists

Categories and Locations of Interviews	Code
Domestic Tourists (7 interviewees)	Domestic Tourist
Saraya Museum in Tripoli	1
Saraya Museum in Tripoli	2
Tajoura beach resort in Tripoli	3
Garabouli beach resort in Tripoli	4
Villa Celine in Alkhoms	5
Alkhoms (Ledba) beach resort	6
Leptis Magna Archaeological site	7
International Tourists (6 interviewees)	International Tourist
Asafwa Hotel, Tripoli	1,2,3,4
Alwaddan Hotel, Tripoli	5,6

Source: the author

4.8.2 Sampling of Tour Operators' Packages

Additionally, data about tour packages were gathered from tour operators working both inside the country and abroad. The information about the fixed tour packages offered by the tour operators was collected from the websites of all operators established by the

researcher to operate tours in Libya. This was based on an extensive search of the web, and all packages offered by those tour operators were included because all of them included Tripoli. The tour operators chosen for the analysis were selected because they provided detailed information on the internet in the English language about the itineraries in each package, as this was needed for the analyses. Some of these tour operators are Libya-based, some are UK-based. Less attention was given to the tour operators' locations in the analysis. It is possible that there might be some modest differences for tour operators not putting their itineraries on the web or for tour operators based in non-English speaking countries. The tours promoted by the tour operators examined here determined the tourists' movements through the itineraries they followed in each package, and the information was analysed to identify any complementarity and compatibility linkages between the attractions and locations visited in the two case study areas. Table 4.10 lists the tour operators' websites that were accessed and utilized in this research, and their travel packages were cross-checked against other primary and documented information.

Table 3-10: List of Tour Operators Accessed for the Tour Package Analysis

No	Tour Operator Company	Tour Operators' websites accessed in July 2011
1	Wesal Tours	http://www.wesaltours.com/tour1.html
2	Eye of Libya	http://www.eveoflibya.com/our-tours.php
3	Caravansarie Tours	http://www.caravanserai-tours.com/libya_taylor.htm
4	Taknes	http://www.taknes.com/05_tours.html
5	Azjar Tours	http://www.azjar-libyatours.com/
6	Libya Travel & Tours	http://www.libyatranslandtours.com/libya-tours/
7	C-Libya	http://c-libya.com/tours.php
8	Audley Travel	http://www.audleytravel.com/Destinations/North-Africa-and-The-Middle-East/Libya/Itinerary-Ideas.aspx
9	Arkno	http://www.arkno.com/our_tours.html
10	Silk Road and Beyond	http://silkroadandbeyond.co.uk/world-regions/north-africa/libya/private-groups
11	Raki Tours	http://www.rakitour.com/programs.htm
12	Simoon Travel	http://www.simoontravel.com/index.php?q=libya_tours
13	Shati Zuara	http://www.shatizuara.com/English/ourtours.htm
14	Temehu Tours	http://www.temehu.com/tours/introduction.htm

Source: Compiled by the author

4.8.3 Administering the Tourists' Interviews

Interviewing tourists was difficult in Libya for many reasons. First, the tourists themselves, in particular international tourists, had very tight holiday schedules, thus, the average length of each interview was only 20 minutes; second, it was important to get verbal permission from the security person accompanying the tour group; third, interviewing people in public areas using recording equipment was not especially comfortable for either

the researcher or the respondents. Therefore, the researcher prioritised the most important questions, leaving the less important ones to the last few minutes.

4.9 Piloting the Study

A pilot exercise was essential to identify drawbacks in the data collection methods and in order to make necessary adjustments to the practical and methodological aspects of collecting the data. Kim (2011) identifies the benefits of conducting pilot research, as follows:

- Identifying issues and barriers related to the recruitment of potential participants.
- Engaging oneself as a researcher in a culturally appropriate way and from an empathetic perspective.
- Reflecting on the importance of the survey process and on the difficulty of conducting empathetic inquiry, and
- Modifying the interview questions.

In the pilot the first three interviewees from the tourism supply side worked in different sectors: a government tourism actor, a local public sector tourism authority official in Tripoli, and a private sector tour operator in Tripoli. All three participants were asked the same interview questions and were asked whether they found each question easy to understand, and if not, notes were taken to record their suggestions. Amendments were made later to clarify the questions and make them instantly understandable. Those initial three interviewees were retained in the study because they offered valuable information and because the changes in the initial questions were not substantial. It was decided not to include tourists in the pilot study because it was not easy for tourists to make suggestions due to the very limited time available for their interviews.

During the interviews, the researcher noticed that the high ranking government interviewees, especially those who were postgraduates, understood the meaning of the term "primary tourism products" as it is defined in this study, while lower ranked employees, both in the public and private sectors, understood the same term in a different way. They understood it as the physical products, specifically handicrafts and souvenirs. Thus, to avoid confusion, before starting to ask the interview questions the researcher clarified the meaning of the term according to the definition used in this study.

4.10 Preparing the Collected Data for Analysis

Each interviewee was given a specific code, as shown in Tables 4.8 and 4.9, in order to maintain confidentiality and to manage the data in later processes and to avoid mismanagement. Translation and transcription for each interview was completed, with each response or opinion entered under the related question and related broad theme. Irrelevant answers were excluded from transcription in order to save time and effort. Transcription helped the researcher to become familiar with the data in terms of identifying various arguments, establishing the more and less frequently highlighted arguments, and also new but relevant themes raised by the interviewees. In preparation for data analysis, the criteria of recurrence of themes and the importance of the arguments were taken into account. Considering these criteria helped in the processes of analysis and interpretation. The observation data were prepared in the same way in relation to themes and arguments raised by interviewees or new themes. The secondary data were also organised for comparison and cross-checking with the primary data, and this was left open for more additions because collection took place over a longer period of time. All the data collected were stored as hard copies and also in electronic form to await analysis and interpretation.

4.11 Data Analysis Process

Unlike quantitative research, which offers an unambiguous agreed set of instructions and rules for analysing the numerical data, qualitative research has no completely clear-cut tools for handling and analysing the qualitative materials. Despite this, it can yield meaningful and useful results (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Bryman and Bell, 2011).

The major theoretical objective of this study is to conceptualize relationships between tourism products, tourism product diversification and a destination's economic resilience, and to achieve this research assessed two study cases individually and comparatively. This process facilitated exploration of whether differences in tourist product diversification influenced the ability of destinations to adapt to changes, and consideration of whether the general framework and its associated frameworks needed to be reassessed or revised. "The interpretation of the case study's findings aims at confirming, challenging, and extending the theoretical foundation.....the objective is to re-formulate, fine, tune, and complement the propositions by applying the case study findings to the conceptual framework" (Saubert, 2005: 77).

Due to the diversity of interviewees in terms of their professions and the sectors from which they were drawn, a large amount of primary interview data were collected and then transcribed. To effectively manage and organise the results of the data analysis, a decision was taken to divide the findings into three chapters based on three broad but fundamental concepts that underpin this research. Hence, Chapter Six includes the findings concerning the primary tourism products, Chapter Seven includes the findings concerning tourism product concentration and diversification and relationships, and finally, Chapter Eight concerns the findings associated with the tourist destination's economic resilience. This step was important to avoid unnecessary overlap and duplication in the data analysis.

After the data from each interview transcription data had been read thoroughly, the main issues and arguments raised by the interviewees were teased out. This approach is based on the argumentation theory by which data that provides valid evidence is extracted to assess a claim in order to reach a conclusion (Attride-Stirling, 2001). The argumentation theory "defines and elaborates the typical, formal elements of arguments as a means of exploring the connections between the explicit statements and the implicit meanings in people's discourse" (Attride-Stirling, 2001: 387).

In order to reduce the amount of findings, content analysis was applied (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). Elo and Kyngas, (2007: 108) argue that "Content analysis allows the researcher to test theoretical issues to enhance understanding of the data". In this study, the seven pre-defined main themes that were developed in advance, as shown in Tables 4.6 and 4.7, were used as the initial guidance to collect and classify the evidence in order to facilitate answering the research question. "A theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set" (Braun and Clarke, 2006: 10). The many themes and arguments raised during the interviews were teased out and according to their contextual meanings they were classified and grouped together around broader themes. These broader themes were then reinterpreted in relation to the seven main pre-defined themes and brought together to constitute structures and sub-structures for inclusion in the three findings chapters.

To minimise bias that might have resulted from the translation from Arabic to English by the researcher, it was decided to avoid the coding of just a few specific words found in the text because such short sections of discourse could result in the loss of the context within

which these words appeared. Bryman and Bell (2011) point out two problems of coding that could be misleading in qualitative analysis. One is that coding could take a short part of interesting speech out of its contextual setting, and the second criticism is that the fragmentation of data within coding can lose the narrative flow of what people say. For this reason the analysis was undertaken manually, retaining a focus on the scope and the focus of themes rather than coding every single word in the basic text. It was essential to revisit the transcriptions many times in order to ensure that the collected evidence remained in the context in which it was raised. This was time consuming, but necessary, as inappropriate translations from Arabic to English language by the researcher could have skewed the results because "a translation that is linguistically correct may still be of poor quality from a psychological point of view" (Van de Vijver and Tanzer, 2004: 122).

Therefore, the extraction of themes and sub-themes was undertaken using manual gathering and quantifying of occurrences with the same broad meanings in order to identify the arguments. This helped to refine the themes into more abstracted themes. Thus, thematic analysis and content analysis techniques were used to make sense of the findings and the arguments raised by the interviewees. Bryman and Bell (2011) state that searching for themes is an essential activity in most types of qualitative data analysis, including grounded theory, critical discourse analysis, qualitative content analysis and narrative analysis. Content analysis, according to Bryman and Bell (2011), is about uncovering the superficial content of the issue in question and interpreting the meanings behind the apparent content. They added that "content analysis becomes applicable to many different forms of unstructured information, such as transcripts of semi- and unstructured interviews and even qualitative case studies of organisations" (2011: 290). The same procedures were applied to the observation data, archival data, and the data collected from bloggers and reviewers, with these data categorized under the same themes as the primary data.

The process of raw data analysis adhered to two standards in order to avoid bias. The first was to focus on objectivity by linking all the respondents' answers to the research objectives and interview questions through establishing pre-determined broad themes as guidance. This provided a systematic way to analyse the primary and secondary data, including texts and images, by keeping the focus on the objectives and goals of the research reflected by the main broad pre-defined themes. The second standard was to focus on the meanings that lay behind the statements the people expressed rather than counting the specific words, as the recurrence of specific issues might reflect emphasis but not

necessarily importance. Diversity among interviewees in terms of their positions and knowledge could lead to a very important and relevant theme being raised by only a small number of people but that small number should not detract from its importance. Therefore, the focus was on themes and that helped to classify, organise, and interpret the data and link the similar themes together as arguments directed towards reaching conclusions. Thus, the evidence raised by the interviewees and collected from the secondary data was inductively extracted and then deductively classified and analysed. On the other side, thematic analysis was also applied to interpret the pictures taken from the field study or collected from secondary sources in order to assess the merit of the arguments.

The majority of international tourists coming to Libya travel on group fixed packages run by tour operators. Thus, the content of the tour packages provided by the sample of tour operators (see Table 4.10) was analysed in order to recognise the level of compatibility and complementarity between the primary tourism products offered in these packages since tourists visiting on such packages were likely to be offered the same products.

Personal experience and document evidence as well as other sources were also used in order to broaden and deepen the critical understanding by linking such issues as politics, management, power, culture, infrastructure circumstances, budgets and investment aspects. These are all significant issues that can lie beyond people's perceptions but can influence the diversification policies, the patterns of relationships between products, and destination economic resilience.

4.12 Ethical Considerations

Diener and Crandall (1978, cited in Bryman and Bell, 2011) established four ethical principles for conducting research:

- Research should not harm participants.
- Participants should give their consent.
- Privacy should be respected.
- Researcher honesty is essential.

Such principles were taken seriously in order to ensure that this research met the required standards. Although confident that this research would neither physically nor emotionally harm the participants, the researcher explained the topic and the objectives of the study to

all participants so as to convince them about the study's importance. This step helped to encourage respondents to fully co-operate and provide their perspectives freely and in a trustful environment (Clarke, 2006). They were told that they were free to withdraw from the interview or refuse to answer any question and that they should not hesitate to ask for further clarification about any unclear issue. They also were told that they were under no obligation since their participation was voluntary. In addition, all participants were asked in advance for their permission to record the interview since it was difficult to write down everything that was said. And respondents were told that their names would be replaced by codes so that they would remain anonymous. These procedures were taken seriously as a key responsibility of the researcher. In addition, a consent form was prepared in advance for them to sign (Appendix 1). However, because a personal relationship of trust had been established prior to conducting the interviews, all the participants from the supply side preferred not to sign it. This was also because they believed that the information they were providing at the request of the researcher was not sensitive and would not harm anyone.

4.13 Conclusion

To examine the research problem and to achieve the research objectives, a case study design was chosen as the study's research strategy. Two case study areas in Libya - Tripoli and Alkhoms - were chosen for the fieldwork. Data were collected by using qualitative, in-depth semi-structured face-to-face interviews with respondents from the supply and demand sides of the tourism industry, while various other data sources were also utilised. Following the fieldwork, the collected data were interpreted and analysed and they were used to evaluate the applicability and value of the frameworks that were deductively developed earlier based on the research literature. The data analysis and interpretation presented in Chapters Six to Eight provide the results of this study. The presentation of the results is based on the themes identified in the frameworks, thus helping to understand and evaluate the research issues and frameworks. The next chapter explains the specific context for the case study areas.

Chapter 5 : Context to the Case Study Areas

5.1 Introduction

This chapter contains two main sections. The first reviews the context of tourism and socio-economic and political development in Libya, while the second reviews the context relevant to tourism product concentration and diversification and destination resilience in the two case study areas, which are Tripoli and Alkhoms (including the historic remains of Leptis Magna). The Libyan context is reviewed in part because tourism in both of these city regions is not isolated from tourism in Libya more generally, especially as most tourists visit these two city regions among a wider range of places in the country. It is important to note here that this study was carried out in 2010, and thus much of the discussion is of the contexts during that period. This chapter also ends with a brief review of the political disruption that happened in Libya after conducting this study, and the implications of such changes for the tourism sector's future development.

Regarding tourism in Libya, it is worth mentioning that relatively little has been published on tourism in Libya, so there is a need to explain here the context to tourism product development (in this Chapter 5) and to explain the types of tourism products (in the next Chapter 6) in Libya. This necessitated considerable original research, and thus the research findings in these two chapters have considerable value in their own right as they fill a considerable and broad research gap on Libya's tourism.

5.2 The Overall Context of Libya

Libya is not well known as an international tourist destination, "Libyan tourism can only be described as emerging" (Jones, 2010: 3), because even until recent years tourism was not among the identified growth sectors for the country's development programmes. Therefore, it is not surprising that there is only limited research literature on Libya's tourism. Libya was chosen in part because it is an unusual tourism destination and also an unusual developing country due to Colonel Gaddafi altering its development quite substantially. It had a particular type of very centralized socialism and ideologies that led to tensions with other nations and that led to it being politically isolated by many countries in the world (Russo, 2004). Therefore, potential tourists have seen it as an unsafe place to visit (Khalifa, 2010; Schwartz, 2007), and it has had substantial negative image issues as a

destination. Because it is an oil state, it has also got rich revenue, so it has not needed to diversify its economic base until recent times, and it has still got considerable amounts of revenue coming from oil (Ross, 2001). Moreover, it should be noted that the country is developing tourism in a Muslim society context.

Political, economic, cultural, environmental, geographical factors influence the forms of tourism product development. Tourism product development, and in particular its diversification, is a complex process often involving satisfying the changing demand of tourists in order to secure the industry's long term profitability (Smith, 1994). Therefore, this section briefly presents the political, socioeconomic, environmental, and cultural themes that affect tourism product development in the country.

Nature's endowment and society's heritage of resources are essential for tourism product diversification. Libya has rich and diverse natural and cultural tourism resources, making the tourism industry one of the country's more important potential economic resources (Jwaili, Brychan and Jones, 2005; Otman and Karlberg, 2007). However, most international tourists come to Libya in groups involved in fixed tour packages that include visits to several tourist sites that are located both inside and outside the geographical boundaries of the case study areas. Thus, the development of international tourism in both cases is influenced by tourism products located in other sites in the country. Therefore, it is useful to briefly review the most important tourist products and tourism resources elsewhere in the country in order to understand the tourism sector's potential as an economic elevator for the national economy, and also because such linkages influence the perception and satisfaction of tourists, which in turn affects their demand patterns, the tourist product development, and consequently the economic resilience in both case study areas.

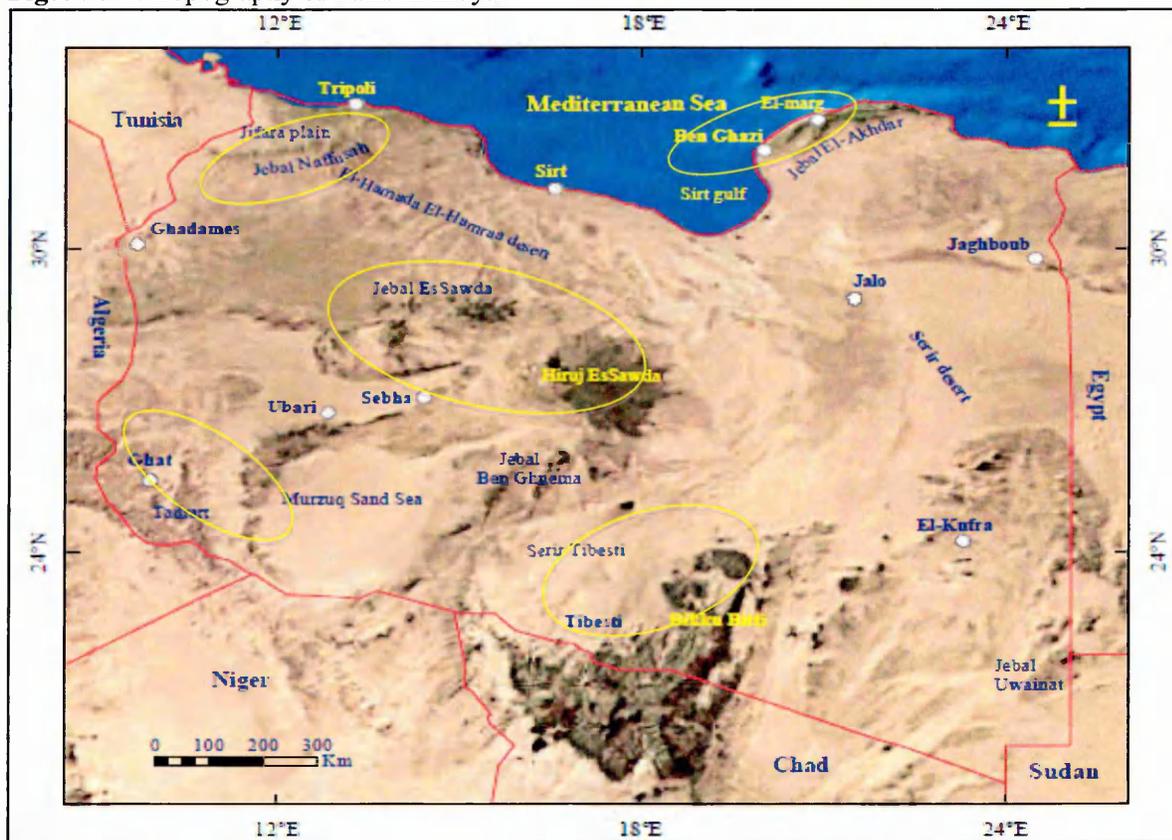
5.2.1 Location, Land, and Climate

Tourism development is substantially influenced by geographical and climatic features. Libya is geographically located in central North Africa, which makes it accessible to European tourism markets. Libya also shares long land borders with six countries: Egypt, Sudan, Chad, Niger, Algeria, and Tunisia, and its long coast on the Mediterranean Sea makes securing its borders a real challenge to prevent illegal migration (Bredeloup and Pliez, 2011), which could negatively influence the image of the country as a tourist

destination because illegal migrants could spread disease, drugs, and crime (Katz, Fox and White, 2011; Dirgha *et al.*, 2011).

Most of the land is desert (Figure 5.1), with large areas of sandy dunes in the Murzuq, Ubari, Serir, Tebisti, and Serir deserts in the south giving good opportunities to the evolution of new types of tourist activities, such as desert adventure, camel caravan tourism, and sand skiing. There is also a narrow coastal strip extending a few kilometres to the south, which makes up the small area most suitable for agriculture and herding. This small area of good agricultural land means the country imports 75% of its food (Coljin, 2010). There are also mountains in areas such as Jabal Nafusa in the west region, which is dominated by the Berber culture, and Jabal Al-akhdar in the east region, in which the ecotourism projects were intended to be established by the government (Rosenthal, 2007) due to the availability of forests alongside the Greek and Roman ruins. There are also mountains in Al-Horuj Aswod in the middle of the country, and the Akakus Mountains in the south, where tourism has developed based on the Tawarq people's culture and desert tourism.

Figure 5-1: Topography of Land in Libya

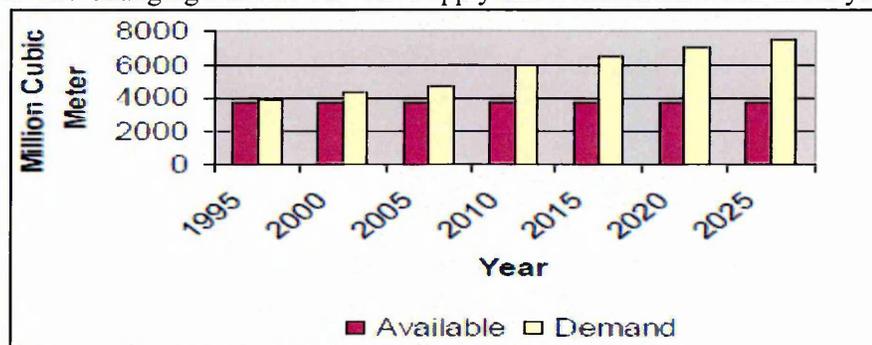


Source: Adapted by the author from El-Tantawi, (2005: 34)

The coastline extends for 2000 km and contains several sandy spots and rocky bays, offering a big opportunity for the emergence of beach tourism in different locations (Goodland, 2008; Otman and Erling, 2007).

The green areas are very limited to small areas in the coastal strip in the western and eastern regions due to the lack of rain. However, rain falls on most parts of the coastal region during the winter, but there is little or no rain in the desert throughout the year, so that Libya is considered an arid and semi-arid country (Salem, 2004). However, shortage in fresh water resources is considered a big natural barrier against tourism development in the whole country, especially in the south. A study by Al-Miludi from Libya's General Water Authority about the balance of water supply and demand in Libya for the year 2025 based on the availability of surface water shows that the development of projects and population growth, including for tourism development, will be severely impacted by shortages of fresh water from surface water and rain. Figure 5.2 shows that the growth of water demand in Libya will double compared with the water supply by 2025. Thus, development of the tourism sector and strategies of tourism product diversification could face real challenges from water shortages in future years due to increased demand from a growing population and for various industries, including tourism, if new water resources are not developed.

Figure 5-2: The Changing Balance between Supply and Demand for Water in Libya, 1995-2025



Source: Adapted from Muntasser (2007: 16)

The climate is generally dry and hot in the summer, with average temperatures often at 35°C, and rainy and with moderate temperatures in the winter in the coastal region. Droughts are quite common in Libya. The dry winds of the Gibli dominate in the summer, carrying dust from the desert. These dry and hot conditions make the climate uncomfortable for tourists, particularly in the desert regions. In general, the climate greatly affects the tourism industry, especially in the south where temperatures range in the day between 40°C - 46°C. Thus, tourists can visit the desert only in the winter season between

November and March when the temperatures become suitable for desert adventure tourism. Moreover, although tourism in the coastal areas can be all year round, it is still influenced by climatic conditions in the desert because many tourists prefer visiting the country in the winter in order to combine the coastal areas' cultural attractions with adventure tourism in the desert (Abuharris and Ruddock, 2005). Thus, tourism product diversification can be important in Libya to overcome this seasonality effect, including for the coastal region.

5.2.2 The People and Literacy

Diversification of the economic base, including through tourism, requires skilful employees. The quality of education and skills they possess are important for business expansion and also to provide quality services for tourists. This is an important requirement for the tourism sector since it is primarily a service sector, which needs large numbers of skilled labour such as staff with language skills. To meet the increased demand, reforming the education system and providing training programs, such as learning languages and IT skills for workers and job seekers, becomes essential. However, the education quality still mismatches the tourist market requirements (Gutersloh, 2012), so there is a need to import labour to run different sectors, including in tourism. This is despite unemployment reaching 30% of the country's total workforces (CIA, 2004). There is a lack of skilful employees specifically in the tourism and hospitality industries, with problems in skills such as language skills, customer service, catering, guiding tourists, management and leadership, and marketing, due to the educational and cultural constraints (Khalifa, 2010).

5.2.3 Libyan Family Size and Culture

The Libyan people's culture determines their identity and behaviour patterns and these influence both domestic and inbound tourism development. Obeidi (2001) found that the most important sources of Libyan identity are family, tribe, religion, and ethnicity. The family in Libya is "a central socio-economic unit...the extended family is the basic social unit" (Obeidi, 2001: 41), with the average family size being 6 members (Libyan Census Book, 2006). Ties between members in a family are strong, and "protecting the honour of one's family... is paramount" (Communicaid Group Ltd., 2009). This has implications related to local people's behaviour as tourists and implications for the hotel sector. Libyans often travel in family groups and they often prefer renting flats and houses rather than renting rooms in conventional hotels that do not meet their cultural needs. Libyan families

also prefer staying in their relatives' houses living in the places where they intend to spend their holidays, with Libyans being similar to "Muslim vacationers, who may prefer to remain in familiar culture while travelling" (Kalesar, 2010: 107). This has had implications for the size of the hotel stock, which has restricted the growth of inbound tourism.

The majority of Libyans are very conservative and they adhere to Islamic ethics, and are also strongly tied to clan, tribes and family relations, which influences their relationships at work and also shapes their views regarding business and tourism development. "Islamic rule pervades Libyan customs and culture, providing the framework for the behaviour of individuals in both social and business contexts" (Communicaid Group Ltd. 2009: 2). Tourism is seen by a considerable number of local people as a sector that spreads crime, alcohol, pork meat, and the mixing of males and females that are prohibited by Islamic principles (Jones, 2010). Thus, the local culture and norms in terms of halal food, separation between males and females (especially in spas and beach tourism), dress codes, and family size influence the tourism sector's development, with domestic tourism and conventional western style tourism clashing due to the Arab Islamic culture (Communicaid Group Ltd. 2009; Jones, 2010). Careful consideration has been given by tourism developers to the local culture in some aspects of tourism development, in particular in some beach resorts which are dominated by domestic tourism, yet local culture considerations have not been taken so seriously in developing hotels to meet the local culture needs, as it is in some Gulf countries where "Islamic hotels" became very popular (Razalli *et al.*, 2012; Sahida *et al.*, 2011). In Libya, while most of hotels do not provide alcohol and pork, their structure and rooms are not big enough to meet the needs of big families. Islamic hotels, however, apply Islamic rules, including "the serving of halal food, information on prayer times or availability of prayer rooms, women staff dressed according to Islamic norms, ban on alcohol, and gender separated facilities such as ladies only swimming pools or ladies floors" (Kalesar, 2010: 122). But these cultural traits in hotels may be off-putting and a deterrent to the development of international tourism for western tourists. The integration of western tourism development with Muslim tourism development will require careful planning, but these issues have been given limited attention in Libya.

In addition, the demands of Libyan tourists are similar to other Arab tourists who are more interested in visiting green parks, recreational areas and staying in cottages and chalets in beach resorts and natural open areas rather than in visiting archaeological sites and ruins

(Al-Hamarneh and Steiner, 2004; Kalesar, 2010) that are preferred by international tourists. Thus, the differences between domestic and international tourism in Libya have significant implications for tourism product development.

Employees among Libyans combine loyalty to a tribal group, which forms part of the societal culture, with loyalty to the organisation, which forms part of the organisational culture (Aboubaker, 2012). Bezweek and Egbu (2010) and Twati and Gammack (2006) consider this organisational culture in Libya in relation to the adoption of information and communication technologies (ICT systems), concluding that the organisational culture is strong in terms of resistance to organisational change (such as in decision making), weak in enthusiasm, weak in terms of risk taking (so there are fewer entrepreneurs), and weak in accepting power distance (so that people are tolerant and accept the unequal distribution of prestige, wealth and power) (Hofstede, 2001). And these features have encouraged hierarchical organisational structures and limited communication between leaders and employees (Bezweek and Egbu, 2010). The implications for the tourism sector include that employees have a low ability to make changes that affect the sector's output, and this problem is combined with less confidence at work due to poor education and poor skills.

5.2.4 Political and Administrative Systems during Gaddafi's Regime

The scale, forms and other features of tourism development in Libya are associated in part with the political and policy making processes in the country. Thus, reviewing the political and administrative systems in Libya is important to understand the impacts of political matters on the tourism sector.

When Gaddafi came to power in September 1969, he and his supporters in the military coup changed the system from a parliamentary monarchy to a republic under his leadership. In the early years he advocated socialism as the solution to the political and socio-economic problems the country faced, and his subsequent policies focused on opposing capitalism and on nationalism (St. John, 2008).

By 1976 he had secured enhanced political control and he increasingly applied his own specific vision to the political system, which he called the "Jamahiriya System". The new system allowed him indirectly to control Libya without any political accountability to the population by announcing himself as "the brother leader" (Jones, 2010). This gave him the

power to intervene at any time in anything under the Law of "Revolutionary Legitimacy" announced in 1990, which he himself designed. His revolutionary Leadership was unelected and he could not be dismissed (Mattes, 2004), and the state was stable because of his secure grip (Gheblawi, 2012). Gaddafi shaped the political, economic and social systems based on the "Jamahiriya System" that he published in the first volume of his "Green Book". The system gave him the power to appoint his early supporters to lead the public institutions in different sectors without giving priority to qualifications or professional background, and the tourism sector was no exception to this. Therefore, planning and decision making in reality were kept in his hands through what was called "the guidance of the brother leader" (Jones, 2010; United Nations, 2004). Civil society and non-governmental organizations and the free press were largely suppressed, leading to very little popular participation in politics and many of the elite and graduates who were expected to fill the leadership positions emigrated and lived outside the country (United Nations, 2004).

The administrative system in Libya was changed arbitrarily several times by Gaddafi's orders, with some ministries being merged in new bodies, and after some years they were divided again, and then they were merged again. For instance, the Tourism Ministry was merged into other ministries, such as the Ministry of Culture, and then with the Ministry of Youths and Sports. Then in subsequent years there was no Youth and Sports Ministry as the Libyan Olympic Committee was created instead, and a new Ministry of Tourism and Traditional Industries was created for a few years, and then this Ministry was shrunk into the General Tourism Board in 2007 with fewer responsibilities and less funding. The ongoing structural changes to government administration have continued from the late 1970s and they have affected the efficiency and effectiveness of public policy and services in various fields (Megerbi, 2003), including the tourism sector. In addition, the public institutions failed to achieve their intended social and economic goals due to large scale corruption, itself resulting from a lack of transparency and accountability mechanisms in the unstable administrative system (Otman and Karlberg, 2007).

The failure to achieve the targeted development goals encouraged Gaddafi in 2008 to propose a complete end to the public service administrative system and a distribution of oil revenues directly to the people. He did not introduce any practical alternative about how services would be managed after the application of his idea, reflecting a rather unclear vision at the top level of government. "The dominance of both patronage and personality in

the country's political and economic life has meant that Libya has always struggled to build effective institutions outside of the security sphere and that policymaking has always been arbitrary and subject to whim" (Pargeter, 2010: 17). The result of these oscillating policies was an increase in corruption and lack of trust in systems in part due to the absence of transparency. This has further consolidated the country at the bottom of the international Transparency and Corruption Index, as shown in Table 5.1, with Libya ranked in 2010 at 146 out of 178 countries, and Corruption Perception Index has continuously declined between 2008 and 2010. This situation has adversely affected the confidence of investors and hampered the development of tourism along with many other sectors.

Table 5-1: Transparency and Corruption Index for Libya, 2008-2010

Country Rank	Country / Territory	CPI 2008 Score	CPI 2009 Score	CPI 2010 Score
1	Denmark	9.3	9.3	9.3
146	Libya	2.6	2.5	2.2
178	Somalia	1	1.1	1.1

Source: <http://www.guardian.co.uk/news/datablog/2010/oct/26/corruption-index-2010-transparency-international>

The tourism sector has been much affected by these problems, and it has meant that it could not attract substantial investment in tourism projects, even after the lifting of international sanctions and the opening of the door to more foreign investments in 2003. Most of investments after 2003 were actually focused on the hotel sector as it is a sector with a rapid payback on investment. Tourism SMEs, such as tour operators and travel agencies, boomed after the economic reforms in 2003, but that was not met by increasing numbers of international tourists because of the negative image of the Libyan government as a terrorist regime. This is due to Libya's likely responsibility for several terrorist attacks, such as the bombing of Berlin's La Belle discotheque in April 1986, Pan Am Flight 103 at Lockerbie in December 1988, and UTA Flight 772 over Niger in Africa in September 1989 (Jentleson and Whytock, 2006). Both the lack of trust in the political regime and the unstable administrative system has negatively impacted on Libya's tourism development.

5.2.5 Libya's Economic Performance

It is necessary to review the key development stages of the Libyan economy in order to understand why its tourism sector has remained relatively undeveloped. Libya's economy has been greatly influenced by the ideology imposed by Gaddafi's regime and that affected

all aspects of life for four decades, but there are also other trends affecting Libya's development phases.

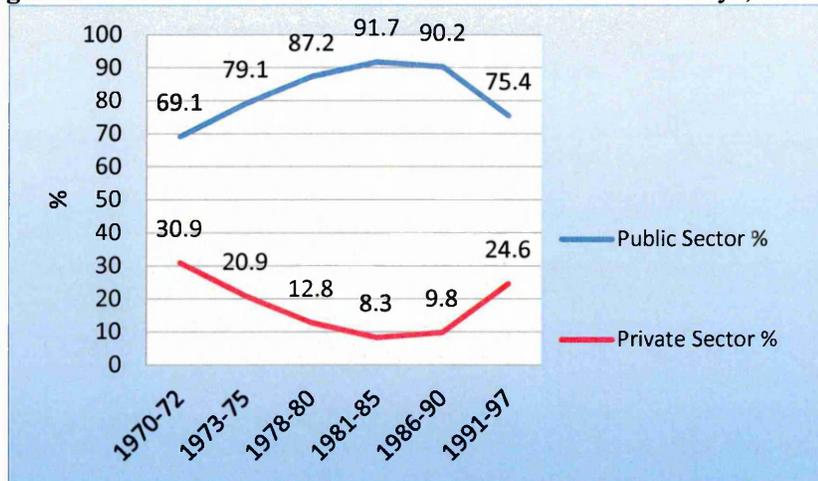
After the discovery and exportation of oil in the early 1960s, Libya has changed from being one of the poorest economies, which depended on agricultural exports, and international aid and rents from UK and USA military bases, to it becoming one of the richest countries in the region (Alafi and Bruijn, 2010). The new situation was not reflected in expansion of its economic base, however, so that to date it is still largely dependent on oil exports, which constitutes 95% of export earnings (Colijn, 2010). Thus, oil revenues have been the driving force for economic growth since the 1960s and they remain so.

The sharp fluctuations in oil prices have notably affected the performance of the country's service and production sectors (Otman and Karlberg, 2007). However, early in 1972 the government started to attempt to reduce its oil dependency by seeking to diversify its economy (Yousef, 2005) since the oil reserves were not expected to last for more than the first two decades of the 21st century. Therefore, over the years the government has taken more control over the economy and it has used its oil revenues to invest in different economic sectors, mainly the agriculture and manufacturing sectors. This has led to the domination of the public sector over the private sector, with the latter restricted from 1977 by Gaddafi's Economic Theory in Volume 2 of his "Green Book". This prohibited the making of profit, as according to Kaddafi the acceptance of profit is the acceptance of exploitation. Moreover, following Gaddafi's beliefs the employees working in private hotels, factories and handicrafts became partners, with this being translated in the laws and regulations for these economic sectors. Private retail businesses were also completely restricted, and instead the government created 1,279 centralized supermarkets to provide for people's daily needs (Alafi and de Bruijn, 2010). However, this approach ignored the basic distributional role that small shops play so effectively. The latter approach failed and all shopping malls collapsed a few years later as they were loss-making. In fact, the only private sector which was allowed to operate was in handicrafts, cafés and restaurants, and small workshops. As a consequence, investment in the private sector declined and the government invested more and more in the public sector, as shown in Figure 5.3.

These policies have led to a significant fall in the private sector's size, which has reinforced a lack of capital and entrepreneurship and has been reflected in the sector's inability to pursue changes in technologies and skills. Thus, the weak private sector could not

effectively cope with subsequent changes when the government later opened the way for it to invest in various sectors, with the result that most sophisticated development projects were carried out by foreign private companies (Alafi and de Bruijn, 2010). A minor change happened in 1990 when the state allowed the private sector to invest in some retailing and exporting activities, as can be seen in Figure 5.3, but such changes could not create a strong private sector, that in turn reinforced the regime's inability to reform its public sector (Pargeter, 2010). The weaknesses of the private sector and of the public sector have substantially influenced tourism development in Libya, especially as this has been dominated by the public sector.

Figure 5-3: Investment in the Public and Private Sectors in Libya, 1970-97



Source: http://www.planbleu.org/publications/idd_cotiers_ly.pdf

One specific problem for tourism-related property development has been that renting houses was restricted by Gaddafi's Social Theory published in Volume 3 of his "Green Book", and also according to the Law No. (4)/1978, which prohibited the renting of houses and also the owning of more than one house. Thus, any rented house, despite its value, could be confiscated by the Libyan people who inhabited it. These restrictions have severely scared off private investors and this has hampered domestic tourism growth since the types of accommodation required by domestic tourists could not be developed. Later, in 2004, the law was modified and it allowed people to own more than one house (Gutersloh, 2012).

The establishment of new regulations based on economic reforms, such as Law No. (5)/1997, the Law on Free Trading Zones in 1999, Law No.(7)/2004 for the tourism sector, and Law No.(9)/2010 to encourage foreign investors to participate more in economic

development, encouraged the development of the tourism sector. FDI in tourism in 2008 was a moderate 34 projects out of 152 in all sectors. These tourism projects totalled LYD242 million, and they included the construction of new hotels, tourism complexes and villages, leisure parks, tourism administration centres, leisure boats, and refurbishment of tourism houses and chalets (Zapita, 2009). But the overall flow of FDI into Libya has been limited by the government interventions, the inconsistent legal framework, the unstable administrative system, and also by corruption (Alafi and de Bruijn, 2010). Thus, the flow of FDI into Libya was the lowest in the Middle East and North Africa among countries that attract FDI (UNCTAD, 2001).

The establishment of non-governmental and independent civil society organisations in Libya has been highly restricted, and "all officially recognised cultural, charitable and sports associations are financed and controlled by the state and by the security apparatus" (Bauche, 2010: 52). Thus, lobbies and pressure groups, such as hoteliers associations and other tourism-related associations, which could have promoted greater local involvement in tourism development policies and actions, have not been established in Libya.

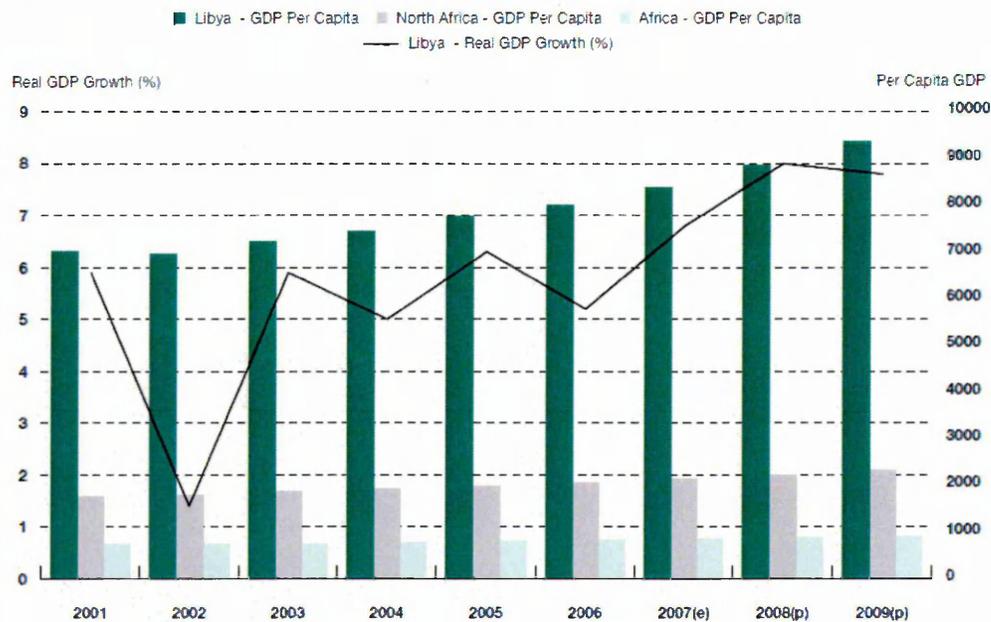
5.2.5.1 Tourism Contribution to Libya's Economy

Libya's economic growth is driven by government investment and spending, along with exports, and it has still not diversified away from the oil and gas sectors. The annual real GDP growth and GDP growth per capita compared to North African and African nations is shown in Figure 5.4. The Figure shows that Libya has achieved relatively good growth. But that does not mean that tourism resilience has contributed to this, as tourism's contribution to the country's GDP in 2008 was only 1.45% and it employed only 4% of the total workforce, according to the Libyan Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025). This could mean that at the moment tourism development has relatively little influence on the country's overall economy and its resilience. But Libyan commentators suggest that it would be good for Libya as a whole to develop its tourism sector as part of its national economy.

The plans for tourism development for the years 2009-2025 reveal the desire of the government to push ahead with growth in tourism's contribution to GDP, so that it reaches 5.83% by 2025. However, major political change since 2011, and the subsequent unstable security and political situation, have greatly hampered tourism plan implementation so far.

Consequently, tourism has become more vulnerable due to it facing new and stronger challenges.

Figure 5-4: Libya's Economic Performance Compared to other African and North African Countries



Source: <http://www.oecd.org/dev/emea/40578167.pdf>

5.2.6 Tourism Planning in Libya

Planning tourism in Libya is highly centralized in the government, particularly within the General Tourism Board (Khalifa, 2010). The first plan for tourism was established for the years 1999-2018, just before the lifting of international sanctions. The plan was developed by the Ministry of Tourism, UNDP, UNWTO, and the National Advisory Bureau. The plan was holistic and very broad (Danis, 2006), and it had given the public sector all of the planning and funding activities, and the public sector was to undertake all development infrastructure projects, to operate all of the projects, and to undertake the general tourism marketing. Therefore, the private sector role in tourism development was very limited. In practice the focus of developments was diverted by the public sector into developing the basic infrastructure, such as roads, seaports, some publicly-owned beach resorts, and some small hotels. The unstable administrative system led to the loss of project information, an inability to control and review project achievements, and an inability to set up accountability systems to control the plans and projects (Khalifa, 2010).

In 2009, the plan for 1999-2018 was revised due to the significant changes in international relations with Libya and the high revenues from oil after the Iraq war in 2003. The new

plan was for the period 2009-2025. According to the Libyan Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025), the plan was developed by the government in consultation with international experts in tourism, employees in the tourism and hospitality sectors, local tourism authorities at municipal level, and other related sectors (Vol.1, p2-3). The plan was divided into three development stages: short term (2010-2013), medium term (up to 2015), and long term (up to 2025). However, the plan has never been implemented due to the political revolt early in 2011.

In practice, most of Libya's primary tourist attractions, such as archaeology sites, museums, heritage and cultural places, exhibitions and display fairs, continue to be run by the public sector, alongside many of the big hotels. The private sector runs the local beach resorts, local hotels, restaurants and cafés. In addition, some international companies run some new luxury hotels, such as Intercontinental, Rixos, and Corinthia, and also some shopping malls, such as M&S and BHS. These new developments have encouraged the growth of newer types of tourism in Libya, such as shopping tourism and business tourism (Jones, 2010).

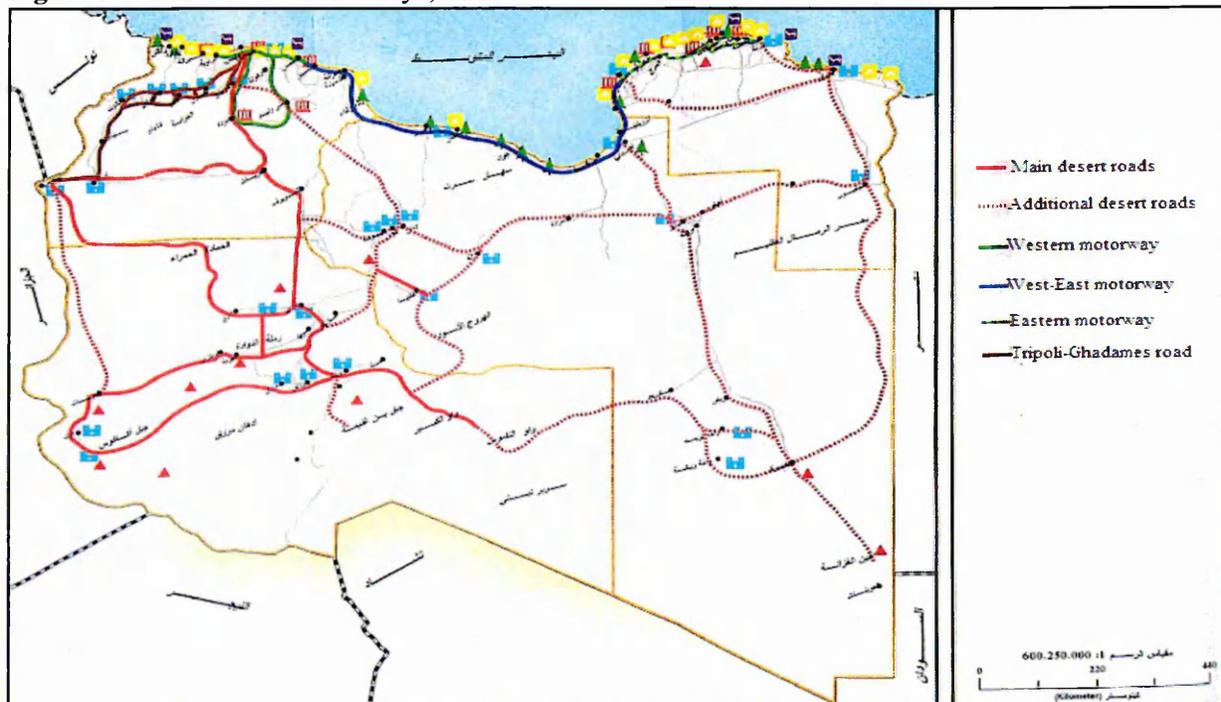
5.3 Examples of Basic Tourism-Related Infrastructure

5.3.1 Road Network and Services

The Libyan government has concentrated much of its effort over the years into developing infrastructure, such as developing transportation and telecommunications infrastructure, because of their importance in unifying and securing control over the country and in making the handling of materials easier (Otman and Karlberg, 2007). This investment in infrastructure has also helped to spread tourism development, especially with the improvement in oil prices and the changing policies towards the open market after the lifting of sanctions. Thus, the financial allocations for infrastructure development have been substantially increased, resulting in better support for tourism development. Currently, the road network covers almost all the country. Such developments have increasingly fostered the movement of goods, local people and tourists, leading to the development of tourism products not only in the main cities in the coastal areas, but also in the rural areas and desert. Figure 5.5 presents the tourist routes all over the country benefiting from the development of the road network. It also shows that most tourist attractions are located in the coastal cities, which are all connected by the main motorway, making them accessible for tourists.

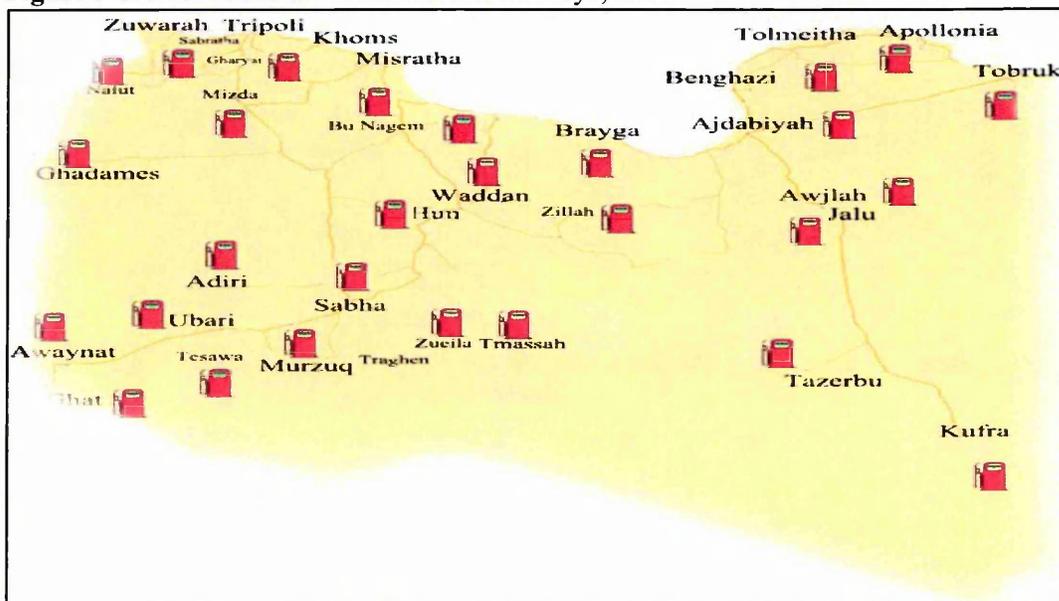
Some en-road services, such as fuel points, are spread alongside most roads, as shown in Figure 5.6. But in general tourism-related services, such as health services, restaurants and motels, are concentrated on the coastal roads and they are not sufficient in quantity or quality, making the infrastructure related to tourism incapable of fully meeting the needs of tourism development.

Figure 5-5: Tourist Routes in Libya, 2009



Source: Adapted from the Libyan Tourism Master Plan, 2009-2025, (Vol. 1, p.60)

Figure 5-6: Fuel Points on Tourist Routes in Libya, 2010



Source: <http://www.temehu.com/fuelling-points-in-libya.htm>

5.3.2 Telecommunication Services

Telecommunications are a part of the economic infrastructure capacity, and they are a key input to productivity and competitiveness (Seetanah, *et al.*, 2011). The General Post and Telecommunications Company is owned by the government and it provides Internet and landline services, mobile phone networks, and the mail service. The government monopoly has limited the spread of Internet use in Libya, it was only 5.4% of the population in 2009 (Elzawi and Wade, 2012). Internet use in the marketing of tourism is still largely limited to booking hotel rooms in some hotels and purchasing travel packages, but online transactions are nearly absent due to the insecurity of transactions as well as due to a lack of trust (Moftah *et al.*, 2012). Paying in cash is still dominant for most purchases, making the tourism sector less competitive.

5.3.3 Airports and Seaports

Air travel is important for Libya's tourism industry due to the distance from its main international tourism markets, the large land area, and the spread of its tourism attractions across the country. There are around 11 internal airports for tourism use to reach the main cities and tourist areas (Temehu, 2012). Tripoli airport is the largest and the main gate to the world. However, restrictions mean that tourists are able to use only the following Libyan private and commercial flight operators: Libyan Airways, Afriqiyah Airways, Buraq Air Transport, Nayzak Air Transport, Air Libya, Alajnihah Airways, and Petro Air because there are no other operators allowed operating internal flights into Libya. There are also around 5 seaports that can receive cruise ships: in Tripoli, Alkhoms, Benghazi, Derna, Tobruk. However, only Tripoli seaport has a passenger lounge at the terminal. These issues reflect a real shortage in both airline and sea travel infrastructure, which may well delay the development of international tourism.

5.3.4 Hotel Sector Infrastructure

Accommodation infrastructure in Libya has been developed significantly by both the private and public sectors in the early years of the 21st century, as can be seen in Table 5.2. The number of hotels has increased to reach 268 hotels with 17000 rooms by 2007 as a result of the lifting of international sanctions and the move towards the open market (Frontier, 2012).

Table 5-2: The Development of Hotel Sector in Libya

Year	1993	1995	1997	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Number of Hotels	105	118	109	109	194	194	194	194	266	212	256	268

Source: The General Authority of Information Publications; 1999, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2007

The hotel sector's development has been led by both local and international private sector businesses, but it has largely been concentrated in the main large cities, in particular Tripoli which has accounted for about 40-45% of the new hotel stock (Fronteir, 2012).

5.4 Main Tourism Assets and Resources of Libya

The country is rich in tourism assets and resources (Jones, 2010), which include such natural tourism assets as desert, seaside beaches, and mountains. It also contains important cultural assets, such as archaeological sites, museums and galleries, historical buildings and old mosques, as well as special events, such as festivals, exhibitions and fairs, and tourism activities, such as spas, scuba diving and sports. These assets are quite widely spread over the country, providing opportunities to spread tourism development over a wide area. The next chapter looks at this in far more detail.

5.5 The Case Study Areas

The two municipalities of Tripoli and Alkhoms (including the historic remains of Leptis Magna) were purposely selected as case studies based on the criteria explained in Chapter Four. The two regions are adjacent to each other, and both are located in the North West coastal area (as shown in Figure 5.7), with this coastal strip being where the most important tourist attractions are found and most urban development is concentrated. However, they are different municipalities in terms of their urban development and in their local government, and each has a local authority that manages its resources and development projects.

Figure 5-7: The Location of Tripoli and Alkhoms in Libya



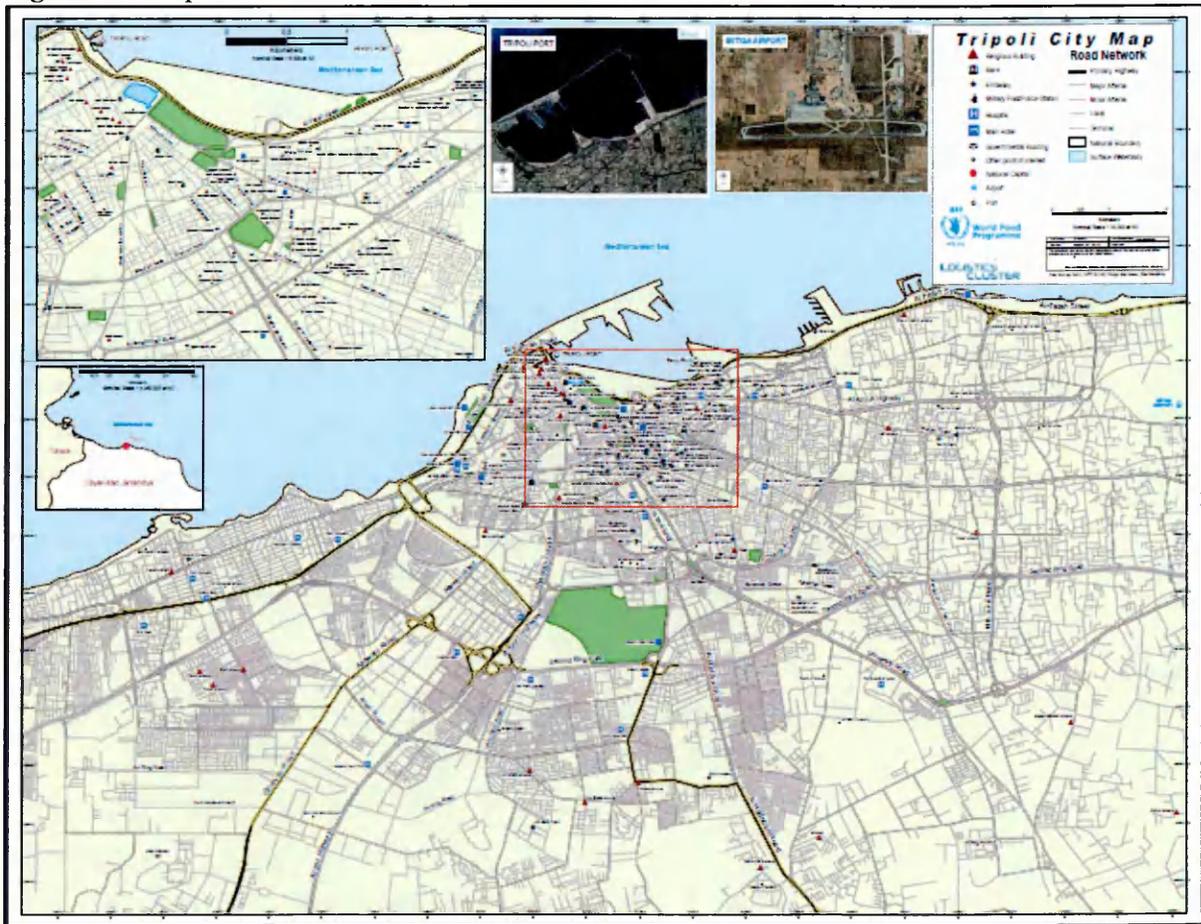
Source: Adapted by the author from <http://www.mapsofworld.com/libya/libya-political-map.html>

5.5.1 Tripoli

Tripoli is the largest city and the capital of Libya, with a population of 1,063,571 (Census, 2006), largely Muslim Sunni Arabs. Its importance as a tourist destination results from it being the main international entry gateway by air and sea. The city is bordered to the west by Zawia, to the south by Jafara, and by Alkhoms to the east. Its most populated area is close to the city centre, as shown in Figure 5.8, where there are most job opportunities, education and health services, and business activities, and where most tourist products are located.

In addition, Tripoli has several tourist attractions, including resort villages, museums, Old Medina and historical buildings, exhibitions and conference venues, waterfront scenes, sport complexes, diving and sport clubs, shopping centres, cinemas and cultural centres. The next chapter discusses tourist attractions in Tripoli in more detail.

Figure 5-8: Tripoli's Urbanised Area

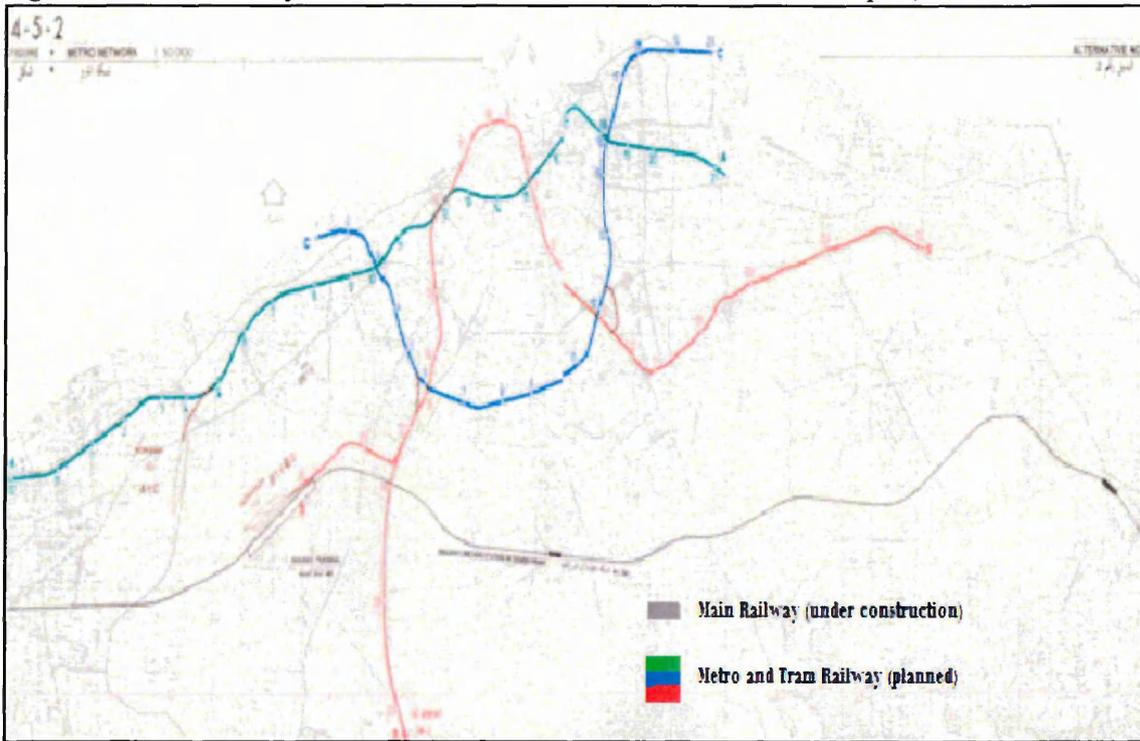


Source:

http://epmaps.wfp.org/maps/04861_20110524_LBY_A0_GLCSC_LIBYA_TRIPOLI_CITY_MAP_24_MAY_2011.pdf

Historically, Tripoli was one of most important cities in the Mediterranean and North Africa region and it has witnessed the successive civilizations of the region. So the city has rich and diverse cultural and heritage sites and monuments that go back thousands of years. For example, the Old Medina, which flourished during the Ottoman era, includes several historical buildings belonging to many civilizations, making it an important and iconic attraction that attracts domestic and international tourists to visit Tripoli. Tripoli is also a metropolitan city that contains government headquarters, leading business companies, and three universities, and it is connected with good transport and communication networks that make it accessible for tourists and visitors by different transportation means, such as by sea, air and road. There are also plans for a metro and tram system, as shown in Figure 5.9, which could enhance travelling comfort within the city in future.

Figure 5-9: The Railway Network under Construction and Planned in Tripoli, 2009



Source: Railroads Project Execution and Management Board, at: <http://www.railroads.org.ly/>

Many infrastructure projects have been built in the city, making it more modern and dynamic. However, while some of these projects have been completed, many others are still under construction or still in the planning stage at the time this study was conducted. Several leisure and tourist areas have been constructed, such as the Waterfront scenic area (Figure 5.10), the Palm City complex (Figure 5.11), and the Regatta Leisure Village (Figure 5.12).

Figure 5-10: Waterfront Scenic Area in Tripoli, 2010



Source: <http://www.prixy.com/images/map/cities/Tripoli,-Libya.jpg>

Figure 5-11: Palm City Complex in Tripoli, 2010



Source: <http://www.palmcityresidences.com/palmcity/index.html>

Figure 5-12: Regatta Leisure Village in Tripoli, 2009



Source: <http://regatta.com.ly/ar/>

New real estate buildings have been constructed in recent years, such as Elfatah Tower, Abolya Tower, and Dawoo Tower (Figure 5.13 from left to right respectively), and they have added to the sense of a busy commercial capital city, which can add appeal to Tripoli as a tourist destination.

Figure 5-13: Elfatah Tower, Abolya Tower and Dawoo Tower in Tripoli, 2010



Source: <http://forum.vlaa.com/t285569.html>

The shopping malls, such as Alwihat, Souq Thulatha, M&S, BHS, and Elmahari, have added to the city's attractiveness for tourists interested in shopping.

The hotel sector in the city has a modest 3,817 rooms, including a few upmarket hotels developed by international chain companies, such as Corinthia (Figure 5.14), Radisson Blu (Figure 5.15), Rixos, JW Marriott and Four Points by Sheraton (Chidiac, 2012). However, the majority of hotels are budget hotels and they have been developed by the private sector to meet the increased demand for less expensive accommodation in the city.

Figure 5-14: Corinthia Hotel in Tripoli, 2009



Source: <http://forum.vlaa.com/t285569.html>

Figure 5-15: Radisson Blu Hotel in Tripoli, 2009



Source: <http://forum.vlaa.com/t285569.html>

The restaurant sector in Tripoli has around 4,450 seats, and most provide traditional local food and a few offer international foods (Chidiac, 2012).

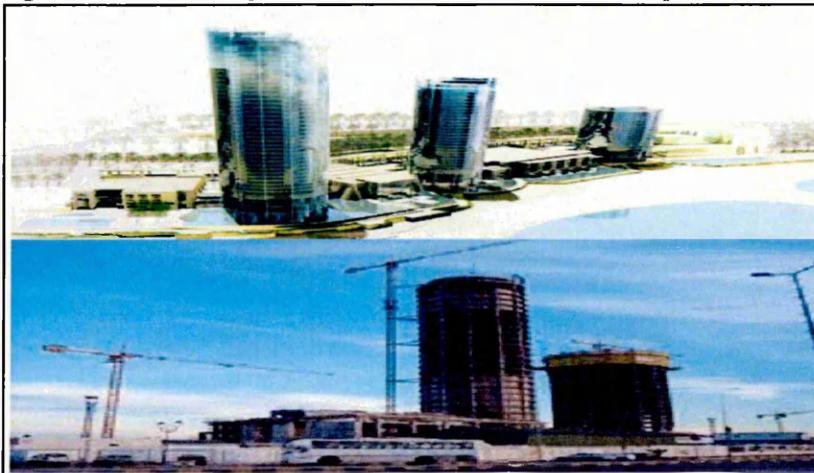
Other major buildings are currently still under construction, such as the Intercontinental hotel (Figure 5.16), Burj Albahar Towers (Figure 5.17).

Figure 5-16: The InterContinental Hotel under Construction in Tripoli, 2010



Source:http://www.hoteldesigns.net/library/1174950000/27_0307_InterContinental_Tripoli_lrg.jpg

Figure 5-17: The Burj Albahar under Construction in Tripoli, 2010



Source: <http://mw2.google.com/mw-panoramio/photos/medium/46329280.jp>

Some other major projects are still in the planning stage, such as the Eternal Crescent of Tripoli Hotel.

These major new developments are concentrated in the city of Tripoli, increasing demand from both business and leisure tourists and from residents. These developments have also helped to create a better image for Tripoli, and have helped to improve the city's attractiveness as a tourist and business destination. Planning and decision-making regarding these major development projects, which are either owned by the government or by international private companies, are completely centralized in government-related

agencies, such as the National Planning Council, and the General Authority of Investment, that are directly or indirectly influenced by the state regime (Jones, 2010). The municipal authorities also have responsibility to provide these projects with basic services and facilities that help them to accomplish their work.

These big projects reflect how practical decisions relating to tourism planning are usually centralised in the government, and local people and the tourism private sector have not been involved in tourism planning (Khalifa, 2010). The SMEs, such as small hotels, restaurants, cafés, travel agencies and tour operators, are developed and run by the private sector after gaining permissions from Tripoli's local authority.

5.5.2 Alkhoms (including the historic remains of Leptis Magna)

Alkhoms municipality includes the major heritage tourism site of Leptis Magna. It has a larger area than Alkhoms city as it also includes the small towns of Zletin, Mesallata, Tarhouna, and Gasr Ekhyar. It is bordered by Tripoli municipality to the west, and it has a population of 415,304 (Libyan Statistics Book, 2006), largely Muslim Sunni Arabs. It is a more agricultural area, with some manufacturing activities such as cement factories and sea water distillation and power plant stations, as well as fishing and trading. It also has two universities: the Alasmaria University for Islamic Studies and Elmergeb University, which in 2011 opened a faculty for tourism and hospitality. The city has a commercial port, which sometimes receives cruise tourists who visit the archaeological sites within the city of Leptis Magna and Villa Celine, two heritage tourism sites which are discussed in detail in the next chapter. The city is connected with the country's main motorway (Elazazi, 2011), and it has a good road network connecting all its towns and tourist attractions.

The hotel stock of Alkhoms is limited to just 6 budget hotels, which were built by the private sector, except for a 3 Star hotel located in Zletin that is owned and run by the public sector. A small number of cafés and restaurants have been developed by the private sector providing local food for visitors. So far there has been very little major tourism investment in the municipality.

The region's rich landscapes include the green hills and plateaus of Ghaneema, Negazza, Qasr Ekhyar and Enout. The region contains some protected national parks, such as the Sim Edees in Mesellata (Figure 5.18), Elkhadra in Tarhouna and Wadi Kaam. These

beautiful landscapes encourage domestic tourists to engage in outdoor activity tourism, which in the future might pave the way to emergence of ecotourism.

Figure 5-18: Protected Area in Sim Edees in Mesallata, 2010

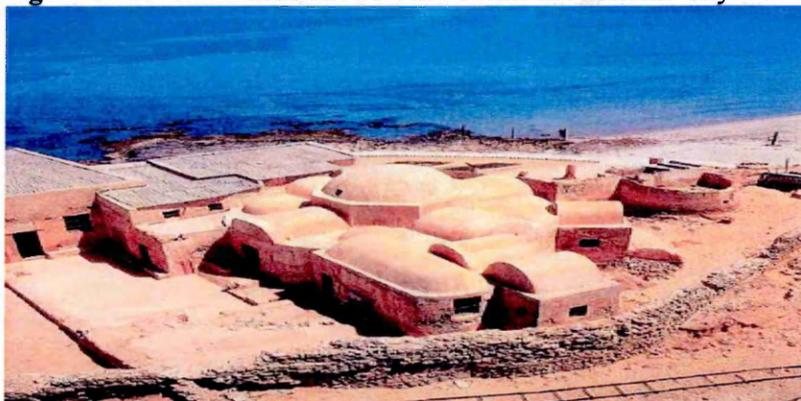


Source: <http://www.elksad.com/index.php/?topic/>

There is a long coast that includes sandy areas and rocky bays, along which have developed several beach resorts frequented by domestic tourists. These are very seasonal resorts meeting domestic tourist demand, and they are considered one of tourist draw cards of the area.

The area is also very rich in archaeological and heritage sites belonging to the Phoenician, Roman and Byzantine eras. The Villa Celine and Leptis Magna sites, shown in Figures 5.19 and 5.20 respectively, are considered the most well-known Roman ruins in Libya and arguably they are among the most important in the world. Both touristic sites are located in Alkhoms city itself. Other ruins, such as Qasr Dogha (Figure 5.20), are located in Tarhouna. Roman water dams and olive oil presses are among the region's other significant archaeology tourism assets.

Figure 5-19: The Roman Site of Villa Celine in Alkhoms City



Source: <http://ar-ar.facebook.com/TheMost.Beautiful.Pictures.in.Libya?sk=wall&filter=1>

Figure 5-20: The Septimius Severus Arch in Leptis Magna



Source: <http://www.liv.ac.uk/~sdb/Eclipse-2006/Mediterranean/Images/2715-Leptis-Magna-gate.jpg>

Figure 5-21: Roman Archaeology at Qasr Dogha in Tarhouna



Source: <http://www.libyaneyes.com/forum/showthread.php?t=105>

In addition, the region is rich in Islamic monuments, such as the Quranic schools (called Manarat in Libya). Other examples of these places, which are visited by some tourists, are the Abdelssalam Asmer Manarat in Zletin (Figure 5.22), and Edokali and Johrani Manarats in Mesallata. These monuments were built hundreds of years ago and they are important religious tourism products for some domestic tourists. The importance of these religious places comes from their historical value and the role they have played in maintaining the Arabic language and Islamic religion during the colonial periods. Thus, these places are highly respected by local people.

Figure 5-22: The Shrine and Mosque of Abdelsalam Asmar in Zletin



Source: <http://www.lakii.com/vb/a-60/a-670315/>

The poor related-tourism infrastructure in Alkhoms has hampered the further development of new tourist facilities. There remain an insufficient number of hotels, with only 6 hotels with 129 bed rooms ranging between 3-star and unclassified (Census, 2007). There is also a lack of restaurants, leisure amenities, and indoor water sports, which again has discouraged tourism development in the region. These problems arise in part because of the government's lack of funds and the lack of technical and financial support from the government to the private sector.

5.6 The Political Disruption and the Future of Tourism in Libya

This study was carried out between July and September 2010, just a few months before the political revolt in Tunisia from 17 December 2010 and in Egypt from 25 January 2011. These revolts encouraged the Libyan people to call for regime change from 17 February 2011, and thus the field study was carried out before the fall of the Gaddafi regime. However, the study is still relevant for the future development of tourism as it identifies issues that will continue to be significant for Libya's tourism development for many years to come whatever the political context to the country.

However, it is important to mention the political disruption because it will have major implications for Libya's future tourism development. Political and economic reforms are likely to result as for decades the country has experienced highly centralized political power and the dominance of the public sector in tourism planning and development.

The political revolt in Libya divided the people into those loyal and those opposed to Gaddafi's regime, and the situation quickly turned into a civil war. The international community intervened to protect the people of Libya by fighting alongside the rebels under the UN Security Council's Resolutions 1970 and 1973, and this helped to end Gaddafi's regime. During the uprising the tourist flows stopped and many heritage sites were only slightly looted and damaged. For example, according to the 2nd Civil-Military Assessment Mission for Libya's Heritage that commenced in November 2011, around 7000 coins, jewellery and figurines from the Temple of Artimes at Cyrene were stolen from a bank in Benghazi's Tahrir Square. In addition, some other heritage sites were slightly vandalized, although most museums were protected by local populations who were "very involved in the safeguarding" (Blue Shield and IMCuRWG, 2011: 5).

Since the war a democratic political system has been introduced, and the first elections were in July 2012. These changes potentially might lead to more involvement of local people and of the private sector in tourism planning and development. Currently, a Tourism Ministry has been established with more power, which could mean there will be significant developments in the tourism sector in the future.

Many NGOs and civil society organizations were established after the fall of Gaddafi's regime. Among them is the Libyan Society for Tourism Activation that was created in Tripoli in November 2011 in order to develop and market tourism. The organisation has established its own website (<http://www.lsta.org.ly/activites.html>) to encourage members to join it. This Society has done some work already for Saraya Museum, and for the Libya Museum.

The security and safety situation currently is considered one of the major obstacles limiting the revival of all economic activities, especially of the tourism sector. This is because of an inability to control the spread of weapons, which makes the place unsafe for tourists, and also due to the increasing number of illegal immigrants coming from neighbouring African countries without necessary health controls. Another threat comes from the emergence of some extremist armed Islamic groups, which attacked the US consulate in Benghazi and damaged some important tourism assets, such as the British war graves (Figure 5.23), and Muslim shrines in many places in the country (Harding and Stephen, 2012; Stephen, 2012).

Figure 5-23: Extreme Islamic Group in Benghazi Damaging the WWII British Cemetery, 2012



Source: http://images.farfesh.com/articles_images/2012/03/05/graves_1.jpg

Some of these groups consider the Roman sculptures and figurines as idols that are against Islamic teachings and must be destroyed.

After the end of the civil war "dark tourism" has emerged as a new type of tourism product in some cities like Benghazi, Misurata, Zliten, and Tripoli. The exhibitions present images and videos of destruction and murder, and they display pieces of used weapons, explosives, tanks, and weapons made by people during the fighting (Figures 5.24).

In general, however, the tourism sector in Libya faces numerous major challenges that could obstruct attempts to promote Libya as a safe tourist destination.

Figure 5-24: Local exhibition for remnants of the weapons of war in Misurata



Source: Asharq AlAawsat Newspaper, <http://www.aawsat.com/details.asp?article=678905>

5.7 Conclusion

Libya has plenty of natural and cultural tourism assets that can enable it to diversify its economic base away from an over-reliance on oil exports. These tourism assets need to be properly developed for competitiveness and to meet the tourist market changes. Various political, management, socio-cultural, and environmental challenges need to be addressed in planning and developing tourism. The tourism sector in both case study areas, Tripoli and Alkhoms, is still weak due to the problems of infrastructure, human capital, investment, and government commitment. Thus, solving these obstacles might be prerequisite to establishing a more diversified tourism product offering, a process that has already begun to occur in Tripoli. The next chapter will evaluate the tourism product characteristics in both case study areas in more detail. Although this study was conducted before the recent change of regime, it is still relevant today because the issues of tourism product development and of destination resilience examined in this study remain highly important for tourism development whatever regime is in power.

Chapter 6 : The Primary, Secondary and Conditional Tourism Products

6.1 Introduction

This is the first of results chapters. The objective of this chapter is to examine the character of the tourism products and attractions and their associated development issues for the two case study areas: Tripoli and Alkhoms. These tourism products are reviewed in terms of the primary, secondary, and conditional products and attractions, as classified by Jansen-Verbeke's model (1986), which is shown in Figure 2.1 and discussed subsequently. The primary products are those that represent the pull factor that attracts tourists to visit a destination, and these are within the overall leisure activities and leisure setting for the destination. There are also secondary and conditional products, which do not in themselves attract the tourists to the destination, but they still have important roles in supporting the destination's attractiveness, beauty, accessibility and comfort, such as by providing secondary things to do and by offering various support services, such as tourist accommodation. It is important to examine the character of the tourism products in Tripoli and Alkhoms, including the quantity and quality of the primary tourism products and also of the supporting secondary and conditional products, because of the study's focus on the concentration and diversification of tourism products and the consequences of the tourism product features for destination resilience.

Thus, in addition to exploring how the primary products work, interact, and influence tourists, the chapter broadens the analysis and discussion by evaluating the supporting secondary and conditional products. The analysis begins in Section 6.2 by examining overall characteristics and attributes of the various tourism products in the two case study areas. This is followed in Section 6.3 by an assessment of the patterns of tourism demand, including the international and domestic tourism features, and of tourism supply, notably in terms of mass and alternative products, as they affect the two case study destinations. This is in preparation for the patterns of development in terms of concentration and diversification that are discussed in detail in the subsequent chapter. The focus of Section 6.4 is on the infrastructure related to tourism. This is examined as the diversification of primary tourism products cannot be successfully accomplished with deficient infrastructure. Also, tourist destination resilience is partly dependent on the quality and the strength of infrastructure related to tourism. These aspects of tourism products are considered in relation to the situation at the time of the fieldwork, which was just prior to

the overthrow of the Gaddafi regime. Moreover, consideration is given to the government plans and proposals for the future development of the tourism products and their implications.

6.2 Characteristics and Attributes of Tourism Products

To meet the study's objectives it is important to discuss the character and attributes of the tourism products in the two case study areas in order to identify their strengths and deficiencies that might support or deter product diversification and the resilience of these destinations. The characteristics and attributes of tourism products, and particularly the major products, play a key role in tourism product development and marketing because to a large extent they determine the pull factor that motivates tourists to visit destinations. "Product specifications largely determine and reflect the corporate image and branding that an organization is able to create in the minds of its existing and prospective customers" (Middleton, *et al.*, 2009: 119). Ivanovic (2008: 264) similarly states that "the pull factors are expressions of the attractions' ability to attract the tourist to it". The ability of tourism products to attract tourists is directly linked to the patterns of tourist behaviour and the patterns of consumption, and this means that accumulating valid information about product attributes is a precondition to facilitate planners' and managers' decisions (Weaver and Lawton, 2006)

A series of tourism product characteristics are discussed here, with these features given prominence as they were important in the two case study areas and thus often raised by many respondents. Attention is directed first to the relative abundance and range of the primary tourism products. Then, a series of product attributes are explored which emerged as significant for the products themselves and the supporting products and overall destination. These are: the image and uniqueness of the tourism products, accessibility for tourist markets, the destination capacity, affordability, seasonality effects, and, finally, safety, security and hospitality.

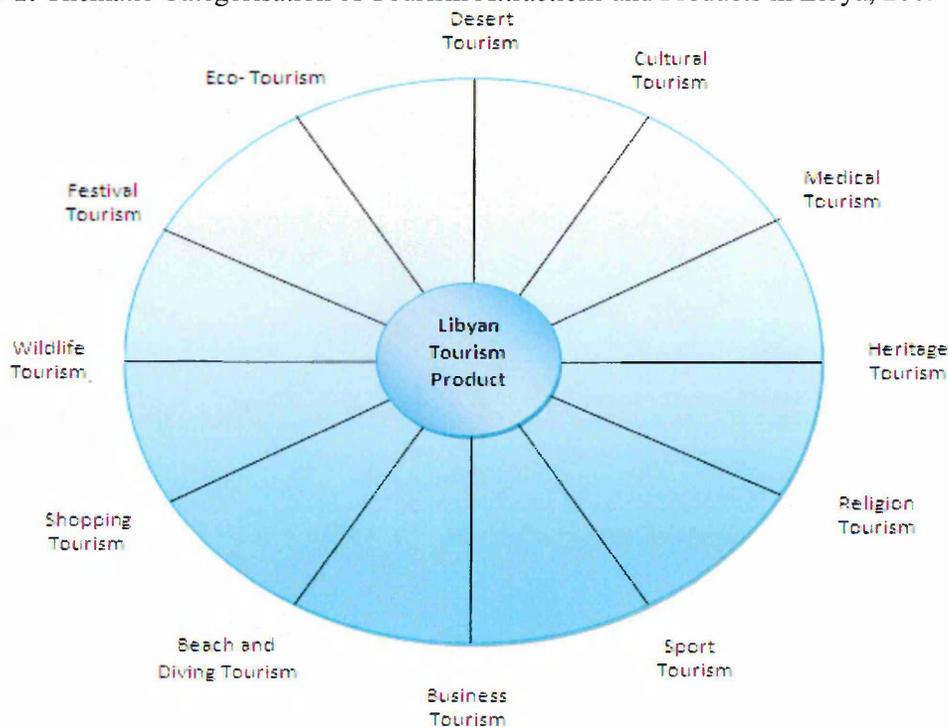
6.2.1 The Abundance of Primary Tourism Products

An inventory of tourism assets and resources is essential to establish tourism planning and development and also to identify the reasons for the growth or decline of certain tourism products. It is important to realise that decline may and may not be reflected in the current number of tourists because the quality of tourist destinations can be degraded while the

flow of tourists is increasing. However, knowledge about tourism assets in a destination and how the local tourism system functions is essential to establish future development strategies (Jansen-Verbeke, 1986; Weaver and Lawton, 2006). Jones (2010: 10) argues that "an important first step in developing a plan is to define the tourism system based on an audit of the destination's resources". Weaver and Lawton (2006: 129) also assert that "the compilation of an attraction inventory is a fundamental step towards ensuring that a destination realises its full tourism potential in this regard".

According to Libya's Tourism Master Plan (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol. 2: 99), the country's primary tourism products are thematically categorised into 12 types, as shown in Figure 6.1. Some of these tourism products and attractions exist in one or both case study areas, but some do not. This categorisation is useful to identify and evaluate the different tourism product themes available in Tripoli and Alkhoms.

Figure 6-1: Thematic Categorisation of Tourism Attractions and Products in Libya, 2009



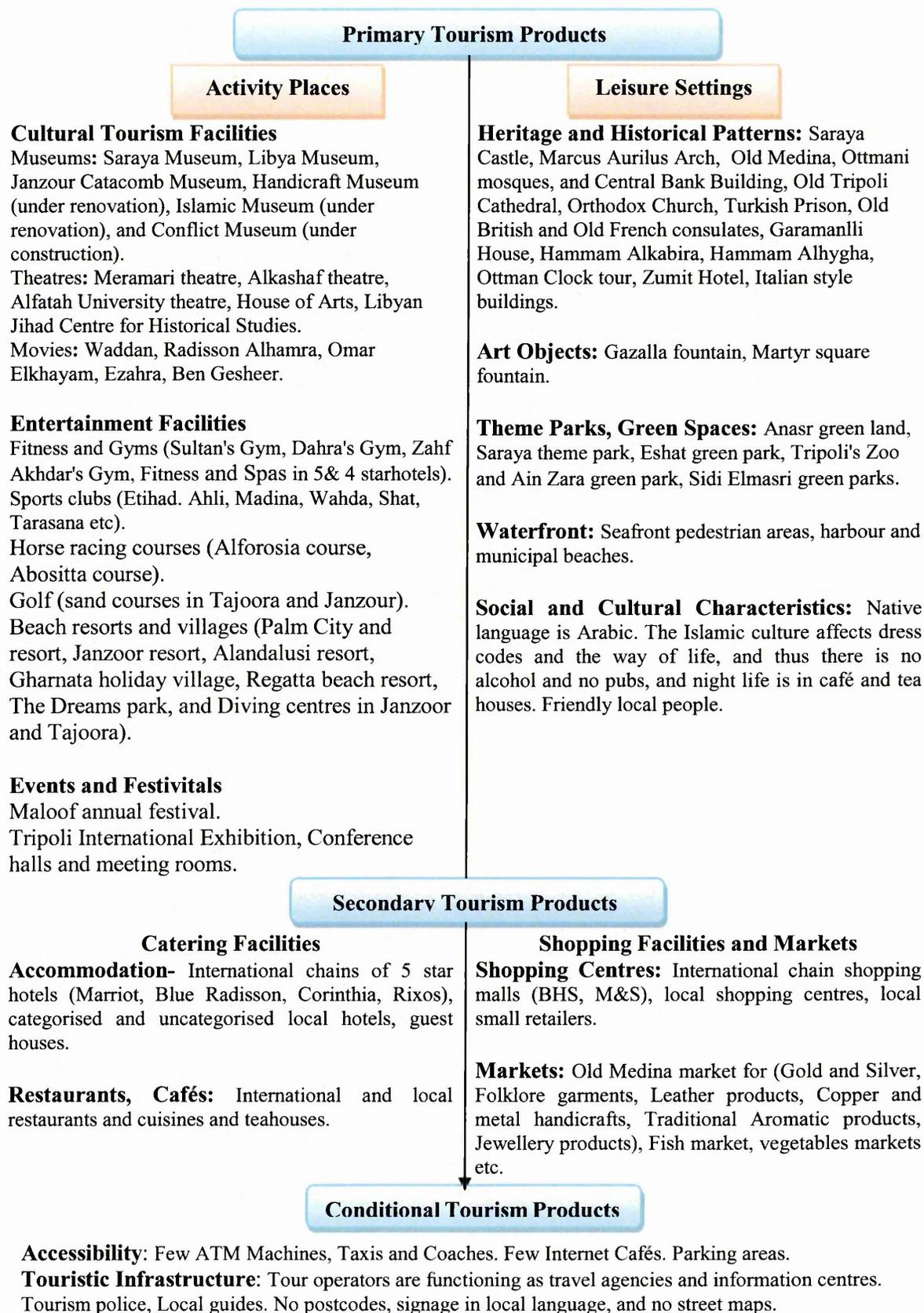
Source: Adapted from Libyan Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025, Vol.2:99)

In this study, however, interviews, observation and documentary resources were used to collect primary and secondary data about the existing tourism products, or planned to be developed in the near future, in both case study areas. This data was categorised according to Jansen-Verbeke's model in order to establish the primary products, which are defined as the main tourism pull elements for Libya's tourism. Jansen-Verbeke's model was used by

her to examine tourism in metropolitan cities, and this is relevant to the present study since both case study areas are urban centres containing a variety of tourism products. Therefore, Figures 6.2 and 6.3 present the categories of tourism products available in Tripoli and Alkhoms respectively. The Figures are based on the views of the interviewees for both case study areas, and they are presented regardless of the development and the quality of these resources. Many of these products are mainly used by domestic tourists, and for this sector there is no accurate data about demand and consumption levels and their patterns of development over recent years.

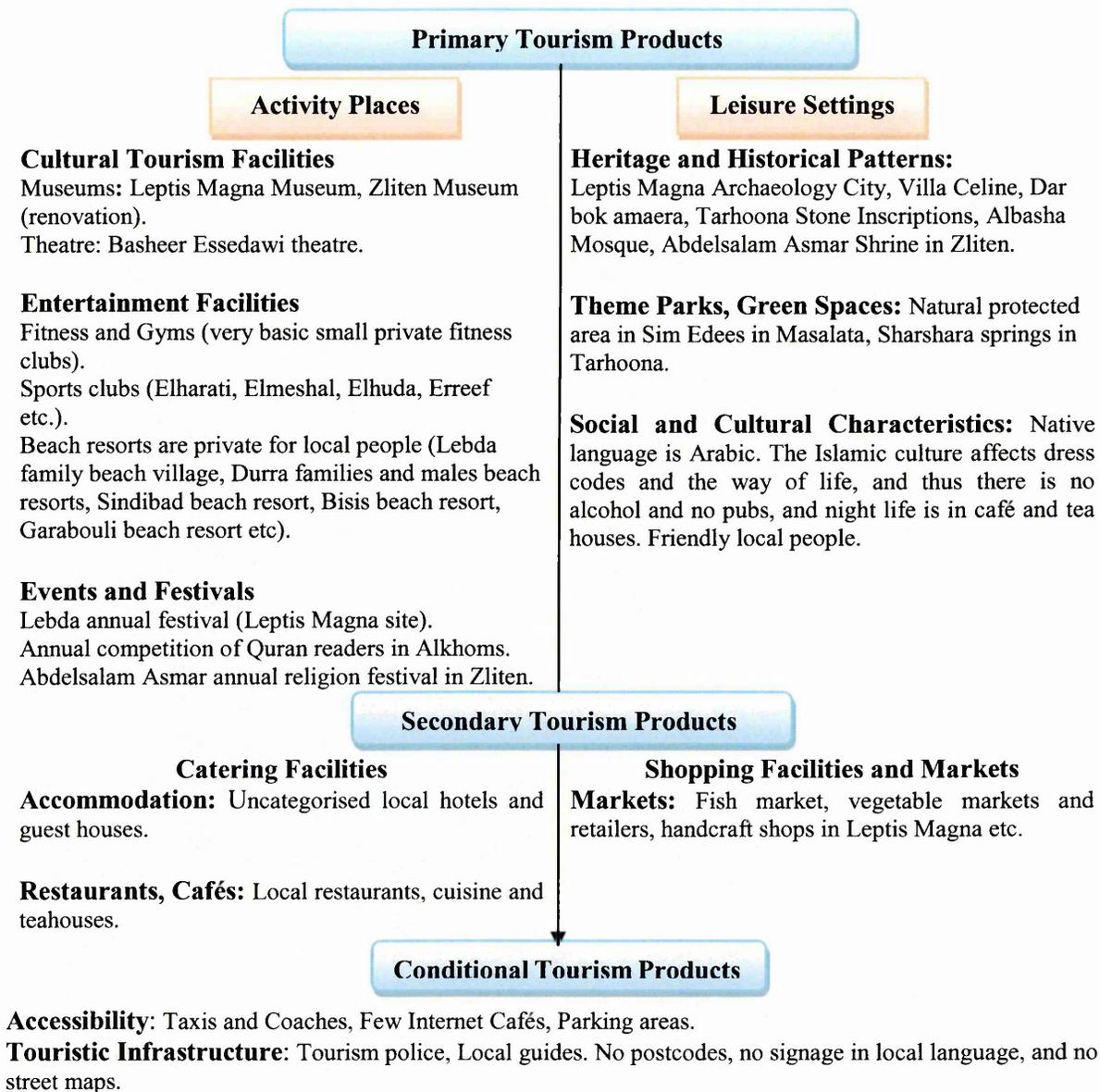
According to Jansen Verbeke's model, the primary tourism products include the activity places and the leisure settings, and these products are considered to be pull factor for tourists. The secondary products include all supplementary products, such as restaurants, cafés, shopping centres and markets, which are used by tourist but are not the primary tourist draw; while the conditional products are those related to accessibility, parking and tourist infrastructure. It is not intended that this study assesses Jansen-Verbeke's model, rather it uses the model to provide an initial classification of the tourism products in both case study areas. This is to help to identify the primary tourism products for the subsequent analysis of whether the range of these products are concentrated in a small number, or diversified in a wide range of offerings. In addition, the model helps in the comparison between the two case study areas in terms of the extent of diversification of the primary tourism products and other supplementary products. It should be noted that domestic and international tourists differ significantly in the types of tourism products that interest them and in their consumption patterns.

Figure 6-2: Tourism Products and Attractions in Tripoli



Source: Compiled by the author

Figure 6-3: Tourist Products and Attractions in Alkhoms



Source: Compiled by the author

The lack of data about tourism products in Libya makes it difficult to recognise their potential, importance, and the development stage for each product. It is obvious, however, that the products are in different development stages since tour operators focus on some products more than others due to many constraints, such as the low quality and weaknesses of infrastructure at some tourist destinations. Many tourism products in Tripoli and in Alkhoms particularly, are still at an early stage of development, although some attractions are well known internationally, such as the archaeology site of Leptis Magna and Saraya Castle. The Libyan Tourism Development Board Chairperson, in a 2006 interview for Travel Video News, stated that *"Our tourism industry is at its birth stage"*. A government interviewee also stated that *"when we started collecting data about the tourism products in*

Libya, we found they are numerous. Around 300 places were documented as touristic places, and there are 600 historical buildings spread all over the country. And many of them are small, and maybe tiny, and still undeveloped" (Government official 1).

However, at a case study level data about tourism products were collected from fixed tourist packages, from information in the Libyan Tourism Master Plans, and from the interview data. From all these sources, it was possible to summarise the tourism product portfolio in Tripoli and Alkhoms in Table 6.1.

Table 6-1: The Tourist Attractions and Products in the Case Study Areas, 2010

Thematic Categorisation	Tourism Product Portfolio in Tripoli	Tourism Product Portfolio in Alkhoms
Coastal Tourism	Beach Resorts, Cruises, Scuba Diving.	Beach Resorts, Cruises.
Sport Tourism	Sport Clubs and Fitness Facilities, Horse Racing Courses, Sand Golf Courses	Sport Clubs
Leisure tourism	Entertainment/ City Experiences, Trekking and City Walks, Hotel Spas, Gastronomy and Local Food/Cuisine.	Trekking and Outdoor Excursions
Nature tourism	Theme Parks, Nature-Based Holidays (Wildlife in Zoos and Scenery)	Protected Areas and National Parks.
Business tourism	Conference and Meeting Rooms, Exhibitions and Fairs.	Not Applicable
Cultural tourism	Archaeology Tourism and Historical Places, Religious Attractions, Events and Festivals.	Archaeology Tourism, Historical Places, Religious Attractions.
Shopping Tourism	Shopping Centres, Malls and Local Traditional Markets	Not Applicable

Source: Compiled by the author

Table 6.1 shows that Tripoli has more diverse types of tourism products and attractions, which are wider in their themes than those found in Alkhoms. This was discussed by several government officials, with one stating that, "*Tripoli is the capital city, and it has a range of different old and new tourist attractions, while the main attractions in Alkhoms are the archaeology and beach tourism*" (Government official 1). This might also reflect the government strategy, which was starting to concentrate development in areas with better infrastructure, accessibility and service facilities, in order to boost economic returns and thus to justify future developments in remoter places. According to the tourism plan (2009-2025, Vol.3: 28), tourism development will be concentrated on places with most tourist demand, with these being located in the coastal areas, and that have necessary basic infrastructure, such as road networks and electricity supplies. This is in order to develop

tourism at these places as nuclei for further developments. According to one official, *"The concentration of tourism development in Tripoli was because of the availability of hotels and other services"* (Government official 9).

The majority of tourism products in Tripoli and Alkhoms are very weak in their capacity and quality. They are excluded from tourists' packages by tour operators because of the lack of tourism-related activities and supplementary services at many of the attractions. Some international tourists emphasised the problem of the limited availability of tourist products. *"We spent time in Tripoli at the beginning and end of our trip. In the last couple of days we re-visited Leptis Magna and the museum in Tripoli. So no, there weren't enough different things to do on our last two days. However, it was a treat to revisit Leptis Magna"* (International tourist 3). Another tourist stated that *"Yes there is a lot to see, but little to do. I mean for international tourists there is very little chance to enjoy other attractions rather than historical sites and cultural events and handicrafts"* (International tourist 1).

The major tourism products in both cities are broadly based on the natural and cultural resources with little or no innovative sophisticated products. A private sector actor said that *"They can be categorised into two types: natural and culture tourist attractions. Leisure tourism includes activities in natural settings, such as the sea and mountains and cultural activities at all cultural attractions, which include the Roman, African and Arabic, and Berber attractions in both cities"* (Private sector actor 16). Another interviewee stated that *"right now the attractions in Alkhoms are mainly cultural heritage sites and natural attractions, but the area has more potential products that can be developed in future"* (Private sector actor 14).

During the last decade Libya experienced rapid growth in local and international investments in different sectors, such as oil, infrastructure, and construction, and also significant expansion in bank loans for private sector businesses in manufacturing and service activities, such as the hotel sector, retailing, sports and gym clubs, which in turn has encouraged the emergence of new tourism types, particularly in Tripoli, such as business tourism, conference and exhibitions, spas and therapy, cruise tourism, scuba diving, and shopping tourism. Most of these new and evolving types of tourism were still small, but they had continued to grow as the infrastructure and services had kept improving.

According to the General Tourism Board (GTB), the coastal areas will enjoy major new tourism developments, especially in the form of beach resorts and villages. Therefore, in both case study areas several places have been surveyed and supplied with the basic requirements, such as roads, water and electricity, in order to attract investors. Tables 6.2 and 6.3 present the targeted areas for beach tourism development in Alkhoms and Tripoli respectively. The tables show significant increases in the total areas targeted for beach tourism in both places, with future plans to concentrate on beach tourism in both areas. Alkhoms might experience much more concentration on this product because it was observed that the vast majority of coastal areas in Alkhoms are still sparsely populated and undeveloped compared to Tripoli. Comparable development in Tripoli will involve substantial financial compensation to owners as well as some demolition, rehabilitation and regeneration of the landscape. These plans will also involve huge volumes of investment in both regions, which could lead to more foreign direct investment, and more jobs and revenues, but there could also be negative impacts unless quality measures are properly implemented for sustainable development.

If these planned developments take place in reality then considerable changes in the tourism portfolio can be expected in the next few years, including more concentration on this product, or else diversification within this coastal tourism product, and these might result in improved competitiveness and significant socio-economic and ecological impacts.

Table 6-2: Targeted Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Alkhoms

No	Name of Beach Areas in Alkhoms	Area in Hectares
1	The sandy triangle site	335
2	Karawa site (1)	635
3	Karawa site (2)	1,149
4	Karawa site (3)	153
5	Sidi Omaer (1)	248
6	Sidi Omaer (2)	547.5
7	Ataya site	30.7
8	Ghaneema site	72
9	Falfool site	51
10	Negaza site	64
11	Villa Celine site	148
Total Area		3,433.2

Source: General Tourism Board (GTB) Publications, 2007

Table 6-3: The Targeted Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Tripoli

No	Names of Beach Areas in Tripoli	Area in Hectares
1	Hai Elandalus site 1	5.0
2	Hai Elandalus site 2	5.5
3	Marine Club site	4.0
4	Delphine site	1.5
5	Palm Beach site	5.4
6	Hot Water Springs (Fawar) site	51
7	Golf site	42
8	Freedom site	14
9	Alandalusi site	24
10	Almanara site	18
11	Northern Dakhla site	11
12	Southern Dakhla site	5.5
13	Hamidia site	15
14	Tajoorra Beach Resort site	27
15	Annasr (victory) site	33
16	Abyar Esibayel site	32
17	Enishee site	31
18	Ghout Erroman (Pomegranate Gardens) site	35
19	Slaisla site, Tajoorra, south east	42
20	Tajoorra Tourist Village site	11
21	Peace site	3.5
Total Area		422

Source: General Tourism Board Publication, 2007

6.2.2 Product Image and Uniqueness

The image of a destination's products held in potential visitors' minds is a key element in determining destination attractiveness and its capacity to compete in the market. Hunt (1975:1) states that, "what these potential customers think about the natural environment, climate, and people of a region may shape perceptions or images, which detract from or contribute to successful development". The perceived uniqueness of the image is more about scarcity, which is considered by Weaver and Lawton as the "most valuable at the global scale" (2006: 148). Dwyer and Kim (2003) argue that the amount of entertainment available in a destination can be less important than the quality and uniqueness of the place. Thus, uniqueness should not be mixed up with entertainment.

Libya in general has potential attractions that might be seen as unique and differentiated from many other tourist destinations in the region. In Tripoli, some tourist attractions are seen by visitors as unique and they significantly influence their imagination. The most important tourist attraction in Tripoli is the Old Medina, which is a cluster of several attractions, including the Marcus Aureoles arch, the Souks of Al-Mushir and Al-Truk, the

heritage mosques of Al-Naga and Ahmed Pasha, and museums such as Saraya Al-Hamra. But there are other important tourism sites in Tripoli, such as Janzur Punic and the Catacombs, and the Islamic museums. *"Some attractions in Tripoli and Alkhoms are considered very attractive for international tourists. You know, for example places like Leptis Magna or Saraya museum and Old Medina are visited many times because these places are distinctive and unique"* (Government official 1). A blog reviewer also stated that *"I found it to be a good place to take photos of a medina that has yet to be transformed for tourists, and still retains its original flavour"* (Hlwdgrl, 2008).

In Alkhoms, the archaeological site of Leptis Magna is one of Libya's UNESCO World Heritage sites and it is considered an iconic attraction that draws both international and domestic tourists. *"Most tourists come to Libya for Leptis Magna and Sabrathra, which are arguably the greatest Roman sites in the world"* (Jim Keeble, 2009). Overall, cultural tourism in terms of heritage and archaeology attractions dominates tourism in Tripoli and Alkhoms. These attractions can be seen as distinct and different from other similar attractions of the same cost to visit in the same region. A tourist respondent was asked whether the tourist attractions in Tripoli and Alkhoms are unique, and they replied *"Not unless they were interested in Roman history- it's a pretty dull place compared with other places in the world for the same cost"* (International tourist 1). But many other international tourists who were interviewed who were interested in archaeology tourism indicated that Leptis Magna had had a strong effect on their perceptions as it is a unique attraction.

Some international tourists clearly pointed to a lack of clarity in the overall tourism image of both case study areas. For example, one international tourist stated that *"I think Leptis Magna has a strong image. But all the places really need branding to create a coherent image"* (International tourist 1). The lack of a coherent touristic image for Tripoli and Alkhoms is linked in part to problems in marketing policies and practices and also to the poor tourism-related infrastructure. A government interviewee argued that *"the weaknesses in the images of Tripoli and Alkhoms as tourist destinations come from the weaknesses in marketing and promotion and the poor infrastructure"* (Government official 1). And a blog reviewer stated that the Leptis Magna ruins are a *"great sight to visit - takes up several hours. Overnight in Tripoli - the hotels close to Leptis Magna are not advisable"* (traveller1230_10, 2010).

Despite the lack of concrete infrastructure and effective promotion, however, the comments about the lack of a clear tourist image may well be related to the small range of tourism products and activities that are offered for international tourists, with the most promoted attractions in both cases basically being based on heritage and cultural assets. As one government official emphasised, *"Libya is rich in natural and cultural resources for tourism, and our development policies mainly emphasise properly exploiting these resources"* (Government official 4). However, Tripoli enjoys some degree of product diversification. An interviewed tourist said *"in Tripoli we visited the museum (a great introduction to Libya), the arch, the souk, a mosque and restaurants. At Leptis Magna, we only visited the archaeological site museum and restaurant"* (International tourist 6). The Corinthia Hotel's manager in Tripoli remarked that *"in terms of attractiveness from a cultural and historic point of view, Libya has unquantifiable potential. Also, Libya's temperate climate, short winter and dry and pleasant summer heat provide all the natural ingredients for an excellent tourism destination"* (The Economist, 2007: 6). The differences in people's views seem to reflect their blurred and inconsistent images about the tourism products, especially when compared with other places they have visited. Thus, the image of Libya's tourism products is still somewhat unclear and undifferentiated, which in turn could lead to decline. Diversification into more, high quality products could provide a better experience and also promote a stronger image for both destinations.

6.2.3 Accessibility for Tourism Markets

Accessibility for tourism markets is an important attribute for the competitive tourist destination. Physical and information accessibility for tourists to travel to a specific place can be much affected by physical infrastructure and by political issues (Weaver and Lawton, 2006). Here accessibility can relate to whether tourists need entry visas, what the visa conditions are and how to apply for visa, how many entry points to the country are available for tourists, the procedures at the entry points, and restrictions of movements during the trip. It can be important here to have multiple entry points for tourists at airports, seaports, and land entry points, as well as a quality road network, ICT systems, online visa applications, online transaction facilities, and information rich websites.

At national level in Libya, poor accessibility has negatively impacted on the attributes of the attractions in both case study areas and also on tourism generally in the country. This is despite the proximity of Libya to Europe, the main tourist market, providing considerable

competitive advantages in terms of the short travelling time. Travel from the UK to Libya, for example, takes only 3.5 hours. But this advantage has not been properly utilised because of visa problems. For political reasons Libya's government imposed complicated regulations to gain tourist visas, especially for Western tourists, Libya's main tourist market. By contrast people from Arab countries and the African nations can enter the country easily, despite this being only a secondary tourist market for Libya. This highlights how the political interests of the Gaddafi regime and tourism requirements were not matched and were in contradiction. However, a few years ago some improvements in procedures to obtain tourist visas were introduced. Since February 2004, for example, restrictions against US passports holders travelling to Libya were lifted. And requirements imposed in 2007 by the political regime for an Arabic passport translation for international tourists prior to them gaining a tourist visa were subsequently lifted. More recently, tourists could also get their tourist visa at the entry points.

Yet gaining a tourist visa for Libya was still difficult at the time of the fieldwork because tourists still needed invitation letters from a recognised tourist company working in Libya or from an outside partner company with a local tour operator. These complicated procedures disappointed many tourists. One commented that *"To get a tourist visa, you have to be invited by a tour operator or someone else, and that could take several days. That wasn't suitable for us as we only wanted a short break holiday"* (International tourist 1). A reviewer stated that *"Similar to the process for getting a tourist visa for North Korea...Libya requires tourists to apply for a visa through a licensed tour operator...The tour agency in Libya has the responsibility for filing all of your paperwork with the Libyan Immigration Department, who will issue a letter [in Arabic] that you will need to bring with you on your trip. This letter is your official authorization for a visa upon entry into Libya"* (Sears-Collins, 2012). These long procedures can discourage tourists, notably potential short break holiday visitors, thus reducing tourist demand and the development of this sector.

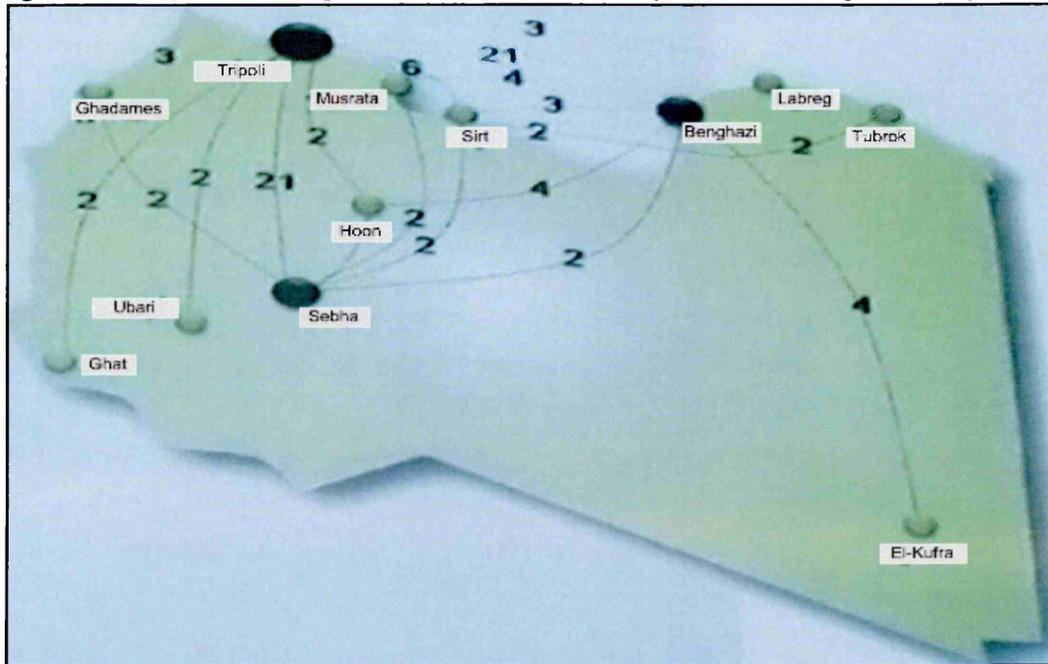
Moreover, while obtaining a Libyan visa for tourists in groups served by tour agencies was not so complex in the fieldwork period, for independent tourists gaining their visas was very difficult. They may try to avoid visa difficulties by using tour agencies, but this added an extra cost: *"Our actual visas were arranged by the local tour agency and were for collection on arrival. This costs an additional \$30 per person"* (Koshkha, 2010). However, independent travellers were not really favoured by the Libyan government, which imposed

the condition that independent tourists must be accompanied by a guide from a recognised local tour operator company. Temehu, a well-known local tour operator, stated on its website that *"According to Libyan law, a tourist must be accompanied by a Libyan representative of the chosen tour operator, from entry to exit..... Moreover, in groups of five or more, the Libyan Tourism Police will also join the convoy, in their own vehicle, of course"* (Temehu, 2012). A reviewer stated that "I am due to visit Tripoli at the end of the month and like you prefer independent travel. What I have discovered is that it is illegal to travel without a guide, who must register your itinerary with the authorities" (Zhena, 2010). Another stated that "The next problem is you need an invitation to apply for a visa to Libya" (tj1777, 2007). These political restrictions were justified by some interviewees by the contention that tourists need help during their travel in Libya since the majority of Libyans do not speak foreign languages. A government official stated that *"To increase tourists' satisfaction and safety, they must be accompanied by police or local guides to help them in speaking to people when they buy or visit local markets"* (Government official 5). In addition, tourists cannot apply online to gain an entry visa to Libya, making visa procedures inflexible, and that might discourage tourists from travelling to Libya. The visa regulations overall, together with technical problems, however, have damaged the country's accessibility for tourists, restricted the free movement of tourists, and as a consequence this has limited the number of tourists visiting the country.

Physical infrastructure is another major attribute affecting accessibility. Here Libya has improved several aspects of its transportation and communication infrastructure. For instance, Libya has at least three international airports, although Tripoli's airport is the only entry point for international tourists coming by air, while the other two airports in Benghazi and Sebha can be used for international departures only. This restriction has allowed Tripoli to substantially increase investment in its hotel industry in order to cater for international tourists. Other internal airports are shown in Figure 6.2, and they cover large areas of the country for commercial and passenger use. Libya's large size, substantial deserted interior, and its hot climate mean that air travel is often important for internal tourist trips, especially to the southern areas. It should be noted that most of the airports are private and were built mainly to serve business areas and oil fields rather than tourist destinations. Unfortunately, however, there are no international charter flights, such as Easyjet, Ryanair, and Thomson, working in Libya, that are widely used by neighbouring countries, so that flight accessibility is still a drawback for Libyan tourism. Therefore, most tourist destinations do not receive direct international flights. A tour operator argued for

further improvements to Libya's airport use in order to increase tourist demand: *"we need direct flights to cities that are known as tourist destinations, such as in the south, instead of stopping in Tripoli and then travelling again"* (Private sector actor 14). Thus, the lack of direct flights to different tourist destinations in Libya has led to a marked concentration of tourism development in Tripoli and it has notably hindered the spread and creation of other regional tourism centres. Thus, Tripoli's airport is easily the biggest in the country - its connections (and weekly number of flights) by flights to several internal airports is shown in Figure 6.4.

Figure 6-4: The Internal Flights Network and the Weekly Number of Flights in Libya, 2010



Source: Adapted by the author from <http://www.temehu.com/internal-flights-and-airports.htm>

The road network is the main transportation means that tourists can use to visit Tripoli and Alkhoms connects both case study areas with other touristic places, as it is the case in many countries (Oxford Business Group, 2008). Nowadays, most tourist destinations and major cities in Libya are connected by a good road network, as shown in Figure 5.5. The country's paved roads increased markedly from 8,800 km in 1978 to 47,600 km in 1999 (Colijn, 2005), and the main highway road between Tunis and the Egyptian borders passes all of Libya's coastal cities, including Tripoli and Alkhoms. However, Libya's large area and the wide geographic dispersal of tourist attractions mean that tourists often spend hours on roads in their movements between attractions. *"The roads in Libya are really good, which considering we spent hours every day in a small coach, was really important. Yes, there were a few potholes, but let's be honest, you can't drive down the street anywhere in the UK*

without risking a bust axle after this winter's snows" (Koshkha, 2010). The distance between Tripoli and Alkhoms, despite them being adjacent cities, is 120 km and it takes one and a half hours drive, so that tourists lose substantial time on the roads.

Public transportation in Libya involves shared minibuses and coaches owned by public or private sector businesses, and small taxis for private rental by local people, as shown in Figure 6.5. By law the public or private shared transportation are not allowed to be used by tourists, and tour operators are not allowed by law to arrange shared public transportation use for their clients: *"it is not possible for tourists to travel alone using public transport"* (Temehu, 2012). Therefore, tourists must use private vehicles that are licensed as taxis. These private taxis are available in major cities such as Tripoli, while in small cities that do not receive large numbers of tourists, like Alkhoms, these taxis often are not available. These complicated regulations negatively impact on tourists' freedom of movement and they hinder the growth of independent travel. Moreover, trams and trains are not available at the moment in Libya. One consequence of these regulations and accessibility limitations is that the price of having a holiday in Libya is not cheaper than its competitors.

Figure 6-5: Means of Public Transportation in Libya



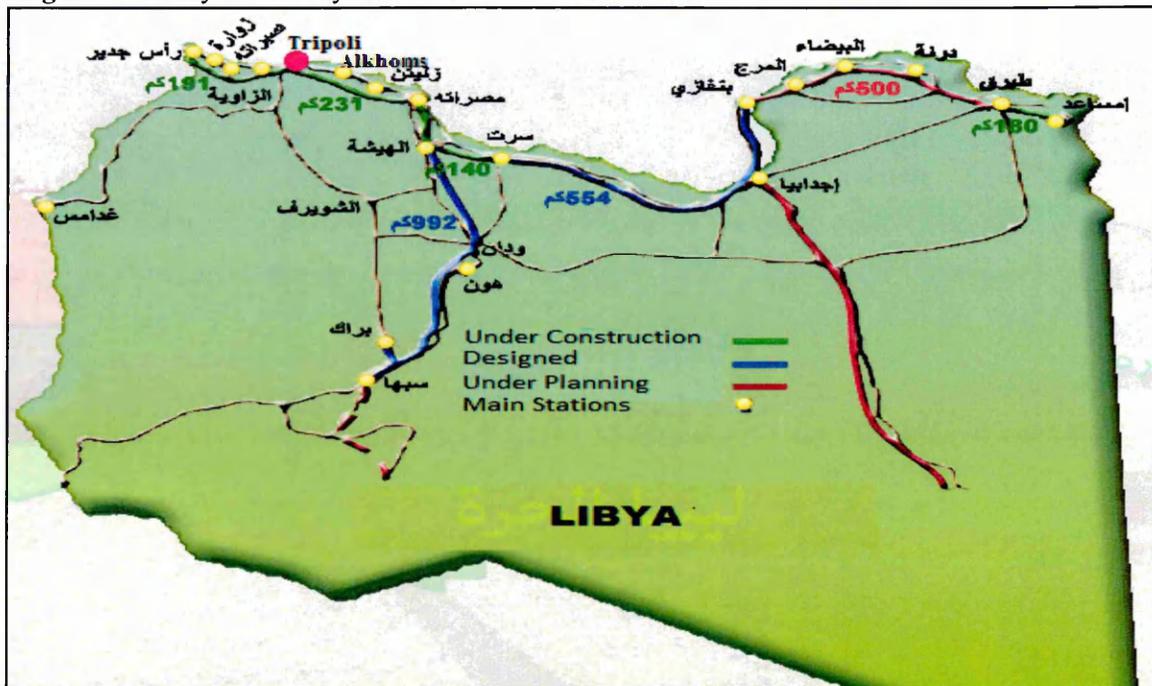
Source: <http://www.temehu.com/public-transport.htm>

At local level, Tripoli city has problems of traffic congestion, but the concentration of most tourist attractions in and around the city centre means tourists can enjoy walking and sightseeing when moving between attractions in the city. This contrasts with Alkhoms,

where the Leptis Magna archaeology site is located 3 km from the city's outskirts and Villa Celine is about 15 km away. As a tour operator stated, *"there is another thing about Tripoli, it is an historical city, and most of its attractions are found in or close to the city centre. So that means that tourists enjoy walking the short distances between them. This is not found, for example, in Alkhoms or in many other places in Libya"* (Private sector actor 14).

In respect of infrastructure, work had progressed in improving accessibility by train, with the government having invested in a massive railway network programme crossing the country from the east to the west borders, connecting with the Egyptian and Tunisian railways. The main train stations are mostly in coastal cities, as shown in Figure 6.6, including Tripoli and Alkhoms. The Chairman of the Libyan Railways Executive Board described the government's goal as *"Our aim is to connect Egypt with Tunisia by building 2,300 km of new railway along the coast. We plan a 1,000 km line inland to Sebha. We are also thinking of extensions to Chad and Niger to link up with the railways in Nigeria and Sudan"* (Briginshaw, 2001: 3). However, construction works are still in progress. Further, more projects are planned to develop tram and underground train systems in Tripoli, as shown in Figure 5.8. These projects are expected to improve the accessibility of most tourist attractions located in coastal areas since the train line passes through all of them.

Figure 6-6: Libyan Railways Network under Construction



Source: Adapted from Libyan Railway Board at: www.railroads.org.ly

Access to tourist destination information is necessary for tourism development and competitiveness. Buhalis *et al.* (2005) state that supply side ICT is vital for the marketing of tourism products and services and the distribution of information on a global scale, while on the demand side the penetration of ICTs is largely consumer-driven as customers seek electronic interaction with the tourism industry. Thus, accessibility to information about entry ticketing, prices, exchange rates, online hotel reservations, online transactions, and tourist feedback are important for tourism growth. However, these information areas are still major challenges for tourists intending to visit Libya, because of its ICT infrastructure and use. Tourism ICT systems help to integrate demand and supply sides together, resulting in mutual information flows between suppliers and tourists and helping to make global transactions at low cost. "Both demand and supply side are heavily dependent on electronic market places empowered by technological advances" (Buhalis *et al.*, 2005: 23). A comparison between Northern African countries in terms of internet penetration is shown in Table 6.4, indicating that Libya has easily the lowest user penetration.

Table 6-4: Internet penetration in Northern African Countries, 2010-2011

Countries	Population (2011 Est.)	Internet Users Dec/2000	Internet Users Latest Data	Penetration (% Population)
Morocco	31,968,361	100,000	13,213,000 March 2011	41.3 %
Algeria	34,994,937	50,000	4,700,000 June 2010	13.4 %
Tunisia	10,629,186	100,000	3,600,000 March 2010	33.9 %
Libya	6,597,960	10,000	353,900 June 2010	5.4 %
Egypt	82,079,636	450,000	20,136,000 December 2010	24.5 %

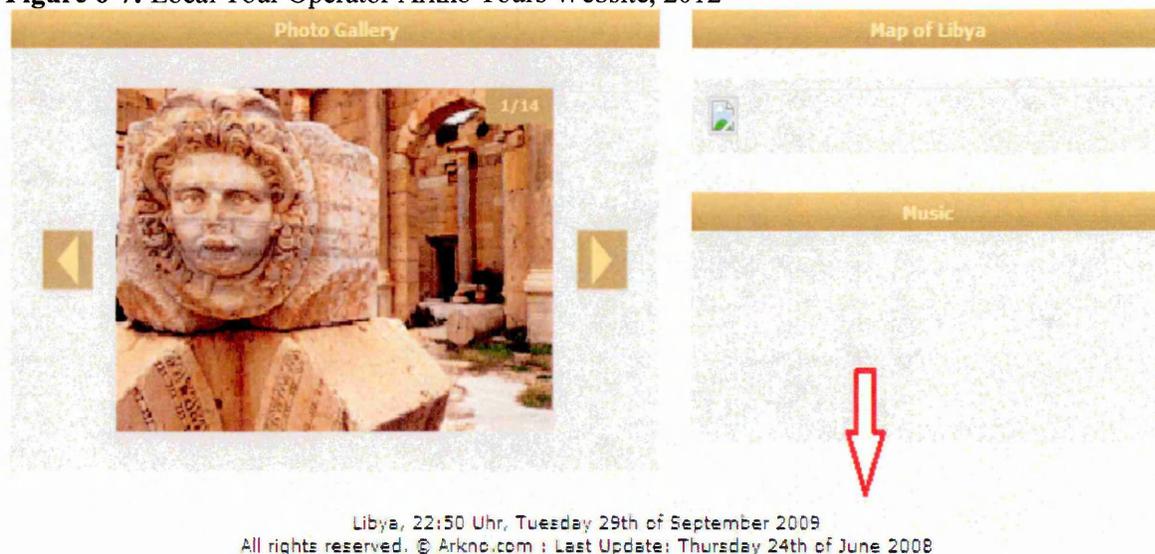
Source: adapted by the author from <http://www.internetworldstats.com/stats1.htm>

The key actors providing marketing information about Libya's tourist attractions are the General Tourism Board and tour operators and travel agencies, either via their websites or other promotional tools. Generally tour operators are local SME enterprises and as many as 85% of them do not use credit card services due to difficulties in accessing them (Porter and Yergin, 2006). Therefore, they are facing major challenges to establish e-commerce to enhance accessibility for their clients.

Lack of tour operator expertise also reduces the value of the accessible information about Libyan tourist attractions in their promotional material. Many local tourist agencies and tour operators depend on the internet to promote their travel offerings, but the assessment

of their websites for this study shows they tend to market themselves rather than the tourist attractions, resulting in poor information provision for tourists: *"most tour operators' market their packages and services and not the attractions"* (Government official 5). Further, this has encouraged most tour packages and services provided by tour operators to be similar in their types and itineraries, without significant differentiation. A private sector respondent argued that *"Local tour agencies cannot compete globally because they do not have the experience and professionalism. They market the same products - that is why many of them quit"* (Private sector actor 14). Surprisingly, some tour operators do not update their websites regularly. One local tour operator website at the end of 2012 had not been updated since June 2008, as shown in Figure 6.7.

Figure 6-7: Local Tour Operator Arkno Tours Website, 2012



Source: <http://www.arkno.com/visa.html>

The accessible information channels about Libya's tourist attractions are basic and inadequate. Tourist attractions still depend on tour operators and the government to market them via their websites, brochures and books, and on irregular participation in international tourism exhibitions. None of the primary tourist attractions in Tripoli and Alkhoms have established their own websites in order to be directly accessible to tourists. Such weaknesses in information accessibility and validity might be linked to the lack of appropriate marketing policies and unskilled human capital, and the result is that tourists have difficulty gaining sufficient knowledge about tourist attractions in both case study areas and in Libya in general. One international tourist stated that *"I did not expect the small city of Alkhoms to hide such huge and amazing ruins. We struggled a lot to gather information about it"* (International tourist 3). Currently, tourists often rely on the very

limited information on local tour operators' websites and on recommendations from friends and relatives who had visited Libya. Thus, there is a need, for instance, "to tackle the low awareness of Libya even in key European source markets" (Jones, 2010: 12). The tour operator, Temehu, has initiated the first online museum website in Libya, and it explained the reasoning behind this: *"Libyan museums are hardly known outside Libya. They are rarely listed in, or covered by, any of the specialist publications and organisations. Despite the fact that Assaraya Alhamra Museum is one of the most valued museums in the world, largely for its unique collection of artefacts dating from the Stone Age to the present day, Libyan museums still remain in total darkness. To this day, not a single museum has a website"* (Temehu, 2012).

6.2.4 Destination Capacity

Prolonging the life cycle of tourism products can involve adopting policies that increase the capacity of tourist destinations, such as by diversifying into more tourism products to cater for varying tastes, by developing improved supporting products such as accommodation, and by achieving more sustainable development in terms of the socio-economic and environmental dimensions. Destinations that offer a small range of tourism products catering for a small tourist market segment may well have a low tourism capacity. Hence, the destination capacity is an important attribute to measure and extend throughout the development processes in order to retain destination competitiveness (Crouch, 2007) and destination resilience.

The growth of the accommodation sector in recent years as a result of the emergence of new types of tourism, such as business tourism, has increased the physical carrying capacity of tourism in Libya, particularly in Tripoli. During the last decade there has been a significant increase in international tourists visiting Libya, especially after the lifting of air travel restrictions imposed in 1992 against the country, as shown in Figure 6.15. Diversification into more tourist attractions in Tripoli has enlarged the city's capacity to receive more tourists. Tripoli's visitors can now enjoy a range of cultural attractions, such as heritage buildings and museums, and also water front scenes, a zoo, beach resorts and sports, business events and shopping. A tourist described how the offerings in Tripoli compared with those in Alkhoms: *"Of course Tripoli is more life and vitality. Unfortunately, despite the fact that Lepts is very beautiful, it lacks the tourism services and other places to visit. In Tripoli, there are three museums and the old city*

where you will never be bored by looking and exploring it. But, my visit to Leptis Magna really really was astonishing" (International tourist 3).

The tourism physical capacity was substantially improved by more than doubling the hotel numbers in Tripoli region from 66 in 1997 to 154 in 2007 (Libyan Statistics Book, 2009). Such accommodation sector improvements have helped to increase tourist demand in the city, and the development of luxury hotels was itself a result of the increasing demand from business travellers, that in turn was the result of the substantial shift in the government strategy towards the open market (Playfoot, 2011).

These changes have led to the emergence of business tourism as a major new tourism product in Tripoli. For example, currently there are at least five hotels from different companies classified as 5 star, as shown in Table 6.5. There are also 15 4 star hotels in Tripoli, 89 3 star hotels, plus other types of accommodation. *"Tripoli is the most visited city in Libya either by local people or international visitors for holiday, work or business. Therefore, many hotels were developed recently to meet this increased demand"* (Government official 4). The number of local SMEs, in terms of tour operators, travel agencies, restaurants, cafés and tourist guides, also has increased to meet the growing demand, and that has led to improvements in Tripoli's overall capacity as a tourist destination.

Table 6-5: List of 5 Star Hotels in Tripoli, 2010

Hotel Name	Status
Corinthia Bab Africa Hotel	Working
The Radisson Blu Hotel	Working
Rixos Al Nasr Tripoli Hotel	Working
JW Marriott Hotel	Working
El-Waddan Hotel	Under repair
Zuwarah Tourist Beach Hotel	Under construction

Source: Compiled by the author

The lack of proper land-use planning, however, has encouraged the development of private hotels in Tripoli's crowded area in the city centre. Although the growth in budget accommodation has improved the tourism hotel room carrying capacity, these unplanned developments have increased congestion and decreased parking areas in the city centre,

making movements and car parking very difficult at peak times. According to an interviewee, the unplanned use of land has reduced the city's attractiveness:

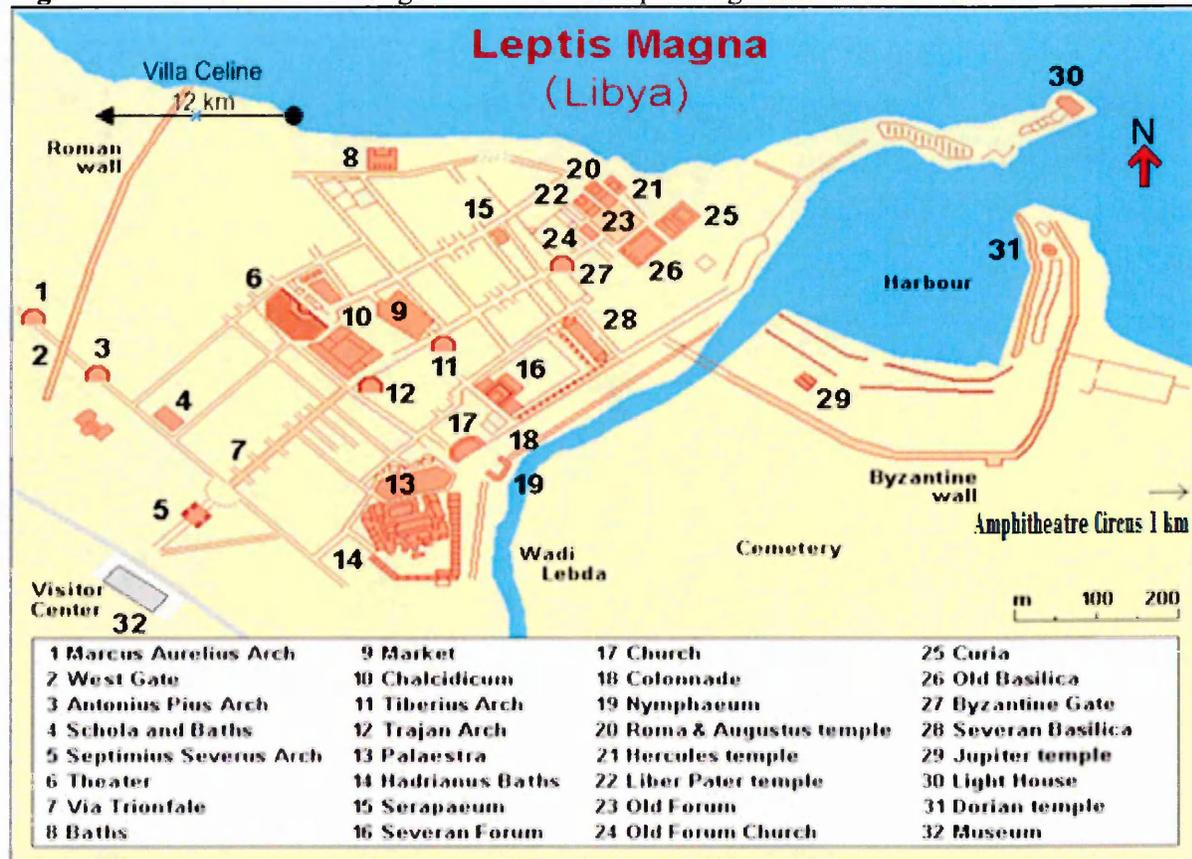
"The sudden increase in private sector hotels in Tripoli has resulted from an increased portion of loans and the easing of regulations that help the private sector to invest in tourism. Owning hotels in the capital city is the easy way to make money in a short time. The problem is that many of these hotels were built in the city center, making the city more crowded and the traffic is more congested, and the city has become very ugly and very hot in the summer due to extensive use of thousands of air conditioners in buildings. However, some of these low quality hotels did not follow the design restrictions regarding heights, safety, and landscape plans" (Governmental official 3).

Uncontrolled demand and lack of improvements to overall capacities at some attractions has also led to damage to the attractions, especially those visited by domestic tourists. There are no control measures, for example, managing the increasing demand from local tourists to visit Tripoli Zoo or the beaches in the summer. Tripoli Zoo is located in the heart of Tripoli City, but it has rarely received funding to enlarge its capacity to meet the increasing demand. A local tourist described the overcrowding when visiting Tripoli Zoo: *"In Tripoli I visited the zoo a long time ago, and when I went there lately I found it in a poor condition since the number of animals is not sufficient and less than before. Also its landscape has not been expanded for many years and the parking area is still quite small, resulting in many cars not being able to park, so they leave to park in the main road, making it overcrowded and jammed, especially at the weekends" (Domestic tourist 3).*

The intensive use of coastal lands for economic development near Tripoli has also led to a loss of beach quality and cleanliness. Very large numbers of local people enjoy swimming and sun bathing at the private resorts that are developed seasonally, but most of these resorts lack waste and sewage facilities. A government respondent stated that *"every summer season we experience the same problems with private resorts. Most of them ignore the contract conditions and leave their places unclean. We need to control that effectively in future by determining specific beach land for investment instead of letting people use any place. This will help to provide basic services of a better quality" (Government official 9).* Thus, these beach sites exceed their capacities, resulting in significant social and environmental deterioration.

In Alkhoms, the Leptis Magna archaeology site is geographically very extensive, with the ancient city covering 3 km square and encompassing several unique attractions, as shown in Figure 6.8.

Figure 6-8: The Main Archaeological Ruins in the Leptis Magna Site



Source: [http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:LY-Leptis Magna.png](http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:LY-Leptis_Magna.png)

It was stressed by an interviewee that *"In fact Lebda is not one tourist product, there are many archaeological sites that make up the whole city, including theatres, baths, streets and fields, museums and the harbour. I'm sorry for treating it like one product. It is not a museum, it is ancient city"* (Public sector actor 4). It is mainly visited by international tourists, usually in groups, but also by a few local people, often in family groups or school parties. However, while the site is vast, there are far too few services and facilities. Consequently, that has limited the site's capacity to accommodate large numbers of tourists. Lack of development in both Alkhoms and the Leptis Magna site has lowered the destination's tourism capacity. A respondent argued that *"Alkhoms is one of the most beautiful places in Libya, both in its nature and beaches and its cultural diversity, but in fact it has not had enough development so far, despite it containing the finest complete Roman city in the world"* (Public sector actor 4). Also the slow archaeological excavation

process at the site, the poor services, and its small car park add to the constraints on it accommodating more tourists. The entrance to the Leptis Magna site has a very poor quality steel gate, itself unsuited to its historical setting, which leads to a small unpaved open area that becomes very busy with tourists' buses and cars. In this small area there are also some cypress and pine trees planted to protect visitors from the sun and some poor quality buildings, such as a café in a tin building, souvenir and garment shops, a police office, a ticketing office, some small public toilets and the museum, as shown in Figures 6.9 and 6.10. The whole site is completely empty of any entertainment or leisure facilities to satisfy tourists' leisure needs (Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987). An interviewee identified some of the site's deficiencies for tourists: *"If even a small amount of attention is given to improving the quality of services and to adding family entertainment facilities, then I think that Leptis could attract more tourists and encourage domestic tourists too"* (Government official actor 10).

Figure 6-9: Small Shops at the Entrance to the Leptis Magna Site, 2010



Source: The author

The limited number of hotels and their poor quality at Alkhoms, which restricts the tourism capacity, has also limited the destination's ability to diversify into more tourism products. According to the General Information Board's 2007 annual report, there are only six hotels in Alkhoms totalling 129 beds, and among them only one hotel classified as 3 star. Thus, a respondent stated that *"Alkhoms at present is unable to accommodate large numbers of tourists. There aren't a sufficient number of hotels, facilities, and basic services for tourists"* (Government official 10). The accommodation sector deficiencies in Alkhoms has

considerably shortened tourists' length of stay and thus reduced the economic returns for local businesses. Further, tourists visiting attractions located fairly near to Tripoli, such as at Leptis Magna, often book their accommodation in Tripoli because of its better services, accommodation, and transportation, and also because Tripoli is the "gateway" that connects many other tourist destinations in the country by air and road. As an interviewee noted, *"Tourists usually do not stay in Alkhoms for a long time. So, the majority of them visit and leave Alkhoms in the same day, and only a few of them spend one night, and rarely three nights"* (Private sector actor 8). This suggests that increasing the accommodation, and thus the tourism capacity, may well be essential for successful tourism product diversification in Alkhoms.

Figure 6-10: Small Shops at the Entrance to the Leptis Magna Site, 2010



Source: The author

Another capacity issue relates to the supply and quality of tourist guides, with too few guides, they are often inadequately skilled, and there is also a poor distribution among the skill levels. International tourists must hire local guides, and if they number five or more they must be accompanied by a tourism police officer for security issues (Temehu, 2001). Tourist guides in Libya are classified into two categories: Class A guides are certified to guide tourists at a national level due to their high qualifications, while Class B guides work only at local sites and are not qualified to guide tourists at a national level. Tourist guide jobs at both levels are recognised as permanent jobs, but most tourist guides only work occasionally or as part time employees for tour operators, despite their overall limited numbers. As one guide explained: *"All tourist guides in Libya are part time employees, and during off peak seasons we spend days and weeks without any work"* (Private sector actor7). Table 6.6 shows there were only 19 guides in Class A for the whole country in

2008, and this number could not cater for all international tourist groups. The number of Class B guides was also only 213 for the whole country. It is obvious that these numbers are very small and cannot cater for the demand, thus reducing the international tourism capacity.

Table 6.6 also reveals the ill-distribution of Class B guides. For instance, there were 46 local guides in Alkhoms (usually in the Leptis Magna site), although international tourism depends very largely only on the Leptis Magna site. In contrast, there were only 4 guides working in Tripoli where several attractions are visited by these tourists. The head of the government's tourism planning and training department stated that *"Many tourist guides are working in other sectors, but because they want to improve their income through using their ability to speak languages they were offered short training sessions about hospitality and knowledge about the sites that the tourists visit. They are not specialised, and their overall number is very small"* (Government official 4).

Table 6-6: The Number, Categories and Geographical Distribution of Tourist Guides in 2008

Tourist Destination	Number of guides	Class of the Licence
Class "A" Tourist Guides (national level guides)	19	Class A
Class "B" Tourist Guides (local level guides)		
Tripoli	4	Class B
Alkhoms	46	Class B
Sabaratha	57	Class B
Al-Butnan	31	Class B
Ghadames	52	Class B
Jabal El-Akhdar	12	Class B
Ghat	10	Class B
Sabha	23	Class B
Al-Jufrah	17	Class B
Total	232	Class A=19, Class B= 213

Source: Compiled by the author from Information Centre and Tourism Statistics (GTB)

A travel reporter for the UK's Daily Telegraph also stated that *"Although it has started to open up, Libya is still not an easy country to visit. You need a travel agent to handle the logistics, including an English-speaking guide, and there aren't many"* (Simms, 2010). In order to reduce the quality and quantity of problems for tourist guides, the tourism plan (2009-2025, Vol. 3: 88) urges the need for a quick solution, and it proposes offering jobs for at least 250 new candidates in 2009-2010 after they have passed the intensive training programmes (6 months for B Class guides and one year for A Class guides). But this plan had not been applied in practice when the fieldwork for this study was carried out.

6.2.5 Affordability

Affordability of high quality experiences against reasonably low prices is important to increase tourist demand, an increase of that might encourage more product diversification. Quality experiences are essential for contemporary tourists in deciding to purchase specific holiday packages because tourists usually weigh their expenditure against the quality of experiences gained. Tourists tend to avoid visiting unaffordable tourist destinations, which means those destinations often experience decline. Effective pricing strategies can be important to encourage new product development and promote tourist satisfaction. Affordable pricing is also often critical in the marketing mix (Dwyer, Forsyth and Rao, 2000; Weaver and Lawton, 2006). Holiday costs may involve payments for an entry visa, hiring guides, transportation, communication, food, and accommodation, admission fees to tourist sites, souvenir purchases, and activities. Destinations offering high quality and diversified tourism products are often more able to compete on prices, such as through sharing marketing costs, and thus are more able to satisfy tourists. Cooper (2012) states that destinations that diversify into high quality products are likely to be better able to protect themselves against price competition.

In Libya, the poor quality of attractions has encouraged a low entry price strategy. The government determines entry prices to the archaeology sites and museums, and there are fixed entry charges for all attractions in Libya regardless of their quality, size, location, or demand level. The prices were differentiated by the visitor's nationality and age, by the use of still or video cameras inside the attraction, and by special offers for students. Table 6.7 shows the entry fees fixed by the General Tourism Board that are applied at all archaeology sites and museums. However, it is compulsory for all international tourists to be accompanied by local guides in museums and archaeology sites, so hiring a guide is mandatory, making prices in practice much higher and less competitive compared with many other countries. A reviewer stated that *"Libya is not a cheap place to travel through when compared with other countries that offer similar cultural and historical experiences - Egypt and Syria for example"* (The Wandering Camel, 2005).

The entry prices for Libyans are widely considered to be expensive due to their generally low income. Public sector employees' income, for example, is still controlled by Law No.15/1981 which provides public sector employees with jobs for life but at almost fixed and low wages (Omar, 2003), which means they cannot afford much tourism or leisure

activity. Also, according to the Libya census, the average number of people in Libyan families is 6 members (Libyan Statistics Book, 2006). Libyans also have strong family ties, so they often spend weekend holidays in extended family groups. Thus, visiting a museum in a family group can be costly for most Libyan families. A domestic tourist stated that *"I remember that I have visited Leptis Magna when I was in school a long time ago. I do not think there is anything new there, and we are a family of nine which means a lot of money will go just on paying for the tickets"* (Domestic tourist 6). But it was observed that some local families visit the museums and archaeology sites, especially during public holidays. By contrast, international tourists perceive the entry prices as reasonable, especially due to the high exchange rates against Libyan currency (Khalifa, 2010).

Table 6-7: Entry Fees to Archaeology Sites and Museums in Libya, 2010

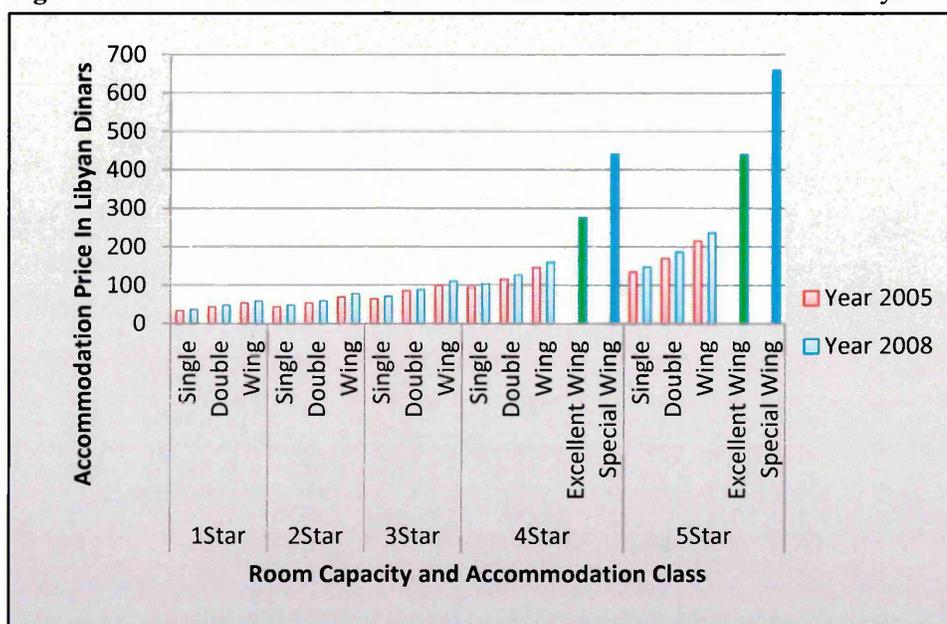
Categories	Ticket Price
Libyan 10 years and above	3LYD = £1.50
Libyans under 10 years	1.5LYD = £0.75
Libyan student groups	1.5LYD = £0.75
Non Libyan visitors 10 years and above	6LYD = £3.00
Non Libyan visitors under 10 years	3LYD = £1.50
Video camera fee	10LYD = £5.00
Camera fee	5 LYD =£2.50
Museum Guide	50LYD = £25.00

Source: Compiled by the author from <http://www.temehu.com/Prices.htm>

Lack of competition in the hotel sector, especially for higher quality hotels, has led to high hotel prices. Prices for classified hotels are considered high and do not match the low quality of the holiday experience that some tourists gain (Khalifa, 2010). For example, a reviewer commented on Tripoli's Corinthia hotel that *"this is a very high quality hotel. It's on the expensive side, but I guess that goes with the territory given recent history"* (Gobbledyspook, 2012). Another reviewer stated that *"I stayed at the Corinthia for four nights last week and everything was as I expected it to be. Room service is available and it is pretty quick, so, very good hotel, but overpriced at 255 Euro/night"* (Yves C, 2012). The pricing policy for accommodation, notably classified accommodation, was established by government in Law No.1/2005, and some price increases were approved in Law No. 7/2008 due to improvements in quality with the introduction of two new types of accommodation, the "Excellent Wing" and "Special Wing" in 2008, which determined the highest prices in hotels. The prices are shown in Figure 6.11. While high hotel prices are generally perceived as an indicator of high quality (Weaver and Lawton, 2006), Tripoli's high hotel prices also reflect the high demand and shortage of hotels. For example, in 2008,

the only the 5 Star hotel in Tripoli was Corinthia. The lack of competition in the hotel sector due to the high demand from business visitors, even for three- and four-star hotels, has meant that business people often book these hotels for long periods in advance. "Demand is so high that some three- and four-star hotels in Tripoli have hired out all their rooms for a year in advance to rapidly growing multinational energy groups" (Oxford Group, 2008: 129). This situation has given the 5 star hotels a monopoly, allowing them to charge excessive rates (2008: 129). The high price of hotels, especially better quality hotels, also frustrates local tourists who perceived them as very expensive and not suitable for them. *"Luxury hotels are not for us. They are expensive, and one night at these hotels will cost me one month's salary"* (Domestic tourist 3).

Figure 6-11: The Increases in Hotel Prices for Years 2005 and 2008 in Libya



Source: Compiled by the author from:

- 1- <http://www.temehu.com/Libyahotels/hotelgallery/intro/hotels-hostels-camping-in-libya.htm>
- 2- <http://www.libyan-tourism.org/UserFiles/pdf/qrar%20numbr%207.pdf>

Locally-owned small hotels, such as the boutique hotels in Tripoli, are more affordable and better value for money, and offer more authentic food and atmosphere. Tourists generally consider the price of this type of local hotel as reasonable, especially for tourists coming from wealthy countries. Most locally-owned hotels supply local food and tea in an authentic way to enhance the tourist experience. A hotel manager in Alkhoms claimed that their cheap prices and local cultural characteristics pleased their clients: *"Our hotel prices are reasonable for international tourists compared to the prices in their countries. We know the quality in their countries might be higher, but ours is cheaper and more*

authentic" (Private sector actor 7). Figure 6.12 indicates the distinctive local character of dining at Zumit hotel in Tripoli.

Figure 6-12: Local Food and Music during Lunch Time at Zumit Hotel, Tripoli



Source: <http://www.zumithotel.com/en/gallery.html>

The lack of tourism product diversification can be a drawback when a destination is expensive. Tripoli has a much wider range of attractions and services compared to Alkhoms, including hotels, and this in part helps to explain the higher hotel costs of Tripoli. A hotel manager in Alkhoms referred to the lack of attractions in Alkhoms as a major reason for tourists' short visits: *"International tourists visit Leptis Magna and they often leave on the same day to return to Tripoli because tourists there can visit many places, do activities like shopping, walking, and going out at night. These are not available in Alkhoms"* (Private sector actor 7).

Thus, problems of insufficient attractions and supplementary facilities and services, such as a limited range of hotel accommodation, are not overcome by the lower prices of Alkhoms hotels. Thus, it is important for competitiveness to focus on high quality experience at an affordable price. Thus, Libya's tourism planners understandably emphasise creating "value added tourism" as the core objective of the national tourism development strategy, so as to deliver better experiences at competitive prices. Although the objective is clear in the 2009-2025 strategy, the plan is unclear about how this will be implemented, such as in terms of a pricing strategy.

6.2.6 The Seasonality Effects

The seasonality problem significantly impacts on Libyan tourism, in part due to the lack of diversified tourism products. Although seasonality allows tourism owners and staff a period of rest each year, and time for maintenance work on attractions, it is widely seen as a problem leading to loss of jobs and revenues (Ball, 1988; Dritsakis, 2008; Koenig and Bischoff, 2005). Seasonality of demand can be linked to conditions both in the tourist generating countries and also the host destination. The length of, and the impact of, seasonality for tourism is influenced by, for example, the range of tourist offerings, the range of potential markets, and the climatic conditions (Fernandez-Morales, 2003; Moraru, 2011).

A lack of a sufficient range and mix of tourist offerings can intensify the seasonality effects. Primary tourism products have the major role to attract tourists, and the only primary tourism product in Tripoli and Alkhoms that is strongly promoted to international tourists is the heritage and archaeology ruins. These potentially can be visited at any time in the year, but these attractions are insufficient in quantity and diversity to encourage tourists to stay for a long time in either of the case study areas. Hence, these attractions are often combined with the desert or Berber culture in Nafusa Mountains or in Ghadames in order to appeal to more tourists and to prolong their holidays. Given the hot dry summer, visiting the desert attractions is realistically combined with visiting coastal areas only in the winter. Thus, lack of diversification into more cultural, natural and business attractions in the coastal areas has markedly intensified the international tourist demand in the specific period between October and April. According to one tour operator *"Tourists in the summer are few but also short break holiday visitors. We cannot offer them the desert excursions in the summer so we lose significant numbers of them in the summer. Maybe in the future we could receive more tourists after developing beach villages and cultural events, but currently tourism becomes almost dead in the summer"* (Private sector actor 15). An officer from Alkhoms tourism authority stated that *"In Alkhoms, the mountains of Nagaza were not developed to attract international tourists; rather they are used for camping and outdoor tourism. And also the beach resorts were not provided with water games and activities so as to reduce the long off- season period in Alkhoms during the hot summer"* (Government official 11). A domestic tourist also stated that *"There is no theme park or things of interest for our children in Leptis Magna site. Although it is a beautiful place, it is not for families. So we prefer to spend the summer holiday at the sea and the spring time having barbecues"*

in green landscapes" (Domestic tourist 6). Seasonality also affects tourism in Tripoli, but to a lesser extent than in Alkhoms due to the availability of more tourism products. An interviewee from the local authority tourism department in Tripoli, for example, stated that *"the development of business tourism in the city benefits hoteliers by improving the occupancy rate all year round"* (Public sector actor 9).

Lack of diversification into quality indoor water activities and water sports has also intensified the seasonality effects for beach tourism, which is mainly consumed by domestic tourists, and it has limited marketing to promote beach tourism for international tourists. Domestic tourism is more active in the summer season in the coastal beaches, and that is the time when international tourists consume heritage and cultural tourism products in the coastal areas and they avoid the desert areas in the interior. This reduces the extent to which these distinct sectors may substitute each other and it increases the effects of seasonality. However, the overlap between the two is limited due to the cultural differences.

6.2.7 Safety, Security and Hospitality

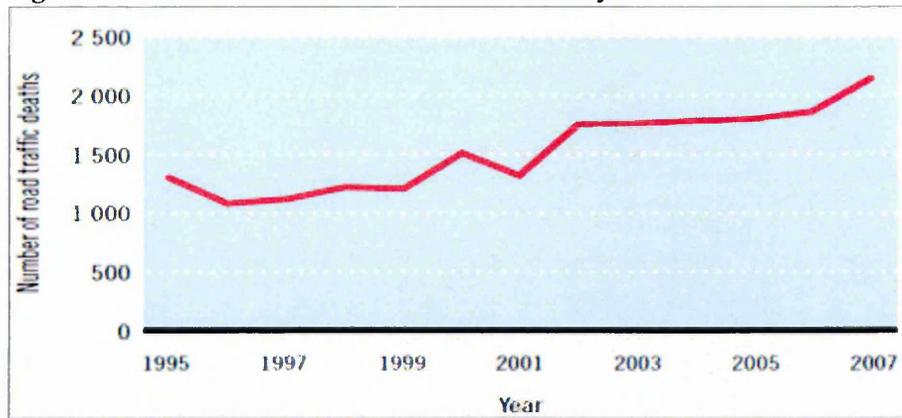
Safety and security is often a basic core requirement for tourists when they decide on their holiday destination. This can be linked to various factors, such as political stability, harassment by local people, crimes against tourists, road accidents, and lack of hygiene measures, disease and lack of health services (Jones, 2010; Pizam, Tarlow, and Boom, 1997).

Before the recent war from February 2011, Libya politically was stable and very safe for tourists due to the strong security grip of the Gaddafi regime, although in some instances there were concerns about security and the harassment of tourists which made tourists unhappy. Tourists' perspectives on the strong dictatorship and the radical socialistic image of Libya's regime would very likely have been influenced by the negative western media during the recent decades of conflict between Libya's regime and western countries. A reviewer wrote on the Travel Intelligence website: *"Call us when you get back... if you get back," joked friends before our departure"* (Jim Keeble, 2009). Such slightly nervous joking probably did reflect a common international tourist view about the effects of Gaddafi on the country.

Local people in Tripoli have now become used to seeing international tourists in their city, and they are generally welcomed and they are rarely targeted by local people. *"Libyans are welcoming and hospitable and peaceful people and they are not irritated to see foreigners as long as they respect their culture and their environment"* (Public sector actor 3). However, local people's hospitality is more obvious in Tripoli because they encounter tourists there as the tourists wander about the city. The ability of local people to speak languages can help them engage with tourists and can make the tourists feel safer: *"We drove on to Tripoli where we stayed for 2 days. Tripoli is a great place. There is a feeling of safety and everyone is friendly"* (Philannie, 2009). The traders generally are also respectful and helpful to tourists: *"The tradesmen are not pushy at all, in fact the exact opposite of next door neighbour Egypt. That makes browsing and shopping an unusually easy experience. Almost without exception, the locals are polite and helpful"* (Malcognito, 2010). By contrast, most international tourists who go to Alkhoms are just going to the Leptis Magna site outside the city, they are in groups, they are only there for a few hours on a day visit, and they are often accompanied with guides and possibly with the tourism police. Therefore, they rarely engage with local people and do not experience local hospitality.

Road safety can be a real problem for coach travel and independent travellers using their own vehicles. Road capacity, pavement quality, traffic signage, people's respect for driving laws and traffic signage, and availability of phone and rescue points along roads are all important supplementary requirements for travellers' feeling of safety. Generally, Libyan roads are paved but often poorly repaired and driving safety measures are fairly poor, features reducing tourists' sense of safety. Indeed, Libya has experienced increasing numbers of road traffic deaths over the last decade, as shown in Figure 6.13, and this reflects the problems of safety on the roads. A blogger described how *"The road was very comfortable and the speed in the traffic was very high. They don't drive like I'm used to, and for some when overtaking the big slow lorries I had to close my eyes and say a good prayer"* (Ken, 2010).

Figure 6-13: Trends in Road Traffic Deaths in Libya



Source: Al-Fenadi (2009)

6.3 Market Diversification

Market diversification is an alternative strategy to product diversification. It can be important for product diversification to also diversify into new markets, either vertically in the same market or horizontally by gaining new markets. Both strategies can be mutually tightly interlinked. This study, however, is focused on supply side rather than demand side issues, and that is why it is intended to explore market diversification in Libyan tourism only quite briefly.

Depending on one main regional tourist market can increase the impact of seasonality. Here the Libyan tourism market is dominated largely by Europeans, which comprise 96% of international arrivals (LTMP, 2009-2025:Vol.1: 128). According to the tourism plan for 2009-2025, the main tourist markets for Libyan tourism are Italy, France, Germany and UK from Europe, and Tunisia from the Arab world, as shown in Table 6.8. The weather in Libya's coastal region is generally moderate, so that international tourists could visit the area all year round, but the holiday cycles in the main European market mean that demand tends to be very seasonal. The packages offered to international tourists also increase this seasonality. Many tourists purchase mixed packages that include coastal heritage sites and desert attractions, which means travel must be during the winter time to avoid the very hot dry summer in the desert. Thus, the peak season is usually between October and April. This also allows tourists, especially retired people from Europe, to travel to a warm area instead of staying at home in cold winters. The tour operator representative from Arkno stated that *"seasonality is a big problem facing our business. We are working hard to attract tourists from China, Japan and the US in order to spread our work throughout the*

year, but that needs comprehensive development for the tourism sector" (Private sector actor 14).

Table 6-8: Market Segmentation for Libyan Tourism, 2009

Markets Segmentation		Main	Secondary	Active	Potential	Probable
European market	Italy, France, Germany, UK	yes	no	yes	no	no
	Spain	no	yes	yes	no	no
	Austria, Poland, Belgium, Holland	no	yes	no	no	yes
	Finland, Denmark, Norway	no	no	no	yes	yes
	Hungary, Ireland, Portuguese	no	no	no	no	yes
	Switzerland	no	yes	yes	no	yes
Arab market	Morocco, Algeria, Mauritania, Lebanon, Syria, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, UAE, Kuwait, Oman, Bahrain, Qatar, Sudan	no	no	no	no	yes
	Tunis	yes	no	yes	no	yes
	Egypt	no	yes	no	no	yes
	Iraq	no	no	no	yes	yes
Americans markets	USA	no	yes	yes	no	yes
	Canada, Mexico, Caribbean	no	no	no	no	yes
Asians markets	Russia, Belarus, Ukrainian, India, Pakistan, China, Indonesia, South Korean	no	no	no	no	yes
	Japan	no	yes	no	no	yes
Australians markets	Australia, New Zealand	no	no	no	no	yes

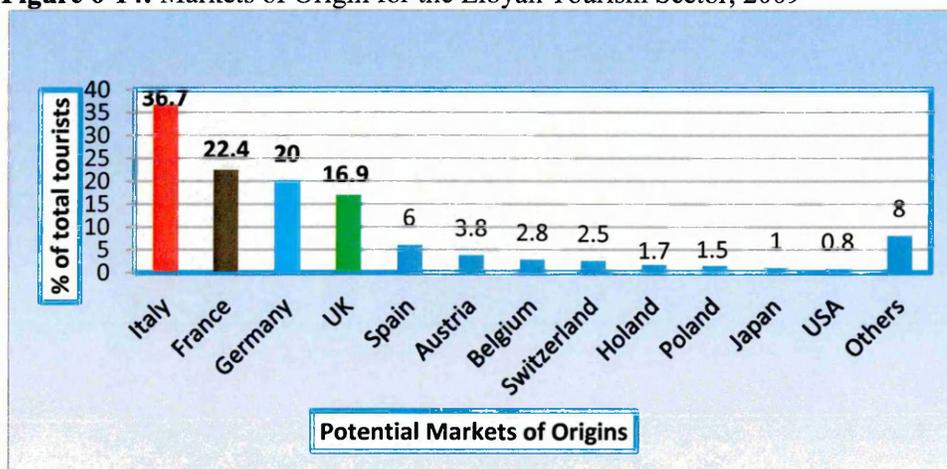
Source: Adapted by the author from LTMP (2009-2025, Vol. 2: 96-98)

Lack of diversification into new markets has lowered tourism's economic viability due to its effects on seasonality. A tourist guide in Leptis Magna stated that *"The summer time is a crisis for us when we get very few European tourists. We need other tourists who like coming in the summer time as that could help us maintain our jobs"* (Private sector actor 15). Similarly, a hotel manager in Tripoli explained how *"Our hotel often is fully occupied for half the year with tourists and other guests, but in the summer the number of tourists falls and most of the rooms stay empty"* (Private sector actor 17). Therefore, diversification into different source markets is needed in order to reduce seasonality's negative impacts.

The European market, as shown in Figure 6.14, reflects the influence of the historical ties between Libya and many European countries in terms of Roman ruins and colonial history, such as Leptis Magna and old buildings and WWII cemeteries, as well as the similar Mediterranean climate, which offers an opportunity to develop links across Europe. This also reflects how most international tourists coming to Libya are partly intrinsically motivated, which means they are substantially influenced by the proximity of Libya and

the low cost and short time involved in travelling. A tour operator stated that *"Our visitors are from different countries but most of them are from Europe. Advantages like the low airline price, short distance, moderate climate, and richness of attractions are likely to be the reasons behind their selecting Libya"* (Private sector actor 14).

Figure 6-14: Markets of Origin for the Libyan Tourism Sector, 2009



Source: Adapted by the author from LTMP (2009-2025, Vol. 1: 129)

According to the government’s tourism statistics, 48% of the international tourists are most interested in cultural tourism and archaeology sites, while 43% are most interested in the natural tourism attractions of the desert, which might include visiting cultural attractions and enjoying adventure experiences in the desert during the winter (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol. 1: 128). The scale of the likely demand for particular tourism products for different potential tourist origin markets was estimated in the government’s tourism plan, as shown in Table 6.9.

The majority of international tourists are over 45 years old, generally quite wealthy and well educated, and most are attracted by word of mouth recommendation by family and friends (LTMP, Vol.1: 128). The length of stay of international tourists is directly affected by the travel packages offered by tour operators, with the length of holidays varying between 3-21 days, but generally the average is about 7 days. Since most purchase fixed package holidays then the length of tourist stays in Tripoli and Alkhoms is associated with the content of the holiday package.

In turn, the packages reflect the range of attractions visited during the tour and the accommodation availability at specific destinations. Accordingly, the length of stay in Tripoli is usually longer than that in Alkhoms, with most only visiting the Leptis Magna

site in Alkhoms and then only for a few hours. A public sector respondent asserted that "visitors to the Leptis Magna site spend only one day visiting the site, the museum and Villa Celine, then they leave to go to Tripoli where they are accommodated because there is nothing else to see and the number of hotels in Alkhoms is very small and they are of a low quality" (Public sector actor 4). A tour operator also stated that "Alkhoms has not developed sufficient tourist accommodation and attractions, despite the area being very rich in natural and cultural attractions. And that is why for international tourists it is always connected with other places" (Private sector actor 14). A blog reviewer also noted that Leptis Magna is a "Great site to visit - takes some hours. Overnights in Tripoli; hotels close to Leptis Magna are not advisable" (Traveller1230_10).

Table 6-9: The Potential Tourism Markets against Tourism Products in Tripoli and Alkhoms, 2009

Place	Tourism product	The potential markets	The scale of demand
Tripoli and Alkhoms	Cultural, and heritage archaeological tourism	Germany, Italy, France, UK	High
		USA, Japan, China, Belgium, Holland, Austria, Canada	Medium
		Switzerland, Spain, Hungary, Poland, Australia, Mexico.	Low
Not applicable	Desert tourism	Germany, Italy, France, UK, Switzerland, Austria	High
		USA, Japan, China, Holland	Low
Tripoli	Coastal tourism, and scuba diving	Germany, Italy, France, UK	High
		USA, Japan, China	Medium
		Switzerland, Spain	Low
Tripoli	Shopping tourism and business tourism	Tunisia, Egypt, Algeria, Morocco	Medium
Not applicable	Wildlife tourism	Saudi Arabia, Qatar, UAE, Kuwait	Medium
Tripoli and Alkhoms	Schools and Universities tourism	Local schools	High
		Local universities	Medium

Source: Adapted by the author from LTMP (2009-2025, Vol. 2:100)

Dependency on a very narrow range of international tourism markets and on a specific segment of special interest tourists has increased the vulnerability resulting from climate seasonality, political poor image, and from inadequate infrastructure and service quality. Thus, to widening the market base, several important issues need improvement to sustain the product diversification strategy, such as country image enhancement, and infrastructure and service quality matters.

6.4 Patterns of Tourism Demand and Supply

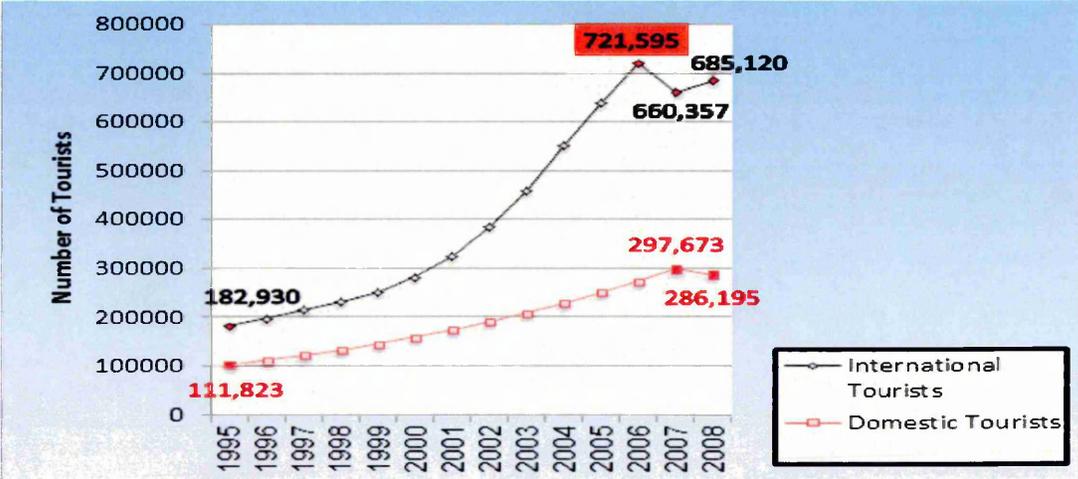
This section discusses the patterns of demand and supply, which are related to tourism products. Identifying these patterns is important because these patterns influence the development of the primary tourism products in terms of concentration and diversification and the interrelationships between them, and they can influence the adaptability and resilience of these products, which are the focus of this study. The patterns of tourist demand are investigated here through analysing trends in the number of arrivals, tourist source markets, purpose of visits, tourism receipts, and average nights of stay, focusing on the two case study destinations. Consideration of patterns of supply here focuses on two distinctive forms in the two destinations: the alternative (niche) tourism, and also mass tourism products that reflect the intensification of use by both domestic and international tourists. Understanding these variables is important because they are influenced by the current tourism products in terms of concentration and diversification, and they can influence future development directions in both case study areas and in Libya as a whole.

Here it must be noted that Libya's tourism sector generally suffers from poor data, and much data from the Libyan government and international organisations is actually based only on estimations due to deficiencies in operational management at local and national levels. There is a lack of proper documentation systems and mechanisms for collecting, transferring and storing data. A member of the planning team for the Libyan Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025) pointed out that *"from the 22 local tourism authorities in the 22 provinces all over the country only one local office responded to the request to gather data that was made by the General Tourism Board. This was due to the shortage of employees and the lack of awareness of the importance of having good intelligence and data for developing consistent and applicable development policies"* (Government official 3).

Overall tourism demand in Libya is still quite low. Figure 6.15 shows the numbers of international tourists, and visitors who were engaged in tourist activities rather than coming for work, arriving in Libya between 1995 and 2008, and also the numbers of domestic tourists. While Figure 6.16 presents the number of arrivals on tourist visas. The differences between the two graphs reflect the fact that Arabs and Africans can enter the country without a need for entry visas. The figures also indicate the small number of leisure tourists who come to Libya. Part of the reason for this is the lack of diversified products, which has created problems in marketing Libya for quality tourist experiences.

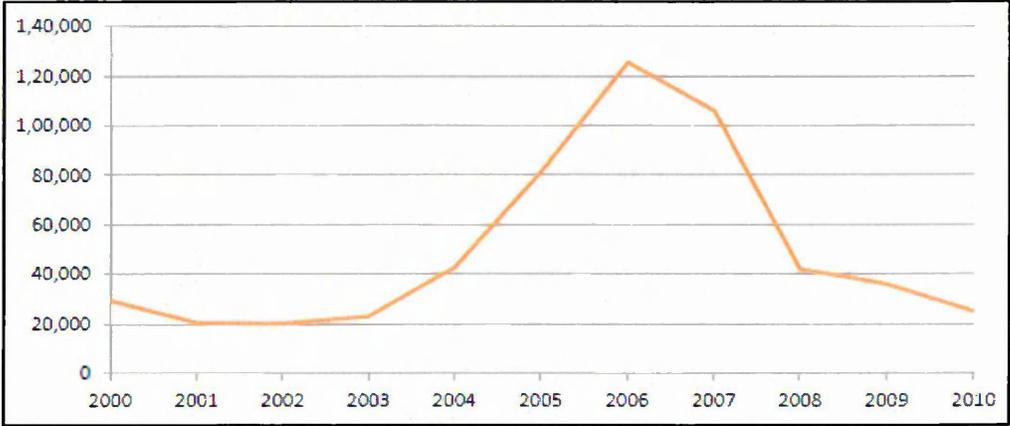
However, the figures show rapid increases in inbound tourists after 2000 due to the lifting of UN sanctions and the willingness of the government to diversify its economic resources. But the figures also show the negative impact of the political conflict in 2006 between Libya and Switzerland, of the requirement from 2007 for international tourists to include Arabic translations in their passports before entering Libya in 2007, and of the global economic recession in 2009 and Libya's inability to recover after these crises. The recent problems might also reflect deficiencies in the attractiveness and competitiveness of tourism products in the country.

Figure 6-15: International and Domestic Tourist Arrivals in Libya, 1995-2008



Source: Adapted by the author from LTMP (2009-2025, Vol. 1:161)

Figure 6-16: Arrivals on Tourist Visas in Libya, 2000-2010



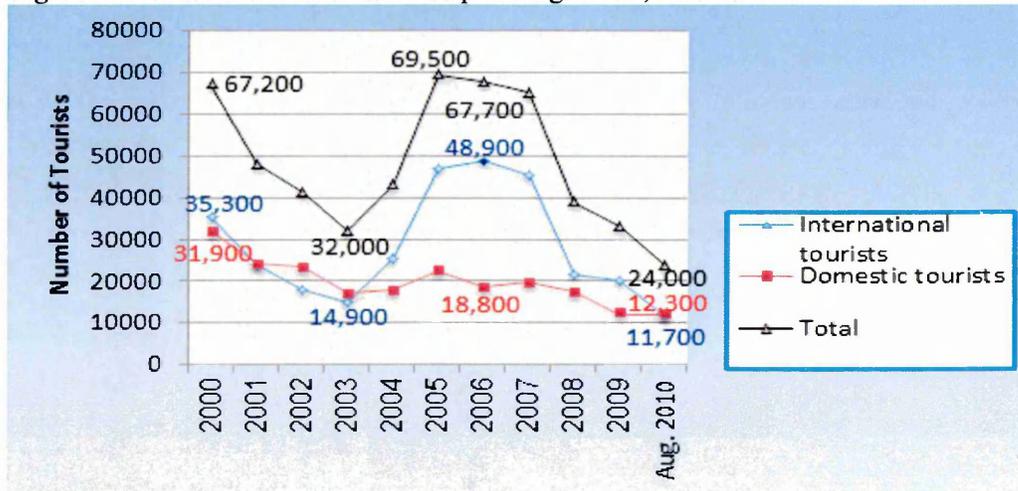
Source: <http://www.arabianreach.com/libya/presentations/AlexWarrenDubaihotelspresentation.pdf>

The peak in international tourists' arrivals in 2006 was due to the solar eclipse event on March 29th that year which attracted many tourists. That peak, however, was followed by a sharp decline due to the government suddenly imposing a Law in 2007 requiring international tourists to have translations of their passports to Arabic to gain a tourist visa.

Despite the resulting decline in international arrivals, domestic tourist demand continued to grow in 2006-2007. A few months later the government cancelled the translation requirement and arrivals numbers grew slightly again, but in general the visa arrivals continued to decline due to other crises.

Official tourist numbers visiting the Leptis Magna site are shown in Figure 6.17, based on the number of entry tickets sold to both international and domestic tourists. The data shows a clear decline of international tourists between 2000 and 2003, which perhaps reflects the impact of 9/11 and the second Iraq war. Growth began after 2003 until 2007, and after that the numbers sharply declined due to the government’s passport translation requirement (Oxford Business Group, 2008: 130), while domestic tourist numbers also gradually declined. Figure 6.16 is probably a good estimate of overall international tourist numbers for the wider Alkhoms area as the Leptis Magna site is the "must see" attraction for international tourists in the area. By contrast, the number of domestic tourists visiting this site represents only a fraction of all domestic tourists visiting the Alkhoms area. Domestic tourists at the site declined from 31,900 in 2000 to 12,300 in 2010, probably in part due to its deteriorating quality and lack of diversity of products and facilities at the site.

Figure 6-17: Tourist Arrivals at the Leptis Magna Site, 2000-2010

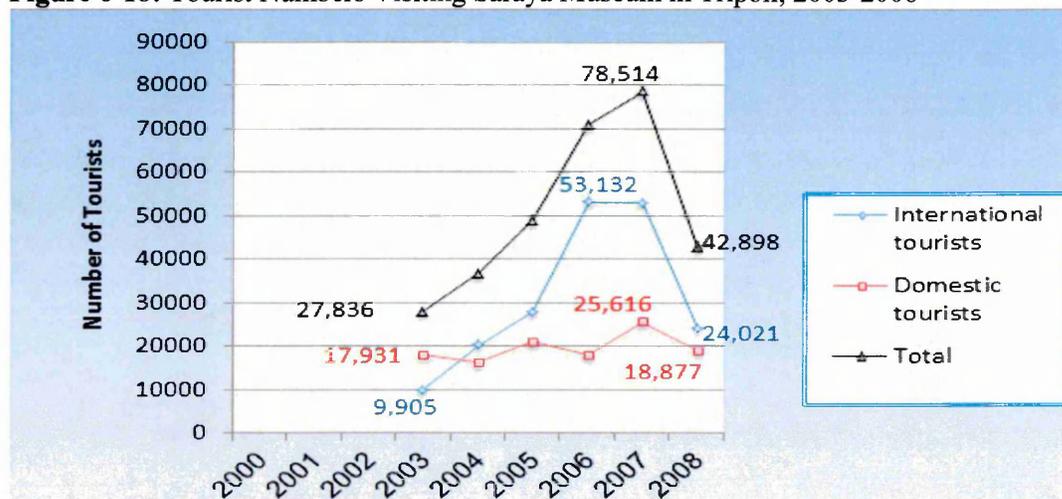


Source: Leptis Magna Site Administration Office

For Tripoli the only available data for tourist numbers is data for the Saraya museum, again usually based on numbers of entry tickets sold. Figure 6.18 reveals broadly similar trends to the Leptis Magna site, with growth after 2003 and a decline after 2007. It must be noted here that the figures are for a specific attraction and not for overall tourist numbers in Tripoli, although they might indicate wider trends for the city. The data indicates that,

despite fluctuations in domestic demand, good numbers of domestic tourists visit this museum in Tripoli. Despite insufficient data about tourists in Tripoli, most international tourists visit the Saraya museum during their stay in the city, so the Saraya data indicates that overall international tourist numbers visiting the city are quite modest. It also suggests that overall tourist volumes are much influenced by specific events and external factors rather than by the attractiveness and competitiveness of the country's tourism industry.

Figure 6-18: Tourist Numbers Visiting Saraya Museum in Tripoli, 2003-2008



Source: Saraya Museum Office

6.4.1 Domestic Tourism and Mass Consumption

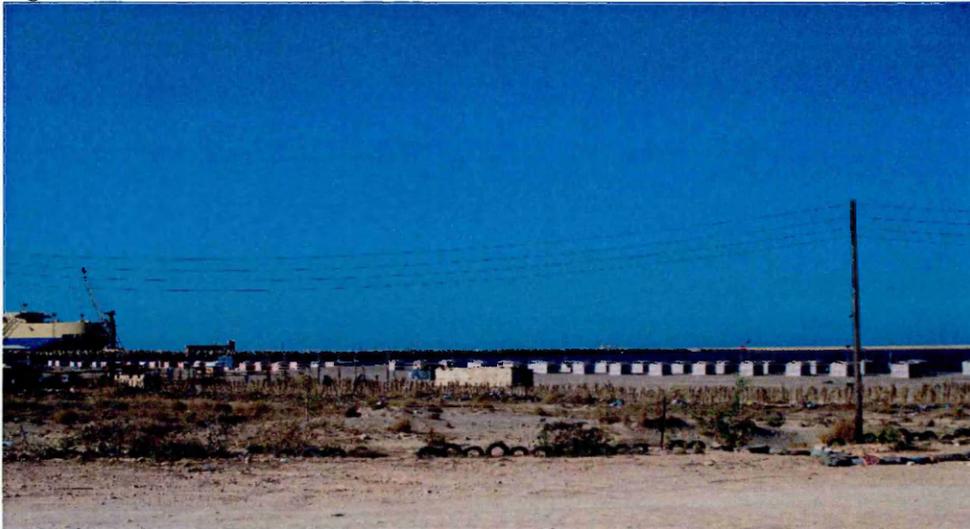
Figure 6.15 shows that domestic tourism has grown over recent decades, influenced by private sector investment in specific types of tourism attractions that respond to local needs and culture conditions. Domestic tourism growth had been slow but faster than previously (Lanquar, 2011), due to improved local income: *"Domestic tourism is growing faster now due to the improvements in people salaries and income"* (Government official actor 1). Many domestic tourists frequent the seasonal beach resorts, especially those developed and operated by the private sector to gain profits due to the large demand in the summer season. The high demand for beach tourism from domestic tourists and residents in the summer had encouraged the local authorities to issue licenses for private businesses to develop small beach resorts. *"The local summer resorts are mainly developed by the private sector and they are increasing every year. These resorts and villages receive large numbers of vacationers and tourists, the majority of them are Libyans"* (Government official 1). The development patterns for domestic beach tourism have been strongly influenced by Muslim culture and male and female separation, with some resorts mainly for families and others only for single males. Such fragmentation in the domestic tourism

market has complicated the development processes and maybe also lowered the possibility of using the same infrastructure for both segments, which means establishing infrastructure that meets all domestic tourism needs can be costly.

The lack of diversified tourism products and activities and quality measures at these seasonal beach resorts has meant the beach tourism product is low cost and it is consumed by large numbers of domestic tourists and local people. The low income of most Libyans has hindered them from holidaying abroad, especially for large families, and this has intensified the demand for low quality, low cost beach resorts. The *"Locals are more interested in summer beach holidays at beach resorts, which they visit as individuals or groups of families or friends. Locals usually go for enjoyment and to relax at these resorts because they are cheap"* (Government official actor 1). Respondents pointed to the resorts' low quality of services, but this does not discourage less well-off Libyans from consuming these mass tourism resorts. *"The beaches now attract thousands of Libyans, although they are suffering from a severe shortage in services"* (Government official 2). The low quality of these resorts has reduced their attraction for international tourists, thus losing an important market segment. A representative of the tour operator Arkno stated that *"Some places are developed seasonally mainly by private businesses to cater for mass tourists, especially seaside beaches and beach resorts for local people. We rarely offer such places to international tourists because of the poor quality of services and safety measures at these places"* (Private sector actor 14).

A lack of government will and planning has also encouraged the development of this mass tourism in beach areas. Quality measures and regulations that are required to balance the demand with the beach area capacities have not been applied or required by government, so the development has been unplanned and circumstantial at the majority of beach resorts. Figures 6.19, 6.20, and also 6.21 show quite typical patterns of beach tourism developed by local businesses for domestic tourists in Alkhoms and Tripoli respectively. While Figure 6.22 shows that the seasonal character of this beach tourism means that the owners remove all of the bungalows and tents at the end of season, often leaving much rubbish and pollution that is costly for the authorities to remove before the next season.

Figure 6-19: Mass Domestic Beach Tourism in Sidi Abdulla-Alkhoms Area, 2010



Source: the author

Figure 6-20: Mass Domestic Beach Tourism in Ganeema-Alkhoms Area, 2010



Source: the author

Figure 6-21: Mass Domestic Beach Tourism in Tajoora- Tripoli Area, 2010



Source: the author

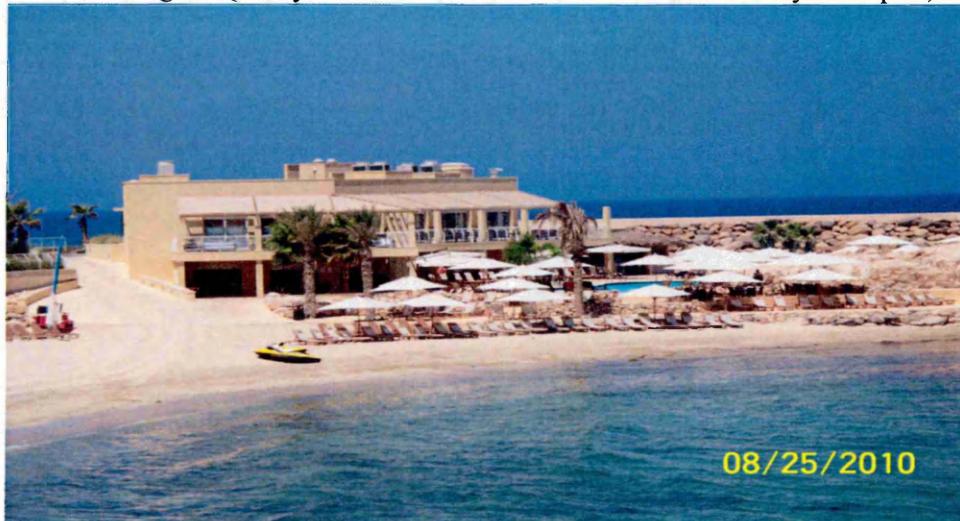
Figure 6-22: Rubbish Left Behind in Tajoora Beach Resorts in the End of the Season, 2010



Source: the author

In Tripoli some beach resorts have been deliberately developed by the public sector, such as Tajoora, Regatta, and Palm City in Janzour Aleyahia, as shown in Figure 6.23. These resorts provide better quality services, and they are usually visited by wealthy domestic tourists and a few international tourists, with the high prices at these places constituting “enclave resorts” for the well-off.

Figure 6-23: A Higher Quality Tourist and Residential Area at Palm City in Tripoli, 2010



Source: the author

Some other tourism products and activities have been much encouraged by domestic tourists, notably shopping. Tripoli’s shopping has encouraged many Libyan’s living in other cities to visit the capital, and this includes the traditional markets in Old Medina (Figures 6.24 and 6.25), the fish market, and the major new international shopping malls.

A Tripoli shop owner commented how: “Nowadays, Libyans are more interested in decorating their houses with collections of traditional antiques that date back as far as sixty to a hundred years ago. Some also bring to us articles that need restoration. We are happy that the number of our Libyan clients is on the increase every day’, said Mustafa, owner of the Septimius Antique Shop” (The Tripoli Post, 2009). Shopping in Tripoli also attracts tourists from neighboring Arab countries. A local tourism authority employee stated that, *“Lots of local people from surrounding cities visit Tripoli for shopping during the week and in particular the weekend Friday. Also lots of Arab families and individuals from Tunisia and Morocco and Egypt visit Tripoli mainly for shopping, benefiting from the differences in the money exchange and the low export tax charges. So, during their shopping trip they spend some nights at local hotels and visit some tourist places”* (Government official 9).

Figure 6-24: Traditional Shops in the Old Medina in Tripoli, 2007



Source: the author

Figure 6-25: Handcrafts Markets in Old Medina, Tripoli in 2010



Source: the author

The number of tourists from Arab countries had generally been increasing (Euromonitor International, 2007), and that might well have been influenced by the shopping available in Tripoli, with this considered a capital containing a mix of trades, retailing and tourist attractions. The number of Arab tourists staying in Tripoli's hotels reached 237,000 in 2008 (LTMP Vol.1: 131). Shopping as a tourism product is still new here, so there is no statistical data on numbers of shopping tourists. Yet several respondents noted its importance, and it seems to represent one of Libya's primary tourism products (despite being classified as secondary by Jansen-Verbeke), as shown earlier in Figure 6.1. *"Tripoli for locals, and for people from Tunisia, Algeria and other Arabs, is a shopping destination. The difference in prices and exchange rates is giving them an advantage to trade goods to and from Libya. So shopping is important to attract tourists, but we as tour operators do not benefit from Arab tourists because they can enter without a visa and do not need guides to help them"* (Private sector actor 15). By contrast, shopping tourism is very limited in Alkhoms due to the lack of shopping infrastructure, and there it probably only forms a supported product, allowing tourists to purchase souvenirs. For instance, as shown in Figure 6.26 and 6.27, there are some small local shops selling postcards and souvenirs for visitors in the entrance area for the Leptis Magna site.

The beauty of the landscape, the flora and fauna, and the moderate spring weather has encouraged domestic tourists and local people to hike in the countryside and engage in outdoor recreation activities. Libya's spring is between February and April, and at that time many people living in crowded cities like Tripoli and Alkhoms spend weekends away from home to enjoy open rural areas, such as mountains, valleys and protected woods and water springs. *"In the spring local people usually go out for sightseeing, trekking, and barbecues, especially in the mountains around Alkhoms or in the more attractive areas of Tripoli"* (Government official actor 1). However, a lack of awareness about the need for ecosystem conservation and the lack of effective management at popular countryside places have often led to damage to the natural environment from rubbish and fires. An interviewee from Alkhoms tourism authority said *"Local people in the summer enjoy beach resorts, while in the spring they enjoy going out for barbecues and having lunches in the Negaza and Celine mountains. Although by law they are not allowed to make fires or to leave rubbish behind, no one is charged for the damage they cause"* (Government official actor 10). Further, specialist shops selling outdoor recreation clothing and equipment are rare, a factor that may limit the growth of this product

Figure 6-26: Shops at the Leptis Magna Site, 2010



Source: the author

Figure 6-27: Local Handcraft Shops at the Entrance to the Leptis Magna Site, 2010



Source: the author

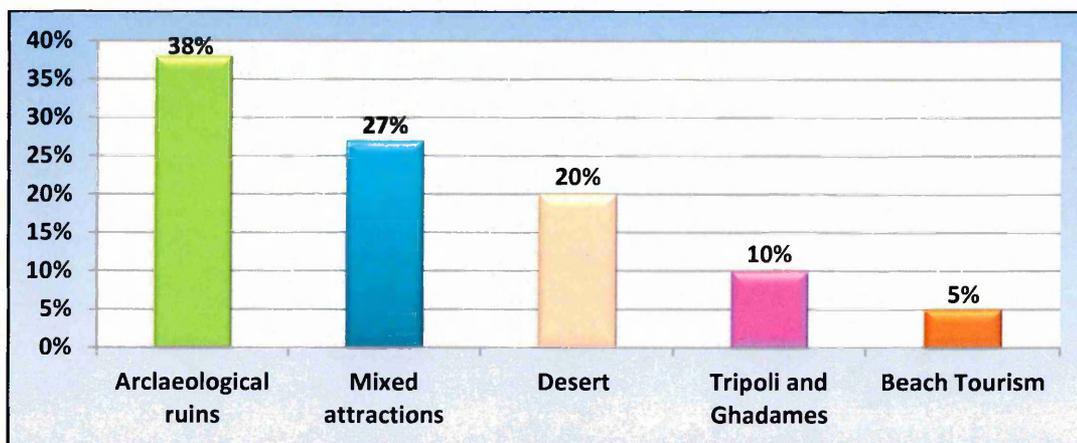
6.4.2 International Tourism and Mass and Alternative Consumption

The Chairman and Managing Director of Winzrik Tourism Services Group based in Libya claimed that "there is no intention in Libya to create mass tourism like in neighboring countries with nightclubs and alcohol....We don't want mass tourism, but quality tourism" (New York Times, 2005). According to Libyan tourism planners, the international tourists coming to Libya are in groups and they seek to visit certain attractions for leisure and to experience cultural and natural attractions. Thus, the international tourists might behave as either mass tourists or specialist interest tourists. Some international tourists are visiting family and friends or they are business tourists visiting Libya mainly for specific business or political events, and they may combine that with visiting tourist attractions.

It can be argued that specialist interest tourists form the major segment of international tourists since cultural attractions are the most demanded products. They usually visit

cultural sites particularly in the coastal areas, such as Leptis Magna in Alkhoms, and in Tripoli, such as museums, colonial buildings, churches, old mosques and traditional markets in the Old Medina. For international tourists this collection of attractions is supported by facilities and infrastructure giving Tripoli a competitive advantage over Alkhoms, which depends only on the archaeology site of Leptis Magna and the Villa Celine ruins. A tour operator insisted that *"The majority of our guests have special interests in terms of exploration, adventure, archaeology and history interests. Business tourists are those who come to Libya mainly for specific business but can find time to enjoy visiting some places"* (Private sector actor 14). Among the purchased tours in 2008 in Libya (as shown in Figure 6.28), archaeology sites were the most visited tourism product by international tourists, followed by mixed attractions, natural desert areas, historical and leisure attractions in Tripoli and Ghadames, and beach tourism. However, beach tourism and scuba diving are the least visited tourism products by international tourists on the purchased tours.

Figure 6-28: The Most Visited Tourist Attractions by International Tourists on Purchased Tours in Libya, 2008



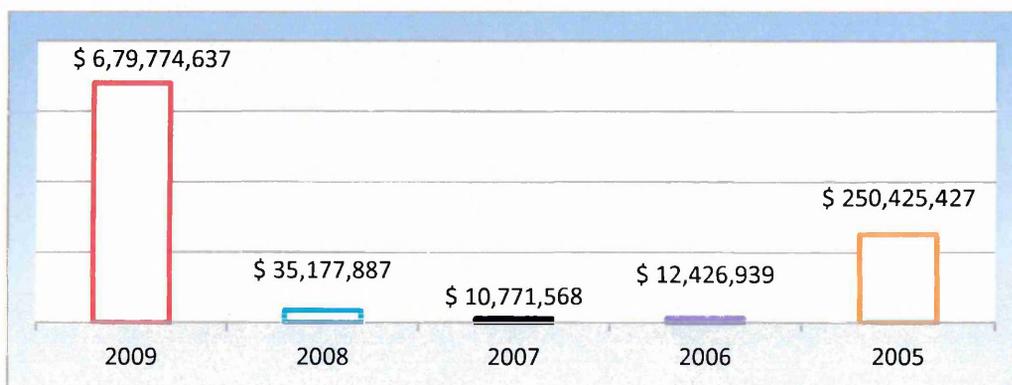
Source: Libyan Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025, Vol.2: 100)

According to the interviewed tour operators and the tourism master plans, the majority of international tourists is aged over 45 years, quite wealthy and holds good qualifications. This might mean they want to learn about heritage, history and culture, and to a lesser extent experience adventure. This is consistent with the results in Table 6.9, which presented general trends in demand from international tourists by different source markets for different types of attractions. These findings support the assertion that many international tourists are special interest tourists seeking cultural and leisure attractions, whether they come in groups or as individuals.

Business tourism is an alternative special interest product that is growing fast in Libya, influenced by the government's open market policy and supported by luxury accommodation development, particularly in Tripoli. Business tourism in Tripoli is quite long established on a moderate scale. For example, Tripoli International Fair was opened in 1927 by the Italian government when the country was under Italian occupation in order to attract international businesses. The Fair still organises international and national events and it attracts many visitors. However, while business tourism has become an important sector in Libya in recent years, there is no statistical data about it.

The country's expanding foreign direct investment has increased the flow of business tourists. Dwyer and Forsyth (1994) argue that foreign investment in a destination can increase tourist flows, boost tourist expenditure, and give destination economies an opportunity to grow. Business tourists from abroad come to Libya primarily for business, but because they often have some additional time they often also visit some attractions in Tripoli and in adjacent cities like Alkhoms. The growth of Libya's economic activities has attracted foreign direct investment (FDI), as shown in Figure 6.29, and also local investment, leading to the emergence and growth of business tourism. However, the marked decline in FDI during 2006, 2007, and 2008 might have been linked to problems in the business environment. The growth in 2009 was encouraged by the merging in that year of two state agencies: the Libyan Investment Board (LIB) and the General Board of Ownership Transfer of Public Companies and Economical Units (GBOT). That consolidation boosted investment and privatisation, and that in turn helped to attract more business tourists.

Figure 6-29: Foreign Direct Investments (FDI) in Libya, 2005-2009



Source: the General Authority for Acquisition and Investment.

Despite lack of data about numbers of business people engaging in tourism activities, business tourism is observably growing in Tripoli due to the availability of supplementary products and services, unlike Alkhoms. A government tourism authority interviewee noted that *"After the lifting of international sanctions and restructuring the economy, Libya has become the destination for many international companies to invest in oil, construction, tourism, real estate, etc. These changes have encouraged the public and private sectors to build better hotels to cater for this new segment of upmarket visitors and offering them visits to touristic places"* (Government official 3).

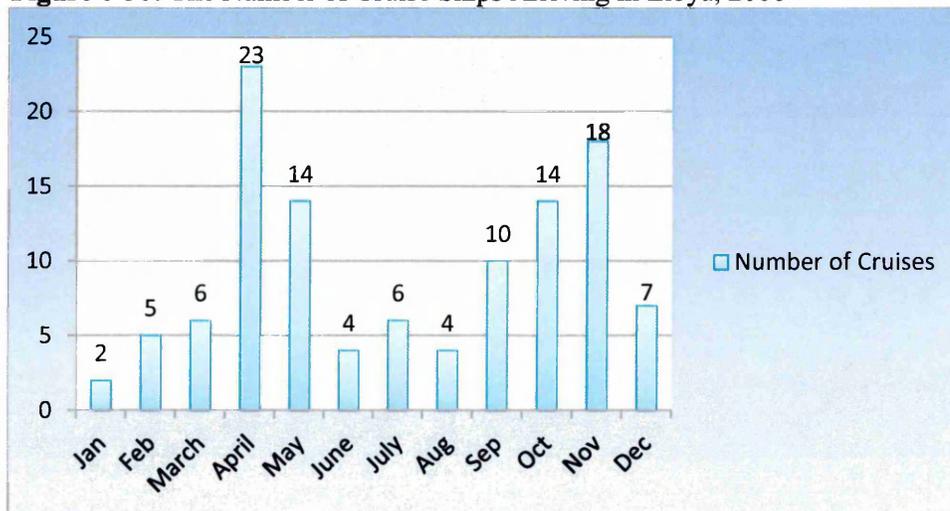
The increasing development of 5 star hotels, the restructured banking systems, improving communication facilities, as well as economic legislation have all encouraged business tourism. This tourism sector is lucrative as business tourists are high spenders. According to the head of tourism planning department, *"The government is taking active steps to develop the superstructure and infrastructure to meet the requirements of business tourists, which indeed will raise the tourism yield faster"* (Government official 3).

By contrast, the poor infrastructure and marketing and development strategies have limited the potential of very many niche attractions in both case study areas. There are several natural attractions, such as the mountain flora and fauna, water springs, watching migrant birds at Ain Kaam springs and Garabouli protected swamp area, and scuba diving, that are visited only by very special interest tourists who come as individuals and in small groups as explorers interested in specific features. A tour operator noted the existence of these attractions for specialist interest tourists: *"We offer tailor-made packages for very small segments of tourists, such as researchers of history or nature, filming tourists, bird watchers, scuba diving. These tourists are few in number, and they usually accept things as they are and become friends"* (Private sector actor 15). However, those tourists usually prefer travelling freely as individuals and using their own transportation to get back to their accommodation, which is usually in Tripoli due to the lack of appropriate accommodation at places they visit: *"there are a very few tourists who come as individuals using their own transportation and visit natural and cultural places in Tarhuna, Mesalata, and Leptis Magna, and then they go back to Tripoli because of their accommodation"* (Government official 10). The infrastructure problem might be one reason for the limited economic benefit from such upmarket tourists interested in niche attractions, so developing infrastructure can help efforts to diversify into these niche tourism products.

Cruise tourism is another new tourism product, and it is dominated by inbound tourists and growing thanks to Libya's location in the Mediterranean basin, the impressive archaeological sites in the coastal area and the developing harbours near the tourist attractions. Cruise tourism in Mediterranean countries is now the second largest world cruising zone, after the Caribbean, achieving more than 10% annual growth between 2005-2010 (Lanquar, 2011). Libya has several seaports mostly equipped for handling cargo and oil products, with only one designed specifically to receive passengers, which is Shaab terminal within Tripoli port. Just prior to the fieldwork all industrial/commercial activities in Tripoli seaport were being transferred to Alkhoms seaport in order to redevelop Tripoli seaport to handle cruise ships and yachts and to encourage cruise tourism.

There is a lack of data on Libya's cruise tourism, with the only data available being for numbers of cruise ship tourists and cruise ships visiting Libya in 2006, as shown in Figures 6.30 and 6.31. The figures show fluctuating monthly numbers over 2006, and in total Libya received 113 cruise ships carrying 83,938 passengers (out of 721,595 of international tourists in the same year, as shown in Figure 6.15). Thus, cruise tourism constituted 11.6% of international tourists in 2006. Cruise tourists might best be classified as mass general leisure tourists, and usually they visit attractions in Libya's coastal areas near to the harbour at which their ships dock. For example, the alternative tourism products of the Leptis Magna site and Saraya museum are visited by these mass tour groups, as shown in Figures 6.32 and 6.33. As these tourists usually stay overnight and eat their meals on their ships, then they are generally low spending tourists in relation to the places they visit.

Figure 6-30: The Number of Cruise Ships Arriving in Libya, 2006



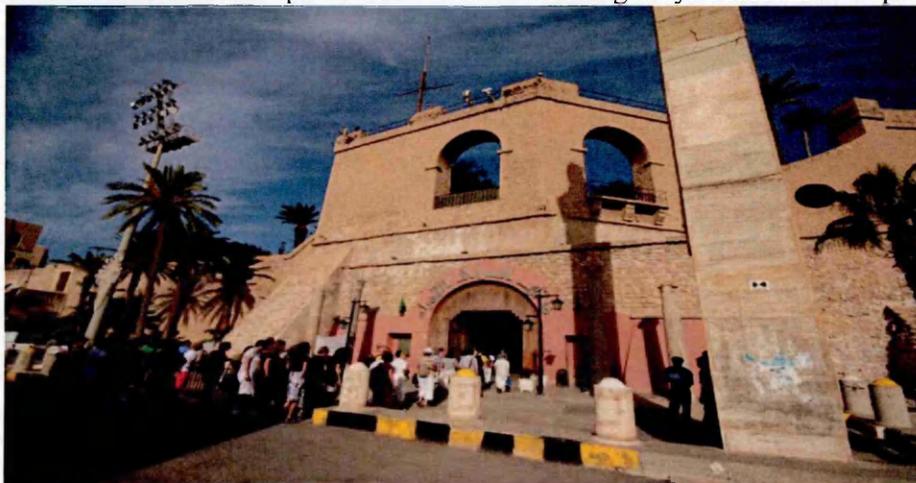
Source: Adapted from Libyan Statistics Book (2006: 274)

Figure 6-31: The Number of Cruise Tourists Visited Libya, 2006



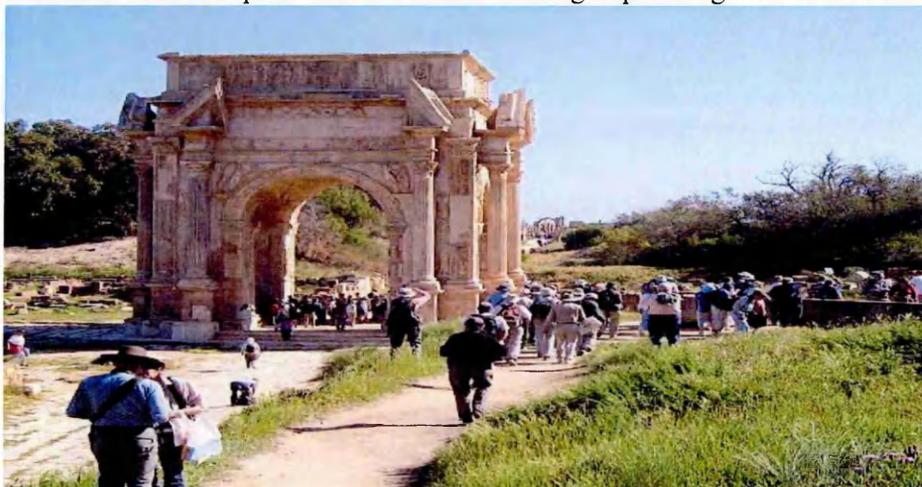
Source: Adapted from the Libyan Statistics Book (2006: 274)

Figure 6-32: Mass Tour Groups of Cruise Tourists Visiting Sraya Museum in Tripoli, 2007



Source: <http://www.travbuddy.com/travel-blogs/79076/photos/view/7/4#6>

Figure 6-33: Mass Tour Groups of Cruise Tourists Visiting Leptis Magna Site in Alkhoms, 2008



Source: http://www.horizonsunlimited.com/tstories/thomas/cat_journeys_end.php

6.5 Infrastructure

This section discusses the current and planned infrastructure related to tourism. This is because diversification of primary tourism products cannot be successfully accomplished with insufficient or otherwise deficient infrastructure (Lejarraja and Walkenhorst, 2007). Also, tourist destination resilience is much influenced by the quality and the strength of the infrastructure related to tourism (O'Rourke, 2007). Given the importance of these themes in the next two chapters, this chapter now outlines the key issues related to infrastructure and tourism development. In both case study areas adequate infrastructure would probably be a precondition for diversification into more types of tourism. Doswell (1997) states that a destination with natural and cultural attractions needs infrastructure in order to develop tourism and promote product diversification. Infrastructure is essential for interconnectivity (Oppermann and Chon, 1997), which is important for diversification. The infrastructure related to tourism includes the road networks, airports, the water supply, electricity, drainage and sewage systems, accommodation, restaurants and cafés, media and internet and communication services. Hence, infrastructure could include all products and services that support the primary tourism products that motivate tourists to select travel to certain places. Thus, they could include, according to Jansen-Verbeke's model (1986), the secondary and conditional products, which supplement and enhance accessibility and comfort.

Libya in general is lacking in tourism-related infrastructure (Abuharris and Ruddock, 2005; Jwaili, *et al.*, 2005). Poor infra- and super-structure undermines the tourist product attributes and also hinders tourism growth through diversification strategies. Government interviewees stressed that the lack of infrastructure hindered the establishment of new attractions. One stated that *"There are many problems for the tourism industry in Libya. One of them is the lack of diversity of the tourist attractions due to the poor infrastructure, which has limited the development of many other types of tourism products"* (Government official 1). Another added that poor infrastructure hindered not only the ability to develop new attractions but also the effective use of current attractions: *"The infrastructure problem has negatively affected the ability to develop new attractions and the use of existing attractions"* (Government official 2).

Insufficient and poor infrastructure can be a barrier to the development of independent tourist visits. Independent tourists usually rely on their own efforts in collecting data about

destinations they intend to visit, this often being an essential part of their exploration experience. Since the available information on Libya via the internet for tourists is insufficient, this gap in infrastructure can be a real challenge, and it can lead tourists to fall back on travel tourist groups arranged by tour operators and guided by local guides. For instance, a blog reviewer stated that *"We generally prefer DIY (do it yourself) trips, but I really wouldn't have a clue how to organise a trip around Libya, and the sheer simplicity of letting someone else sort out the visas and transportation won out this time. There's not much tourist infrastructure, so doing it yourself is really tricky"* (Koshkha, 2010). An interviewee recounted how *"We would like to travel independently, but our friends recommended us that travelling in Libya is not easy to manage by ourselves. No maps, no road signs, and most of them are written in local language, no travel information offices. So, we have decided to go for a tour operator"* (International tourist 2). Thus, such modern infrastructure as websites and also basic infrastructure as road signs can be very important for the growth of the independent tourism sector.

In Tripoli, such tourism infrastructure as hotels, entry airport, road networks, information and communication technologies, travel agencies and tour operators, cafés and restaurants, leisure and entertainment centres, and shopping centres are more available than in any other Libyan city. Further, the accommodation infrastructure in Tripoli has significantly improved, especially in the last decade, resulting in a substantially improved tourism sector. The number of hotels in Tripoli is planned to further increase, with numerous new projects being planned (Oxford Group, 2008). Tripoli's hotel sector had 3,817 bedrooms in 2012 (Chidiac, 2012). Table 6.10 presents the development of Tripoli's hotel infrastructure.

Table 6-10: The Development of Hotels in Tripoli, 1985-2010

Year	1985	1990	1995	2000	2002	2003	2006*	2010**
Total	2	12	30	38	38	43	66	153

Source: Compiled by the author from:

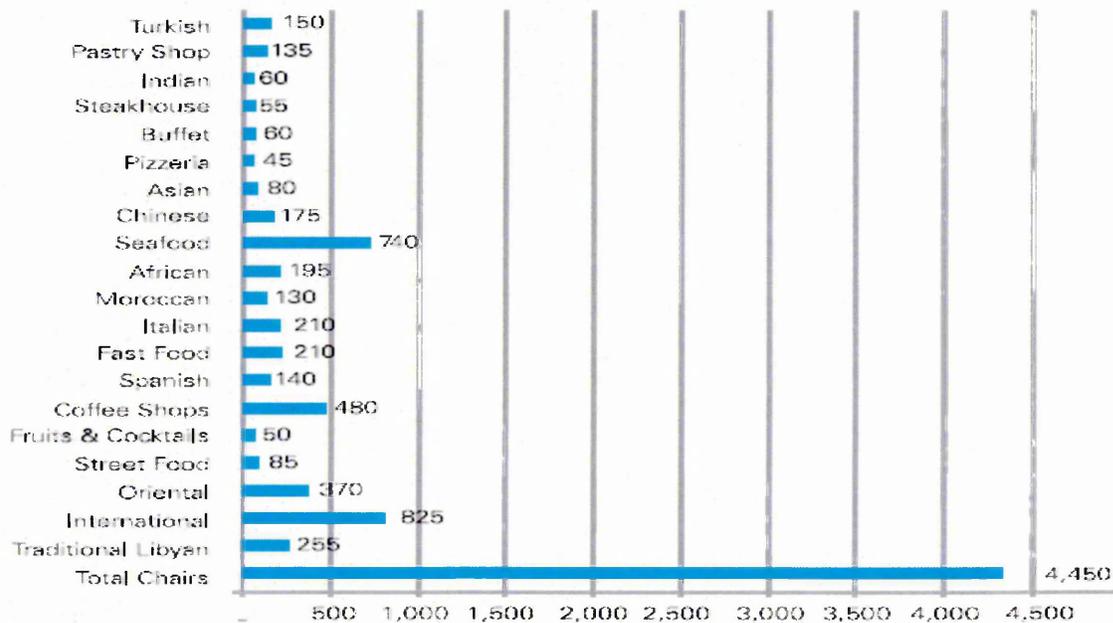
- 1- Statistical Bulletin for Libyan Hotel Survey (2003), National Information Board
- 2- * Statistical Bulletin for Libyan Hotel Survey (2007), National Information Board
- 3- ** <http://www.temehu.com/Libyahotels/hotelgallery/intro/introductionframe.htm>

Many restaurants and cafés have opened in Tripoli due to the increased tourist demand. All restaurants working in Libya are small, non-franchise businesses, with international chains such as Starbucks, Costa, McDonalds, and Pizza Hut not yet available. The restaurant and café sector in Tripoli offers around 4,450 seats (Chidiac, 2012), supplying various food dishes and coffee shops, as shown in Figure 6.34. The restaurant sector plays an important

role in supporting Tripoli's tourism sector, with these businesses spatially agglomerating close to the tourist attractions, thus linking and mutually benefiting them.

Nightlife is quite limited in Tripoli because pubs and casinos are prohibited due to the Islamic culture. The nightlife activities for local people and international tourists are restricted to such activities as cafes with alcohol-free fruit juices, juice cocktails, mint tea, and water pipes, known locally as "sheesha", which open until quite late in the evening (Crowden, 2008). An international tourists described how *"evening and nightlife entertainment is still lacking, but we can have tea, coffee and soft drinks at Saraya café, or in some traditional cafés in the Medina"* (International tourist 1).

Figure 6-34: Restaurant Sector Supply in Tripoli, 2012



Source: <http://www.protocollb.com/admin/newsletter/Libya.pdf>

The lack of such infrastructure in Alkhoms has limited the length of tourists' stay, which usually is for a few hours on a day trip, with most tourists returning to their hotel in Tripoli. Weaver and Lawton (2006: 102) state that "Tourists will usually avoid attractions if affiliated services are unavailable or of poor quality". However, there are only 6 hotels in Alkhoms, with a total of only 129 bedrooms, and only a small number of restaurants, such as the "Aljarra", the only restaurant commonly visited by international tourists due to its location in front of the Leptis Magna site. The problem of the deficient tourism-related infrastructure has made it difficult to develop tourism in Alkhoms.

Developing the infrastructure will be an essential step for Libya's further tourism development. The country's planners realized this would be expensive, so their plans in the Libyan Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025, Vol.2: 132) emphasise that the infrastructure must be developed in clusters, where it can benefit from shared use, and also developed not to serve only tourists but also the local communities. The tourism accommodation sector was planned to be developed in clusters distributed between 16 tourist area "circles", as shown in Table 6.11, with development according to the types of tourism to be developed in each circle in the coming years. The table shows the plan for tourist accommodation development in Libya for the tourism plan period 2009-2025, including the types of accommodation, number of bedrooms, and accommodation classes intended to be developed in each tourism "circle".

Table 6-11: The Planned Developments for Accommodation Sector in Libya, 2009-2025

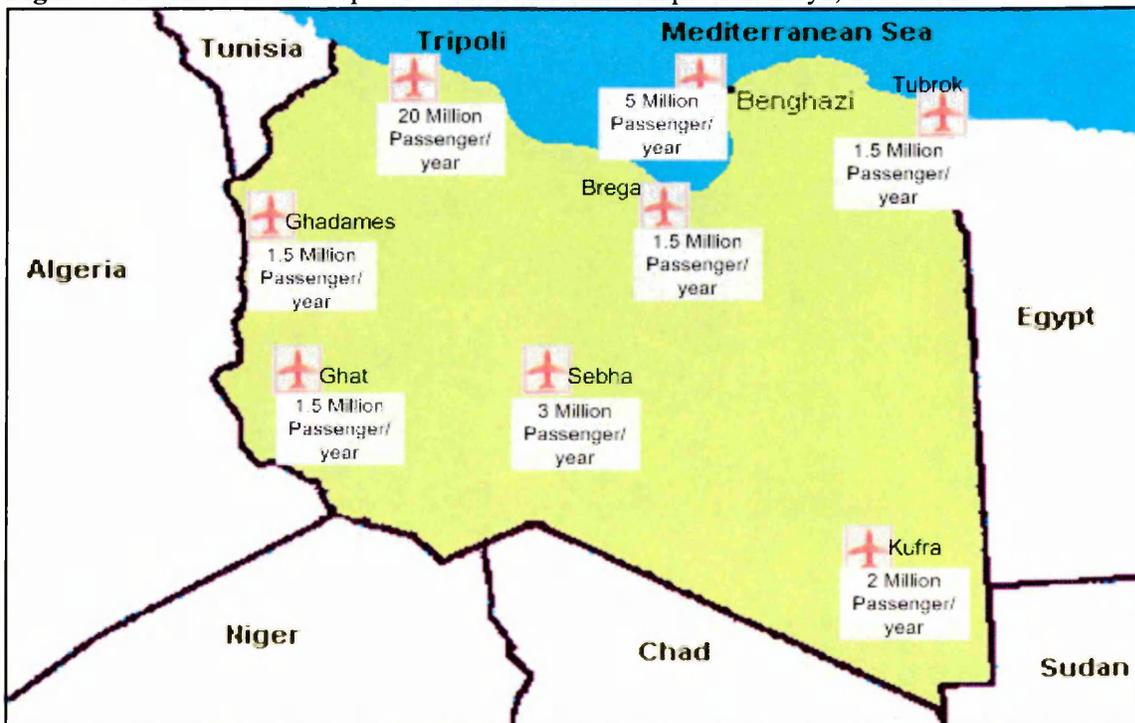
Number of Beds in Different Types of Accommodation Planned to be Developed in Each City/Region during 2009-2025														
The Region	Area		Classified Hotels					Luxury Tourist Compounds	Villages & Resorts		Camps	Hotels & Golf Courses	Hotels & Yachting Ports	Total Bedrooms
	No	Area Name	5 Star	4 Star	3 Star	2 Star	5 Star		4 Star	3 Star				
	Class		5 Star	4 Star	3 Star	2 Star	5 Star		4 Star	3 Star				
Tripolitania	1	Sabrata	450	2000	540	400	300	2500	2300	600	300	5 Star	300	9690
	2	Tripoli	4250	4000	2600	2600	800	1800	3800	1200	300	5 Star	600	21950
	3	Alkhoms	1000	2400	700	400	300	1600	2200	1250	150	300	300	10300
	4	JabelGharbi	80	320	200	300	0	200	500	120	0	0	0	1720
	5	Ghadames	220	360	300	100	100	60	150	220	150	0	0	1660
Total Beds			6000	9080	4340	3800	1500	6160	8950	3390	900	1200	45320	
ElKhaleej	6	Sirt	1000	1500	500	500	700	500	1500	600	450	450	7700	
	7	Jufra	200	300	400	50	0	70	1000	700	0	0	2720	
	8	Alwahat	120	150	150	60	0	70	200	200	0	0	950	
	9	Alkufra	60	200	300	60	0	0	400	700	0	0	1720	
Total Beds			1380	2150	1350	670	700	640	3100	2200	450	450	13090	
Benghazi (Cyrenica)	10	Beghazi	2000	2000	1900	750	600	500	1800	1200	400	470	11620	
	11	JabelAkhdar	1500	4600	0	550	400	900	2200	750	300	450	11650	
	12	Tubrok	750	1500	360	180	4400	900	750	780	150	100	9870	
	13	Jagboob	0	40	100	60	0	0	100	100	0	0	400	
Total Beds			4250	8140	2360	1540	5400	2300	4850	2830	850	1020	33540	
Fezzan	14	Sebha	760	800	180	160	220	500	500	800	160	0	4080	
	15	Ghat	160	460	300	60	0	120	300	500	0	0	1900	
	16	Obari Lakes	0	300	200	0	0	0	0	500	0	0	1000	
Total Beds			920	1560	680	220	220	620	800	1800	160	0	6980	
Overall Total Beds			12550	20930	8730	6230	7820	9720	17700	10220	2360	2670	98930	

Source: Libyan Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025, Vol.2:132)

The plan targets the development of 21,950 bedrooms in Tripoli and 10300 in Alkhoms. These bedrooms are distributed between classified hotels, luxury tourist compounds, villages and resorts, camps, hotels with golf courses, and hotels with yacht ports. The overall plans further intensify tourism developments in the coastal area, especially in the Tripolitania region, which might mean a movement towards mass diversification that might or might not be sustainable.

The plan also considers the importance of developing new or improving the existing airports to receive international tourists directly instead of entering the country only through Tripoli, while also improving and expanding Tripoli airport. This was addressed by government planners, who identified eight airports to be developed as international airports with significant increases in their capacities in order to attract more business visitors and tourists to the country. The air travel development plan for Tripoli and other airports is presented in Figure 6.35. Transport Minister Mohammed Abu Ajila said "the new Tripoli airport would inaugurate a "radical change" in the country's air transport sector, with a further two billion Euros set aside to modernise other airports" (Times-North Africa, 2007:7). The redevelopments commenced in Tripoli airport in 2006, and that project was supposed to be completed by 2009, but delays had prevented completion of the work.

Figure 6-35: The Planned Capacities of International Airports in Libya, 2009-2025



Source: Adapted by the author from LTMP (2009-2025, Vol.2: 69)

Infrastructure improvements had also lagged behind the development of cruise tourism. Libya has several ports that receive cruise ships, but the majority were designed for industrial and commercial activities. This applies to Alkhoms harbour, which is located 4km to the west of the Leptis Magna site, and the site receives cruise tourists every year to visit the ruins despite it lacking passenger terminals and services. Tripoli has the biggest harbour and one small passenger terminal. As mentioned earlier, the government plans to relocate the industrial activities in Tripoli's harbour to Alkhoms in order to upgrade the city harbour into a marina to accommodate cruise ships and yachts.

6.6 Conclusion

Libya is rich in cultural and natural sources for tourism development that are spread all over the country, but which are notably concentrated in the coastal areas. Tripoli has the largest range of tourism products, including museums, historical buildings, beach resorts, cruise and scuba diving, business tourism, shopping and sport tourism, while Alkhoms depends only on two types of tourism products, the archaeological ruins and beach tourism. The beach tourism and shopping products are consumed mainly by domestic tourists, while the archaeological sites, and cruising and scuba diving experiences are mainly consumed by international tourists. Business tourism is growing due to both domestic and international demand in response particularly to the economic reforms established in Libya.

The attributes of Libya's tourism products, such as in terms of availability, accessibility, quality and uniqueness, have considerable problems and this means the products are not fully competitive. The general infrastructure related to tourism is still weak in both case study areas, although it is better in Tripoli than in Alkhoms. Following this assessment of the character and attributes of the tourism products in the two case study areas, the next chapter examines tourism products in these areas specifically in relation to the concepts of tourism product concentration and diversification.

Chapter 7 : Tourism Product Diversification and Relationships

7.1 Introduction

Libya has the chance to fully exploit its tourism potential to diversify its economy away from the oil sector as it has a variety of natural and cultural tourism resources. The UNWTO team that developed the National Tourism Development Plan (NTDP) for 1999-2018 contended that "the lack of development of the tourism product and the widely-held negative perception of the Jamahiriya [Libya] among the populations of the major tourist generating markets....will necessitate tourism to be product led... [And]... strongly supported by a programme of public relations activities" (Jones, 2010: 9). This suggests that tourism product development is essential to develop and promote Libya as a tourist destination. One approach to tourism product development is diversification into new products to meet different tastes. While product diversification in terms of creating entirely new attractions is well known in tourism policies, diversification based on developing linkages between tourist products in integrated travel packages that promote differentiation and competitive advantage is less well known (Conti and Perelli, 2011).

This chapter examines the two development patterns of, first, concentration based on one primary tourism product theme and/or location; and, second, diversification of tourism products, labelled as box 1 in the study's general framework (Figure 3.1), examining this for Tripoli and Alkhoms. The first part of the chapter explores alternative tourism attractions in the two case study areas, whether in a concentrated or diversified form, and also mass tourism attractions, whether in concentrated or diversified form. The chapter also explores the linkages between these attractions in terms of compatibility, complementarity, spatial proximity, and thematic similarity and dissimilarity. These relationships between tourism products are important as they can be useful in diversification by connecting various products in innovative ways that could add value for tourists. Strong linkages could help tourism suppliers to create more flexible and adaptable packages that could meet a wider range of tastes, resulting in more growth and competitiveness. In addition, these linkages could help managers of tourist attractions to reduce production costs and stand against decline forces, such as through sharing knowledge and skills and sharing the costs of marketing through collaboration and coordination of their efforts. These linkages can be built through clustering based on thematic features and/or spatial proximities between

attractions. These linkages between attractions are also assessed in terms of competition, separation, and synergy.

The analysis then examines strategic management and local community participation as relationships strongly influencing links between the tourist attractions in the two case study areas. The chapter ends with a review of findings on tourism product diversification in the two locations.

7.2 Patterns of Tourism Product Development

Tourism product development takes different forms in terms of its variety and scale of consumption. The primary tourism products in Libya are mainly underpinned by natural and cultural resources (Bizan, 2009), and thus Otman and Karlberg (2007: 302) assert that "In Libya's case, there can be no doubt about its tourist credentials. Apart from its 1,970 km of unsullied Mediterranean beaches, the country presently contains five World Heritage Sites". That was also repeatedly pointed out by the interviewees for the two case study areas, with one stating that *"Generally, I think the cultural and natural tourist attractions constitute the main types of tourism in both cities"* (Government official 2). But Libya has improved its tourism competitiveness by integrating these natural and cultural tourism resources together to attract and satisfy different types of tourists. Therefore, tourist product development has occurred throughout Libya, and in both case study areas, both intentionally and also circumstantially, in the form of the concentration or diversification of tourism products to attract both special interest tourists and also mass leisure tourists. These patterns are discussed next.

7.2.1 Concentration Patterns

Concentrating tourism development in one or two tourism products in a particular destination can be the outcome of specific conditions related to the destination's attributes or to the attitudes of policy makers. Factors such as a low range of tourism resources, seasonality, lack of investment, and lack of strategic vision can lead to a concentrated pattern of tourism product development.

Demand seasonality is one attribute that often relates to tourism product concentration, in particular for places depending on climate conditions such as beach tourism (Weaver and Lawton, 2006). Moreover, tourism development can be concentrated on one product either

thematically and/or spatially, such as shopping and leisure beach tourism. Spatially, any type of tourism product can be understood as spatially concentrated as long as there are no other tourism products in the same location. Briassoulis (2004: 64) contends that "when a heterogeneous destination enters the involvement stage, the degree of spatial concentration of tourism is high". The analysis next will analyse these issues in relation to the different patterns of tourism product developments in Tripoli and Alkhoms.

7.2.1.1 The Geographical, Seasonal and Thematic Concentration of Mass Tourism Products

Coastal beach tourism in Libya has developed very quickly in recent years through both the private and public sectors fulfilling high domestic demand. The General Economic Reform Plan (1990-1999) opened the door for private sector SMEs to develop and manage beach resorts and villages, small hotels and travel agencies (Masoud, 2009). The development of beach resorts took the form of mass concentration in both Tripoli and Alkhoms. These beach resorts are scattered along the 200 km coast wherever sandy beaches are found, starting from Alkhoms province's eastern border to its western border with Tripoli province. Most of these resorts offer just one main tourist activity of leisure and relaxation. The indigenous culture has strongly shaped this beach tourism development. Thus, the resorts are divided into two distinct types: one for domestic families and the other for single males only, which conforms to the local culture which tends to separate males and females at swimming places.

These local resorts often lack quality and safety measures, and some even lack basic infrastructure, such as electricity and fresh water supply. However, they are licensed based on mandatory obligations regarding quality and safety, indicating significant weaknesses of quality regulation and implementation. *"In viewing the local tourism, we find that it is intensively concentrated in seasonal tourism beaches, and although some of these resorts are licensed from the local authorities they are still unplanned and unsustainable"* (Government official 2). Such barriers mean these resorts mainly attract local tourists, and they are avoided by international tourists.

Privately owned coastal resorts in both case study areas mainly attract mass domestic tourists in the summer season, and most offer removable tents and wooden huts, chairs, umbrellas, and some have sellers of fast food and cold beverages. Many of these privately

owned resorts were developed circumstantially by private businesses for economic profit during the peak summer season between April and October. These resorts are heavily concentrated in small areas in Tripoli, while in Alkhoms the spatial concentration is less. Figures 7.1 and 7.2 illustrate this difference in their intensification.

Figure 7-1: Tajoura Beach Resort in Tripoli, 2010



Source: the author

Figure 7-2: Ganeema Beach Resort in Alkhoms, 2010



Source: the author

Vertical diversification into supplementary products around one primary product increases the concentration towards mass concentration. For instance, Tripoli's beach resorts are highly thematically concentrated in terms of leisure and relaxation attractions, and some struggle to differentiate themselves by offering related supplementary products, such as entertainment for children, motor boat cruising, windsurfing, water skiing and organised beach sport competitions. *"We established this family summer resort three years ago, and*

every year we introduce something new. This year we offer two water bikes for hire in addition to the last year's games for children and organised family competitions and prizes" (Private sector actor,17). Such offerings make these resorts very crowded compared to others in Alkhoms where the privately owned resorts offer only tents and wooden huts and other very basic services, which is also due to a lack of investment and support from government and the low number of domestic tourists during working week days compared to Tripoli. "We do not receive any support from the government, which is only concerned with collecting the rent and tax. Our customers are budget minded local people who cannot afford water sports. But we organise football and volleyball competitions every day for our customers and also chess competitions" (Private sector actor 9).

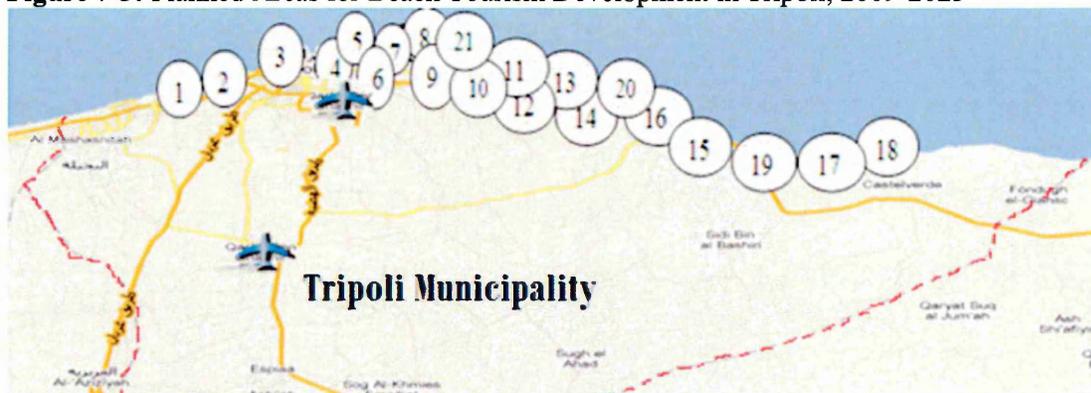
Beach resorts owned by the public sector often contain permanent chalets, such as at Janzour and Reggata beach resorts in Tripoli, and Lebda beach resort in Alkhoms city. The prices there are higher and the quality of the infrastructure facilities is better compared to the private resorts, but neither is of a high standard. Generally, beach resorts are seasonal and show low flexibility due to the small range of offerings that are mainly designed for summer recreation, while the unavailability of indoor activities means they are empty in the winter. However, the beach resorts attract large numbers of domestic tourists during the summer season, forming thematic and spatial concentration patterns.

Although beach tourism in Tripoli is economically more successful, the economic potential of beach tourism in both case study areas is relatively low due to the concentration on one seasonal product for one small segment of the local market, and that increases its vulnerability and inability to face changes in domestic demand. Therefore, vertical and horizontal diversification into more primary tourist quality products is essential to channel these resorts into more market segments in order to sustain their local economies and to reduce the demand uncertainties.

The future plans for beach tourism development in Tripoli reveal intentions for even more concentration by developing more beach resorts and villages covering an area totalling 392 hectares along the coast east and west of Tripoli city centre, as shown in Figure 7.3 and Table 7.1. The planned beach tourism developments in Alkhoms will spread over a larger area of 3,391 hectares, as shown in Figure 7.4 and Table 7.2, which might lead to an intensive spatial and thematic concentrated development. There are also notable plans for beach resort development to be heavily concentrated in the coastal area stretched between

the two cities, reflecting the direction of governmental policy regarding tourism development, where the "Coastal area will be given priority in the tourism development programmes because it includes the most potential tourism resources that can attract investors" (Government official 3).

Figure 7-3: Planned Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Tripoli, 2009-2025



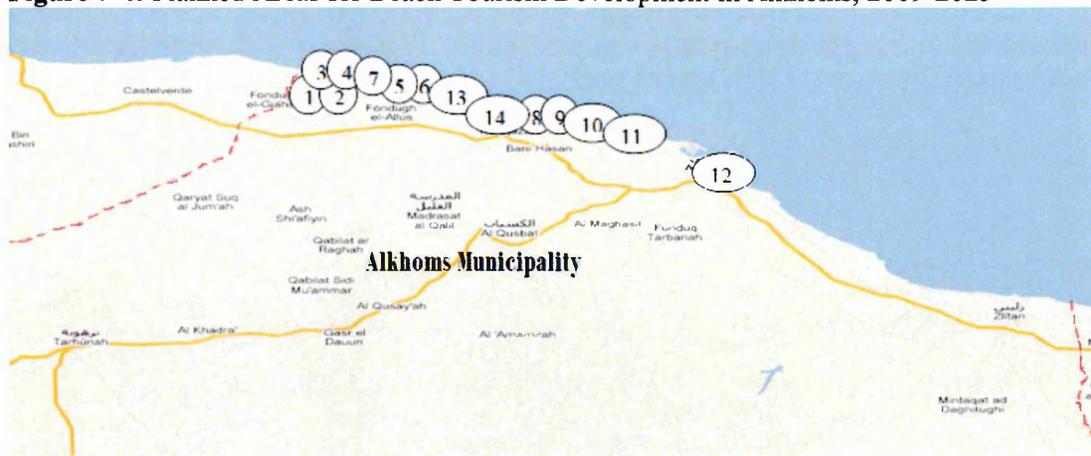
Source: Compiled by the author from LTMP (2009-2025)

Table 7-1: Planned Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Tripoli, 2009-2025

No	Place of development	Areas in Hectares	Whether surveyed and paper work	Whether supplied with roads, water and electricity
1	Hai Elandalus site1	4.89	✓	✓
2	Hai Elandalus site 2	5.48	✓	✓
3	Marine Club site, Old Medina	4.3155	✓	✓
4	Delphine site, Sooq Eljuma	2.46	✓	✓
5	Palm Beach site, Tajoora	5.4196	✓	✓
6	Hot water springs (Fawar) site, Tajoora	51	✓	✓
7	Golf site in Tajoora	43	✓	✓
8	Freedom site, Tajoora centre	14	✓	✓
9	Alandalusi site, Tajoora centre	24	✓	✓
10	Almanara site, Uqba Ben Nafa	17.5	✓	✓
11	Northern Dakhla site, Tajoora	11.39	✓	✓
12	Southern Dakhla site, Uqba Ben Nafa	5.46	✓	✓
13	Hamidia site, Uqba Ben Nafa	15.09	✓	✓
14	Tajoora Resort site, Uqba Ben Nafa	27	✓	✓
15	Annasr (victory) site, Uqba ben Nafa	33	✓	✓
16	Abyar Esibayel site, Tajoora south	32	✓	✓
17	Enishee site, Tajoora south 39 km	31	✓	✓
18	Ghout Erroman site	35	✓	✓
19	Slaisla site, Tajoora, south east	42	✓	✓
20	Tajoora tourist village	10.46	✓	✓
21	Esalam (peace) site	3.5	✓	✓
Total area		392.88		

Source: Compiled by the author from LTMP (2009-2025)

Figure 7-4: Planned Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Alkhoms, 2009-2025



Source: Compiled by the author from LTMP (2009-2025)

Table 7-2: Planned Areas for Beach Tourism Development in Tripoli, 2009-2025

No	Place of development of tourist resort project	Area Hectares	Whether surveyed and paper work	Costs of Road Design and Development	
				Road Distance (km)	Costs in Libyan Dinars
1	The sandy triangle site	335	✓	6	13,859,500
2	Karawa site 1	635			
3	Karawa site 2	1,149			
4	Karawa site 3	153	✓	2.5	5,872,062.500
5	Sidi Omaer site 1	284	✓	2.5	5,872,062.500
6	Sidi Omaer site 2	447.5	✓	2	4,731,000.000
7	Ataya site	30.7	✓	22	50,373,500.000
8	Ghaneema site	72	✓	5	11,577,375
9	Falfool site	51	✓	4	9,295,250.000
10	Negaza site	64	✓	3	7,013,125.000
11	Villa Celine	95.48	✓	11	25,270,125.000
12	Hanibal (Lebda site)	6			
13	Gireem site	28.8	✓	4	9,295,250.000
14	Twebia site	39.9			
Total Area		3,391.38			143,159,250.000

Source: Compiled by the author from LTMP (2009-2025)

Regarding urban tourism, Tripoli city has an urban tourism product with cultural attractions, business amenities, shopping places, tourist accommodation and services that are agglomerated spatially in the city's centre. In Alkhoms, however, the cultural tourism attractions are spread in the city outskirts, so Alkhoms will less clearly represent "urban tourism" in the near future.

Shopping in Tripoli is another form of mass tourism that is specifically concentrated in shopping areas in the city centre. It attracts domestic and inbound tourists, particularly those wishing to purchase handicrafts and traditional wares and jewellery from Tripoli's

highly popular bazaars of Al-Mushier and Al-Turk in the Old Medina. Recently, some international brand businesses, such as M&S, Mango, BhS, United Colours of Benton, Jennyfer, Aftershock, Clarks, Geox and Réserve Naturelle, have opened in shopping centres in Gergarish, Syahia, Sooq Etholatha areas in Tripoli, and these attract domestic tourists from surrounding cities.

7.2.1.2 Concentration of Alternative Tourism Products

Alternative (niche) tourist products are those designed to attract specialist interest tourists as individuals or in small groups. The concept of alternative tourism was articulated as "Value Added Tourism" by almost all of the supply side interviewees, and the same phrase is found in the Libyan Tourism Master Plan (LTMP, 2009-2025). In the plan the concept of "Value Added Tourism" is clearly stated as products that add experience value for tourists via their quality, branding, diversification, differentiation, price competitiveness, safety and security, and/or hospitality. One government respondent explained that *"Currently the tourism sector, and after the lifting of international sanctions against Libya, is becoming more eager to develop new attractions focused primarily on the "value added tourism" concept. This is for attractions and products that can add value and positive memories for tourists"* (Government official 1).

The small capacity of Leptis Magna in terms of one tourist product, and limited parking area and services has made it an alternative product attracting only fairly small tourist numbers. The development of the ancient Roman city of Leptis Magna for tourism has concentrated on making more excavations, opening its new museum, and increasing the number of supplementary products around the site to satisfy increasing tourist demand. The attraction was developed to attract international and local tourists as individuals and small groups, and for both leisure and specialist interest tourists all year round. A tourist stated that *"Since I studied the Romans I particularly wanted to see the Roman Cities. I shall probably give a talk to my local Ancient History Society about them"* (International tourist 4). However, although the site has huge potential, it is still attracting only niche market segments due to various constraints. First, most tourists come to the site by coach or mini bus from Tripoli where usually they are accommodated, which is quite a long distance to travel in a day. Second, it was observed how small the parking area is, and this becomes very crowded with local people's private cars, especially at weekends and on Fridays. Third, in the site there is only a small area with toilets, at the entrance. One web reviewer commented that *"There are*

toilet facilities and a little cafe at the site. The museum is very good, giving a good overview of the site" (Peter L, 2006), while another tourist stated that *"The filthy toilets in the Roman city of Leptis Magna disappointed me; and the man who expected me to pay money to use them"* (International tourist 1).

There are only six hotels near the site, and all are privately owned, and they contain only a small number of beds, thus making their capacity and quality relatively low. A blogger described his experience in Leptis Magna as *"I was at Leptis Magna this week. Wow!...what an impressive site! It's HUGE!...and thus it's hard to believe that still only 25% of the ruins have been excavated. Unfortunately the entrance area where you check in and pay is still a mess (very run down with trash all over) and the bathrooms are not functioning"* (Libyatravelandtours, 2012). Fourth, the number of attractions available at the site is also rather limited at present. Another stated that *"Visited on a day trip from Tripoli.....I have a keen interest in Roman history and this site was simply fantastic, easily exceeding my expectations... Only downside is it's apparently illegal to swim in ocean off the site, denying us a chance to cool down"* (Llyw, 2012). Another such tourist, asked about what kinds of tourist offerings were available at the site, replied that it was *"Cultural yes, otherwise no. The only ones we know about are historical and cultural- nothing else is promoted"* (International tourist 5).

A public sector official noted that *"In Alkhoms region the main culture attraction is Leptis Magna. It is famous as an international heritage site, and its known area is 250 acres so far. It includes the harbour, the circus, horse race course, baths, market areas, and so forth. Despite its importance and big size, it is still visited by only a small number of leisure and interested tourists, and a small number of Libyans"* (Public sector actor 4). This limited development is quite surprising, given its tourism potential. Thus, the Leptis Magna site has only one tourism product, which is often packaged as the primary attraction for international tourists, although it may include visits to the small Roman Villa Celine. Thus, it can be classified as an alternative tourism thematic concentration.

In fact historical and archaeological relicts are scattered over a very large area of Alkhoms municipality. But all of them are tiny and underdeveloped in terms of a lack of infrastructure compared to the main Leptis Magna site. These scattered historical places are rarely visited, and then only by very small groups or individual tourists (Elmergeb People's Committee for Tourism, 2003: 39; LTMP, 2009-2005, Vol. 1: 30). Thus, these

wider heritage attractions are not economically significant at the moment, and they are excluded from this study. As one government actor noted: *"Alkhoms region encompasses many archaeology ruins and historical places, such as those in Tarhouna, Mesallata, and Zliten, which many local people do not know about and have never visited because of the lack of roads and facilities beside them. These places are visited by a few individual tourists who have prior knowledge about them"* (Government official actor 11).

Currently, Leptis Magna site is packaged with other tourism products. Thus, its capacity to create more jobs for local people and develop more local businesses depends on the number of tourists attracted by the content of the promoted packages and not only by what Leptis Magna site offers for tourists. Thus, economically, tourism in Alkhoms is limited by the concentration on the one alternative tourist product of the Leptis Magna site, which attracts relatively special interest tourists. Thus, to increase its economic performance, the city probably needs to penetrate new markets through diversification into more tourist products.

The lack of quality infrastructure means that Libya's ecotourism attractions are fairly uncompetitive globally and are consumed mainly by domestic tourists and residents. Ecotourism, in terms of travelling to undamaged natural areas for recreation and learning about nature and culture with a low negative impact, is growing slowly in both case study areas. It is a potential future primary tourism product, based on the development of national parks, forests, and protected areas. Ecotourism resources have been deliberately developed since the government's first decree in 1978 to set up a national park system. The goal was to "create meaningful national parks for the Libyan people and international tourists" (UNDP, 2006: 5), and the project has been supervised by a committee chaired by the Libyan Environmental General Authority, and the committee members include the General People's Committee of Tourism. Recently, several national parks and protected areas have been developed in both case study areas, and they are mainly visited by domestic tourists. Table 7.3 shows the most important ecotourism locations in the two study areas.

There was a clear lack of awareness about the underlying principles and philosophy behind ecotourism among most local tour operators. The tour operator Temehu was the only company indicating its commitment to ecotourism through its website, which sought to educate its customers about the concepts of ecotourism and responsible tourism, about its

own policies, and about guidelines to be followed to enhance responsibility towards the environment. The policies included encouraging consumers to use cars instead of airplanes when travelling long distances in the country, and instructions on the disposal of plastic waste.

Table 7-3: National Parks and Protected Areas in Tripoli and Alkhoms

Province	Location	Area in hectares	Management type
Tripoli	Tripoli city	870*	Natural Reserve
	Enaaser **	-	National Park
	Tajoura **	-	National Park
	Sidi Elmasri **	-	National Park
	Wildlife Park **	-	Protected Area
	Garabolli	15,000*	National Park
Alkhoms	Mesallata-SimEdees	1000***	Protected Area
	Ain Kaam	-	Natural Reserve
	Naggazza	4000***	Natural Reserve
	Tarhouna	-	National Park

Source: Compiled by the author from:

* <http://www.nationalparks-worldwide.info/libya.htm>

** LTMP (2009-2025, Vol. 1: 36)

*** Fourth national report on the implementation of the Convention on Biodiversity (2010).

Lack of awareness about ecotourism has led to environmental damage by local people in nature based recreation and picnic places. Because educational provision, economic viability and environmental management are core elements in ecotourism development, then it is difficult to consider the current outdoor activities by domestic tourists as a form of ecotourism. Thus, the potential ecotourism products in both case studies are at a very early stage of development because they are not underpinned by an ecotourism philosophy. These rural areas are not packaged at the moment, and they are visited mainly by domestic tourists at weekends and during the spring for sightseeing and the weather. Some interviewees noted how the rural, nature-based attractions are mainly used by local people: that *"Local tourists enjoy the weekends and holidays by going out in family groups to open areas in the hills and national parks"* (Government official 9). Another explained how *"The national parks and green areas are still underdevelopment and are not receiving inbound tourists at the moment, but they are favoured places for local people"* (Government official 4).

The lack of government will about the tourism sector, the limited infrastructure, and the lack of skilled guides, such as in relation to bird watching, have made several alternative tourism products simply stand still at an early stage of development. For instance, bird

watching tourism in the Alkhoms region at the Wadi Ain Kaam and Garrabolli protected areas only involves a few individual special interest tourists at specific times of the year to see migratory birds. This product is at its early stages of evolution, where "the most recent formal review of the birds of Libya is that of Bundy in 1976" (African Bird Club, 2012). The LTMP (2009-2025: 19) points out that tourist agencies have notable problems in including new types of tourist attractions due to the lack of knowledge and communication skills among guides. According to an interviewee, *"Most tourist guides were licensed just because they speak a foreign language and the training programmes they were offered are basic and not professional"* (Government official 9). Another one stated that *"There are some specific professionals, who we do not have at the moment, such as specialist guides, in some tourism areas. This is because of the low demand for these things, and guiding jobs have not yet been recognised as a permanent job by the tourism authority"* (Private sector actor 15). Thus, it is quite hard to consider these tiny products, such as ecotourism, as primary tourist products according to Jansen-Verbeke's model of tourism products, although in some cases they can be a main reason for travel for a few specific tourists.

In general, most alternative tourist attractions have not been developed to be economically viable. It can be said that the developments that have taken place for alternative tourism are based on only two different types of attractions as primary tourism products. One of them is the Leptis Magna site as a cultural tourism product, which appeals to inbound special interest and leisure tourists, and the second is the outdoor tourism product of rural landscapes and national parks, which mainly attracts small numbers of domestic leisure tourists.

7.2.2 Diversification Patterns by Geography and Theme

The diversification of tourism products concerns the development of a variety of tourist offerings, whether by creating entirely new tourist attractions and products, or by connecting existing tourist attractions and products in creative and innovative ways. The latter involves combining and packaging products to promote the tourist destination as offering a range of new flexible tourist offerings to satisfy sophisticated tourists.

The tourism resources of Tripoli and Alkhoms were naturally diversified in terms of natural and cultural attractions, such as hot water springs, sandy beaches, landmarks and mountains, historical man-made attractions and local people's culture and lifestyle. But

there are several other tourism products that have been intentionally developed either by the private or public sectors, such as business tourism, scuba diving, local food experience, and spas.

7.2.2.1 Alternative Diversified Products

Tripoli, as a capital city and the main entry point via its international airport and harbour, is the first place many tourists might visit in Libya. The city comprises various types of primary and supplementary tourism products that might not be found in other places in the country in terms of volume, quality and variety. Therefore, the city might have the potential to receive different types of tourists who might reflect the available patterns of tourism products in the city. Tripoli has a number of potential alternative attractions, such as natural and cultural attractions and activities related to tourism, which while attracting small numbers of visitors can be considered as significant pull factors.

Sport tourism of various types is one group of tourist products that represent alternative diversified products in Tripoli. Sport tourism is defined by Standeven and De Knop as "all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organised way for non-commercial or business/commercial reasons that necessitate travel away from home and work locality" (1999: 12). Scuba diving, for example, was an "active sport holiday" (Ritchie and Adair, 2004: 8) that was recently established in Tripoli through two diving professional clubs offering training and the experience of diving at some specific coastal areas. Thus, one interviewee stated that *"In Tripoli we have two clubs for diving and teaching swimming and diving and also fishing for adventure seekers"* (Private sector actor 16).

Some tour operators do offer scuba diving as a primary tourist product for specialist interest tourists who can experience day and night coastal diving and they connect that with visits to cultural places. Examples include the tour operators Arkno (Figure 7.5) and C-Libya (Figure 7.6). Both are located in Tripoli and they offer 8 day and 6 day tours of scuba diving combined with culture travel packages to selected cultural places.

Figure 7-5: Description of Diving/Cultural Tour Package Offered by Arkno Company, 2010

7 - Diving / Cultural Tour (8 days)

- **Day 1)** Meet guide on arrival at Tripoli Airport and transfer to beach village.
- **Day 2)** Janzour: one day dive and one night dive (both boat dives)
- **Day 3)** Day dive in Zwara and one night dive at Amatshok Beach (both boat dives)
- **Day 4)** Dive at Al Garaboli Beach and night dive at Genama Beach
- **Day 5)** Diving at Tajora Beach
- **Day 6)** Transfer to Tripoli. Sightseeing in Libya's capital city.
- **Day 7)** Full day excursion to the magnificent sites of Leptis Magna and Villa Celine.
- **Day 8)** At leisure until transfer to airport..



Tour includes all necessary diving equipment (air tanks, regulator, mask etc.)

Transport to dive site is done by small boats and zodiacs.

Accommodations will be made at villages along the beach.

Source: http://www.arkno.com/our_tours.html

Figure 7-6: Description of Diving/Cultural Tour Offered by C-Libya Company, 2010
Diving and Cultural Expedition Tour (6 Days)

It is an expedition because the diving sites are not fixed so the only fixed information is as follows:

Accommodation A 4 or 5 star Hotel Diving Days 2 or 3 boat and 2 or 3 shore dive and 1 night dive. All other services are mentioned in the program below.

Please note: In case diving is not possible due to weather conditions, a mini desert expedition or a historical tour will be organised.



Source: http://c-libya.com/tours_diving.php

The lack of required infrastructure, government support and skilled guides has limited the potential development of this product, and thus only the two mentioned tour operators market it as primary product. However, scuba diving is also not well recognised by domestic tourists and it is still targeted mainly at inbound tourists with adventure interests. The interviewees pointed to these problems, stating that *“There is a real problem because so far government has not taken any real action to survey and document the restricted areas for scuba diving, and it has not encouraged scuba diving as well as some other*

nations do" (Private sector actor 16). Another noted that "There are some technical problems at the moment with scuba diving. I mean we need to secure permissions in advance from coast guards and other security agencies, and also there is no pressure room available for scuba divers, so that the facilities that we provide for scuba diving are to dive at the coast" (Private sector actor 14).

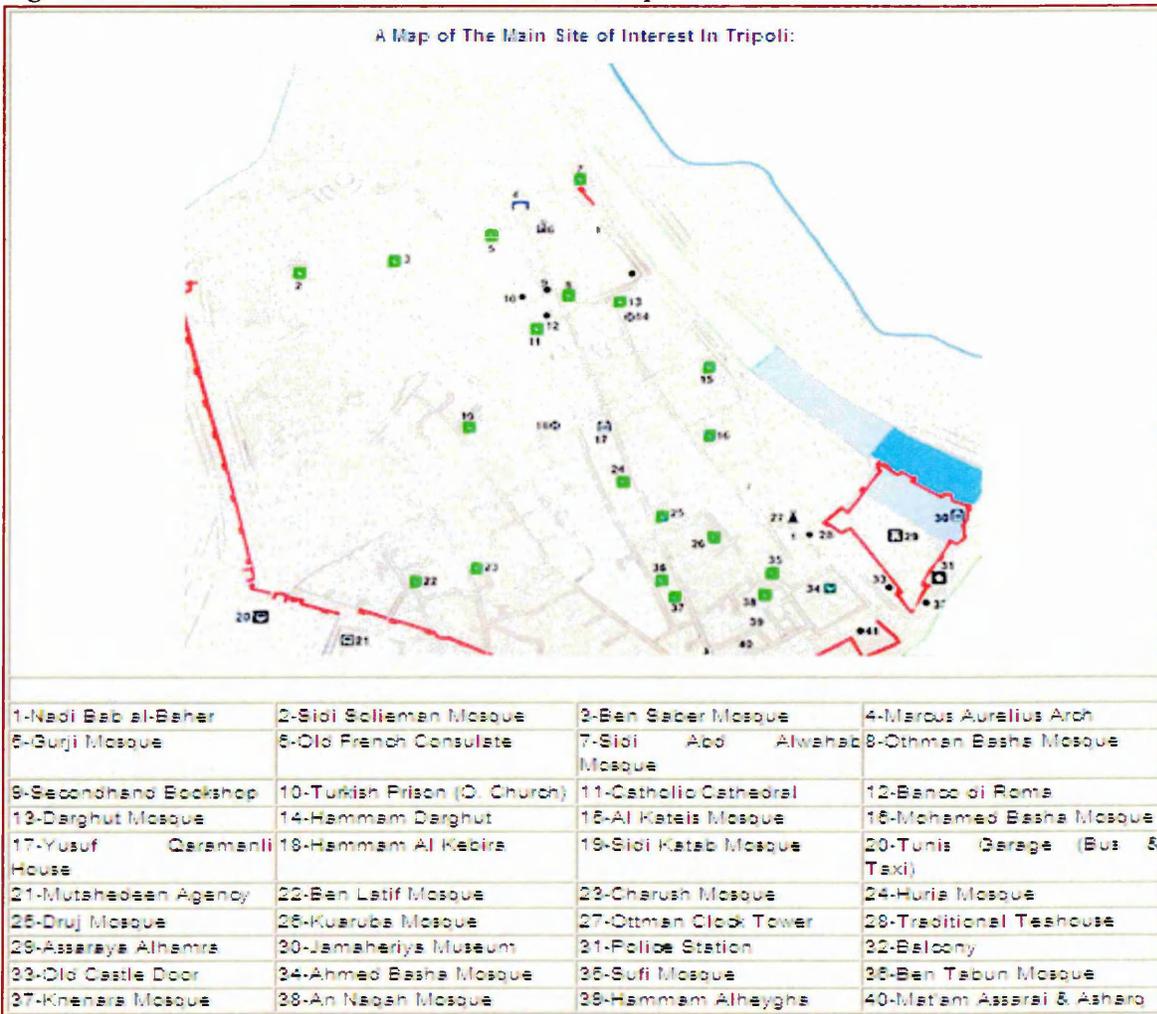
Packaging different attractions together could enhance the attractiveness for both primary and supplementary tourism products and it might help to avoid weaknesses in primary product competitiveness and also to prolong tourist trips. It might be that tour operators Arkno and C-Libya are aware about the problems facing the development of scuba diving, and this may have encouraged scuba diving to be combined with cultural visits in Tripoli and Alkhoms as part of their packages. This joint packaging was noted by one private sector respondent: *"We promote scuba diving and to encourage tourists to purchase this package we add excursions to archaeology sites and shopping. That help to market scuba diving in Libya" (Private sector actor 14).* Another stated that *"scuba diving is not well developed in Libya, and the Tourism Ministry does not support us in developing it. So we in C-Libya combine it with visits to Tripoli city, Sabrata, and Leptis Magna to make more sales" (Private sector actor 15).*

Alternative tourism products in Tripoli and in Alkhoms are in an early evolution stage. Thus, it is quite hard to recognise the extent of diversification of the alternative tourism products and their economic potential in Libya due to the lack of data. Also there is poor infrastructure and facilities, despite these being needed for competitiveness. For example, cycling activities need appropriate road signs, communication technology and specialist shops that sell bikes, spare parts, clothing, biking maps, etc. From observation, many of these services are not available and cyclists need to be aware and prepare in advance for any situation. A key tour operator pointed to the infrastructure problems limiting the potential for alternative tourism products:

"The problem with this kind of tourism is the infrastructure and services which are not yet developed to cater for many of our guests. Specialist interest tourists often come individually or in small groups, and the arrangements for them are a little bit difficult because the itineraries include many places, which in general lack services and facilities in places which interest them. Therefore, we advise them to bring their own stuff, and maybe with their own transportation" (Private sector actor 14).

Heritage tourist products in Tripoli can be viewed as a diversified alternative product, including the heritage attractions within and outside Old Medina. Tripoli as a capital city includes several heritage resources, such as mosques, churches and other historical buildings. One of its major heritage attractions is the Old Medina (Figure 7.7), which has several tourist products located within its walls. It includes heritage monuments, such as the Ottoman watch tower, old mosques and churches, French and Britain old consulates, traditional Souks, gold and jewellery markets, copper handicrafts, hammams, cafés, restaurants and tea houses.

Figure 7-7: The Tourist Attractions in Old Medina, Tripoli



Source: http://www.temehu.com/Cities_sites/Tripoli.htm

Other heritage places are located outside of Old Medina, such as Murad Agha Mosque in Tajoura and Sidi Abdelwahab Mosque. There are also churches outside Old Medina, such as the Catholic Church in Dhara and Cemeteries.

All of these heritage places attract local and international tourists to visit Tripoli's heritage as an alternative tourist product. *"Old Medina in Tripoli is the most visited place by local people and foreigners all year round, for tourism, leisure, taking photos of old buildings, and for shopping for traditional products, because of its location in the heart of the city and its collections"* (Government official 4). An international tourist stated that *"I liked the great collection of the architecture of three religions - Jewish, Christianity and Islam - in the Old Medina in Tripoli"* (International tourist 2).

In contrast, in Alkhoms there are several heritage places, such old mosques and old buildings such as Abdelasalam mosque in Zliten, which was extended to become the Islamic University and Alemejabera mosque in Misalata, which is linked to the announcement of the Republic of Tripoli in 16 November 1918 (Atoav, 2011). But these places are rarely visited by tourists, and therefore they are not significant in economic returns as tourist places.

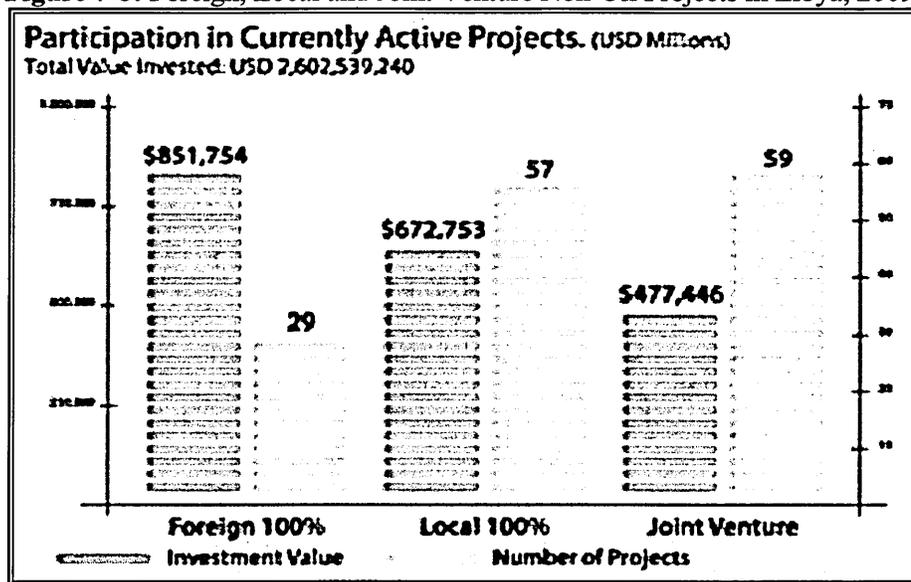
Another type of alternative tourist product is film tourism. This product might be to satisfy those who are more interested in producing documentary films or TV programmes. Arkno tour operator, for example, offers a tailor-made travel for professional photographers and international film teams. Arkno tour operator stated that *"We have a good experience in 'filming tourism' for independent and specialist interest tourists. For example, we have organised trips for TV media, such as Discovery Channel, which produced one program about Libya's tourism. Also another program titled Fast Track was produced by the BBC and also National Geographic TV Channel"* (Private sector actor 14). However, this tourist product is niche and it attracts only small numbers of special interest tourists who are offered trips to experience other tourist products. Arkno tour operator stated that *"Film tourists are very few and they are usually involved in tailor-made tours in which they can visit archaeology sites, beach areas in the summer etc"* (Private sector actor 14).

Business tourism is a new diversified alternative tourist product that has recently evolved in Tripoli. Business travellers can be defined as tourists encouraged mainly for business purposes to attend meetings, conferences, trade fairs and exhibitions, and also incentive travel (Davidson, 1994), or they attend business-related or corporate hospitality events, such as sport events, festivals and concerts (Thornton, 2006). The lifting of 10 years of UN sanctions against Libya in 2003, and the government's significant new reforms towards privatization and opening the door for domestic and foreign private investors in different

economic sectors, had supported the development of business tourism in Libya. The readmission of Libya into the global mainstream had significantly enhanced the implementation of privatisation and economic diversification programmes (Otman and Erling, 2007). However, several legislative reforms and amendments were adopted by the Libyan government that paved the way to a more liberal legal framework for attracting foreign direct investment (FDI). Following the Law No.5 in 1997 concerning the Encouragement of Foreign Capital Investment, several amendments were established, such as Executive Decision No 21, 2002, Decision No 13, 2005, new Taxation Law No 11, 2004, and the Law No 7, 2004, regarding tourism development. Moreover, in 2006 changes were introduced where the minimum required amount of invested capital from foreign investors to initiate a business in Libya was reduced from \$50 million to only \$4 million and facilities were offered to borrow up to 50% of the invested value from Libyan banks. All of these legislation changes had led to significant improvements regarding Libya's investment environment. Such changes led to a spectacular increase in local and foreign investment, and in the invested capital value in different projects in Libya, as shown in Figures 7.8 and Figure 7.9 respectively.

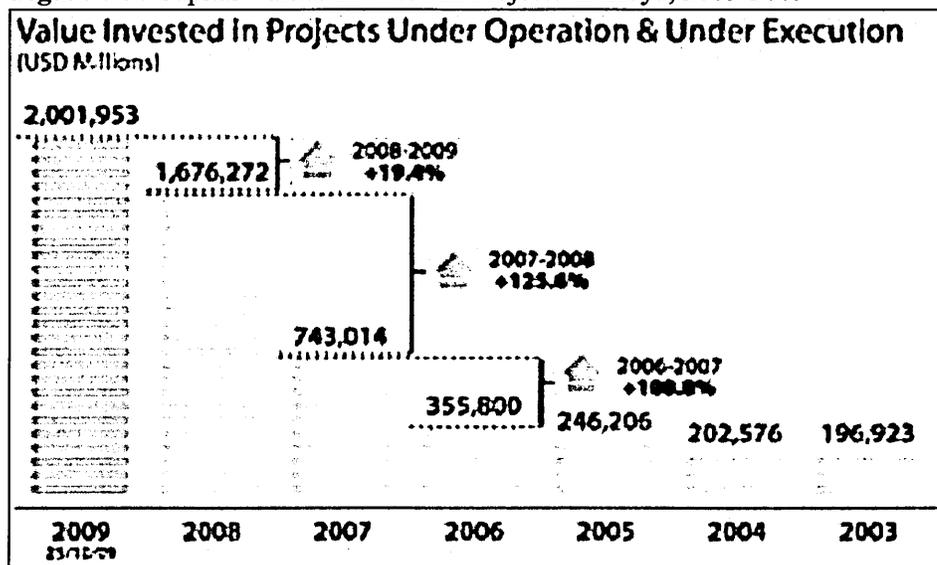
The growth of business opportunities in Libya has itself resulted in increasing the number of business tourists who are engaged in touristic activities. Weaver and Lawton (2006) argue that the presence of business opportunities can foster business-related tourist flows. An interviewee claimed that *"Libya now is open for private investors from the entire world, who are given facilities in entry visas and bank loans, leading to the growth of business tourists numbers who are demanding 5&4Star hotels for few days"* (Government official 9). As mentioned in chapter 6, there is an obvious lack of data regarding the number of business people who are engaging in tourism activities. It is also noted that the LTMP (1999-2018) did not include business tourism because the potential of this sector had not been recognised until the lifting the sanctions and economic reforms undertaken after 2003. In contrast, the amended LTMP (2009-2025) clearly emphasised the potential role of business tourism in developing the tourism sector. However, it should be noted that diversification can encourage tourism businesses to focus only on the most profitable sectors, and that can result in a slowing of the overall growth of the core attractions. For example, focusing of the investment on business tourism (upmarket tourists) or beach tourism (mass tourism) or even on the hospitality sector for economic reasons could lead to other core tourism resources, such as archaeology sites, museums, and ecotourism, being ignored.

Figure 7-8: Foreign, Local and Joint Venture Non-Oil Projects in Libya, 2009



Source: <http://www.panoramareports-ltd.com/libya2/>

Figure 7-9: Capital Values Invested in Projects in Libya, 2003-2009



Source: <http://www.panoramareports-ltd.com/libya2/>

The availability of quality infrastructure related to business tourism and governmental institutions in Tripoli has led to a spatially concentrated growth of business tourism in Tripoli. The development of Tripoli exhibition fair ground and 5&4 star hotels, particularly in Tripoli, in which conference venues and meeting rooms can be found in most of these hotels, such as Al Waddan, Corinthia Bab Africa, Al Mahary Radisson Blu, and Rixos. Many of these hotels are highly priced and demanded by business people because they provide high quality services, such as spas, gyms, recreation, international restaurants etc. Furthermore, Tripoli is the capital city with the majority of governmental and public organisations needed by businesses to make business deals and agreements. A hotel

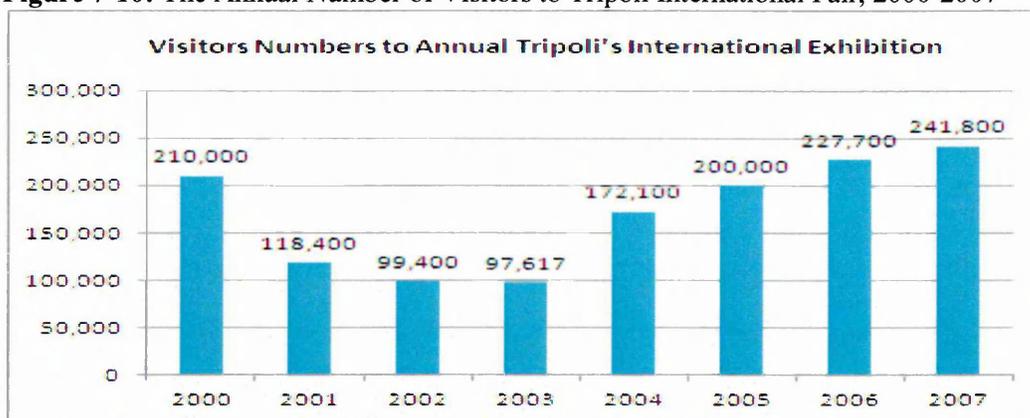
manager in Tripoli stated that *"Business visitors in Tripoli is a new growing market because here they can find luxury hotels and business exhibitions and also because most of governmental bodies are here in Tripoli"* (Public sector actor 5).

Three exhibitions centres - the International Ground Fair, the Elfatah (currently Tripoli) University Exhibition, and Mitiga International Airport Exhibition for airplanes - have been developed in Tripoli, which facilitate business fairs and conferences that are attended by international business tourists and locals. Some of the visitors also visit various tourist attractions and sites in Tripoli and elsewhere, including Alkhoms. A manager of leading exhibition and tourism services in Tripoli claimed that *"We organise everything needed for our customers to attend meetings, conferences and fairs and we offer packages of short trips to museums, local restaurants and cafés in Tripoli, and sometimes one day trips to Leptis Magna and Sabrata during or at the end of the events"* (Private sector actor 20). A business tourist stated that *"This is my first visit to Libya; I came for ten days to do some work for an Oil Company located in Tripoli. This Friday my host company offered me a chance to visit Leptis Magna, it's amazing and unbelievable"* (International tourist 7).

However, there is a substantial lack of statistical data regarding the number of events and the number of their visitors and this creates a problem to statistically recognising the economic potential of the city's business tourism. For example, one well-known Libyan exhibition is the Tripoli International Fair, which was built during the Italian occupation in 1927 and the first exhibition was established in 1929 and continued annually to date with some disruptions during WWII. The first book about the annual exhibition was published by the General Exhibition and Fair Authority in 2007. This does provide some statistical data on the total number of exhibition visitors between 2000 and 2007, giving some insights into business tourism developments in the recent period (Figure 7.10).

Figure 7.10 shows there was a decline in tourist visitors between 2000 and 2003, which may well be due to the effect of the September 11 terrorist attack and 2nd Gulf War against Iraq in 2003. From 2004 the number of visitors to Tripoli's exhibition increased each year, probably due to the economic reforms toward an open market economy and the associated growing of Tripoli's business tourism.

Figure 7-10: The Annual Number of Visitors to Tripoli International Fair, 2000-2007



Source: Adapted from Libyan General Exhibition and Fair Authority Publication, 2007

More recently, several yearly exhibitions have been conducted in Tripoli's exhibition. One of these is "Build Libya", where many international and local companies participate and display their building and construction products and services for visitors. The first event was established in 2004 and the event has grown progressively every year in terms of total exhibitors and visitors, as presented in Table 7.4.

Table 7-4: The Growth of the Annual Event "Build Libya" in Tripoli, 2010

The Exhibition "Build Libya" in Tripoli	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Space (Area) sq.m.	1300	2000	3000	5000	7500	14200	17645
Total Exhibitors	70	108	120	173	303	541	632
International Companies	40	69	76	130	167	389	427
Local Companies	30	39	44	43	136	152	205
Total Visitors	2500	4200	5000	5276	10500	15784	15,881

Source: www.libyabuild.com/general_information.htm

This is only one example among several events conducted at Tripoli's International Fair. It is visited by substantial numbers of people and it constitutes an essential part of the development of the city's business tourism. A tour operator stated that *"Our travel packages include short trips within Tripoli, and cities around it, and these are usually demanded by VIP visitors, charter travellers and specific purpose visitors, such as exhibitors, conferences attendees, and short trip visitors. These trips are more demanded by international visitors due to their time limitations"* (Private sector actor 15).

The availability of touristic places in Tripoli and nearby areas, such as the Leptis Magna site, has sustained the demand of business tourists to be engaged in tourism activities. Business tourists usually have limited time for entertainment during their business trips

during which they generally stay in high quality accommodation for a few days, and thus specific arrangements need to be made by tour operators to satisfy this up-market segment. For example, they put on day trips to nearby high quality tourism places using high quality transportation. To be competitive in this sector requires not only the availability of high quality accommodation and facilities, but also the availability of high quality tourism places in the same or nearby areas. Of course, this is a feature of urban areas. A manager of a public sector owned hotel in Tripoli stated that *"Most business events are held in Tripoli, so that it is preferred for business tourists due to the availability of these facilities and the existence of some leisure facilities, such as spas, gyms, restaurants and touristic places, such as museums and the archaeology cities of Leptis Magna and Sabrata"* (Public sector actor 6). Another interviewee stated that *"Many politicians and VIPs and business people visit Saraya museum in Tripoli, the Leptis Magna site and/or Sabrata during their short visits to Libya because they are nearest places to Tripoli and they are known worldwide"* (Government official 4).

However, the lack of suitable infrastructure for business visitors in Alkhoms might well be a strong barrier to developing business tourism. A hotel manager in Alkhoms city stated that,

"Our customers are Libyans, Arabs and foreign tourists, and at the moment we neither have 4 or 5 Star hotels, nor quality conference halls in Alkhoms. Also, we do not provide exhibition and meeting rooms that can meet quality standards. There is no airport in the city and we do not have high quality restaurants. Consequently, many of Leptis Magna's high quality visitors, such as international company managers or ministry staff and ambassadors visit the site for a few hours and leave to return to Tripoli" (Private sector actor 8).

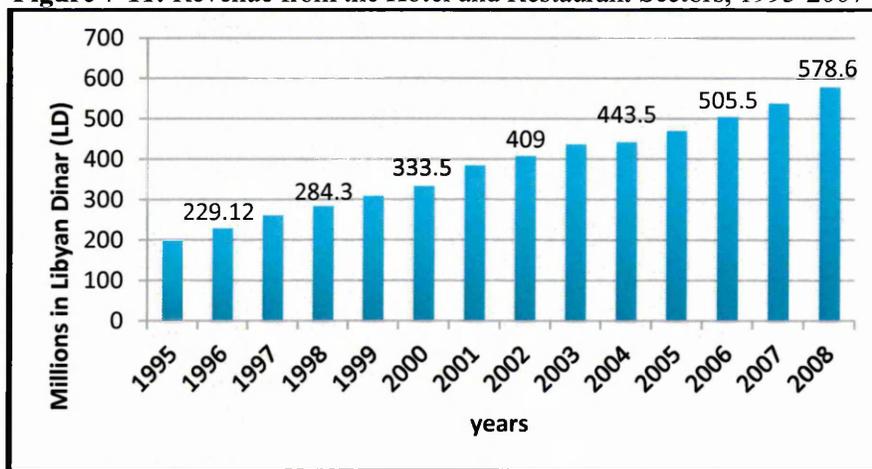
This suggests that the availability of quality supporting tourism products is essential for a destination such as Alkhoms to diversify into business tourism, despite it being an international flagship archaeology site.

Food tourism in Tripoli is growing faster than in Alkhoms, encouraged by the former's much greater business conglomeration. Generally, food and drink are an essential part of tourism. Weaver and Lawton (2006: 139-140) argue that "for any place, food is a means by which the tourist can literally consume the destination, and if the experience is memorable, it can be exceptionally effective at including the highly desired outcome of repeat visitation". Hall and Mitchell (2001: 308) define food tourism as "visitation to primary and

secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of specialist food production of the region are the motivating factor for travel". The development of food tourism in Tripoli might be enhanced by opening more restaurants, cafés and teahouses that produce traditional authentic foods. Indeed, restaurants and cafés are primary products in the hospitality sector due to their main function being hospitality (Slattery, 2002) but they can also play the role of major touristic attractions, even primary tourist attractions, since eating local foods can give tourists the experience of a unique culture.

Libya's food tourism might be in early stages of development since there are no strong brands promoted globally by local restaurants and cafés, and there are relatively few Libyan restaurants overseas. However, the economic added value by the catering sector in Libya between 1995 and 2008 increased each year, as shown in Figure 7.11. The highest contribution of value of restaurants and cafés is embedded in the hotel sector data, but in general the available data seems to indicate a growing contribution of food tourism to GDP, and this indicates the potential for developing this sector. Certainly, the agglomeration effect of commercial and public organisations in Tripoli has supported the growth of the restaurant and café sector in Tripoli, although in Alkhoms they are less in number and mostly located in service stations along the main highway crossing the country.

Figure 7-11: Revenue from the Hotel and Restaurant Sectors, 1995-2007



Source: Adapted from the Libyan Tourism Master Plan, 2009-2025, Vol.1:156.

Most restaurants and cafés are owned and operated by private sector SMEs (Jwaili *et al.*, 2005), and the majority provide consumers with different local foods. The owner of a local restaurant facing the Leptis Magna site stressed that "Our customers are Libyans and

Leptis Magna visitors; we provide local foods at reasonable prices. Our customers make no complaints about the quality and prices" (Private sector actor 12). A 4-star hotel manager in Tripoli stated that *"Our restaurant serves international and Arab style cuisine - Moroccan, Tunisian, and Lebanese - and also local food which is favoured as a different taste especially for foreigners. We have a café shop serving breakfast, and hot and cold drinks all day"* (Private sector actor 17). However, in Tripoli some local conventional dishes are provided in most hotels, restaurants, and also some places they provide international cuisines, such as Chinese, Turkish, Italian and Kashmiri. Several restaurants and cafés were developed in Tripoli and some of them are specialised to provide certain menus, such as sea food, international food, local food, occasions and sweets, and café and teahouses. By contrast, diversification can be problematic if it degrades the authenticity of local culture. Diversification, for example, can tend to increase the commodification of local cultural assets, such as local food and lifestyle, so as to increase sales, regardless of the loss of authenticity. As the number of tourists who are seeking authentic experiences is growing nowadays, then that means that tourist destinations that sacrifice authenticity to gain more sales could face problems in the future due to their diminishing authenticity.

By contrast, the majority of consumers at restaurants in Alhkoms are locals, and the restaurants are of a lower quality and provide only local and traditional foods. A hotel manager in Alkhoms city stated that *"The foods we provide are mainly local foods because the majority of customers are Libyans. Foreigners also prefer them. We also have some simple Moroccan dishes"* (Private sector actor 7).

The combination of the authenticity of local foods and place imagination is a strong motivation encouraging many of Tripoli's visitors to dine out instead of having meals in hotels. Dining out in specific restaurants motivated by the experience of certain authentic foods and the physical beauty of the place are core concepts of food tourism. The Northern Ireland Tourism Board (2009: 4) states that *"The physical beauty of a place, the authenticity of the surroundings and the presentation of the food, are among the prime ingredients of food tourism"*. In this context, the combination of the authentic taste of local foods with the place beauty provides an exceptional experience for tourists, particularly in Tripoli. The North Africa Times magazine (2008: 29) described how eating local foods in Libya is in itself an art. A reviewer stated that *"We ate dinner here on Christmas night and we couldn't have been more delighted with the ambiance, service and food"* (Rumples, 2011). Another tourist reviewed his food experience in a restaurant in Tripoli: *"This Tripoli*

restaurant is one of the finest in Tripoli. It has a beautiful location on the first floor of a restored Medina house, a good view of Tripoli harbour, top class service and excellent food" (Iwys, 2007). Thus, food authenticity and beauty of the place can mutually support each other to attract tourists.

The lack of food resources' in Libya, and the ban on alcohol such as wine, have degraded the potential of food to be developed in a sophisticated way to become a primary travel motivator, particularly for international tourists. Libya suffers from shortages in food production and it depends on importing a large percentage of its food requirements from different countries (Otman and Erling, 2007), and thus food innovation is not a part of Libyan culture. Thompson and Prideaux (2009: 165) state that "as the motivation to experience food and wine while travelling grows, destinations with appropriate levels of food and wine resources are able to develop increasingly sophisticated food and wine experiences, which may lead to the emergence of gourmet tourism". The food experience in Libya, however, might be best described as a niche tourism product in the early stages of evolution, although it can be seen as an essential part of the overall travel experience both for international and domestic tourists. It has yet to develop its potential as a stand-alone primary attraction and draw card, particularly for international tourists. Certain foods are often provided for tourists - notably Cous Cous, Tajeen, Fish, Basin, Libyan Soup, Dates and Mbaten (as seen in Figure 7.12) - and these local foods could pave the way for gastro-tourism, since they promote the unique character of the local culture and authenticity that could provide tourists with a different experience.

Figure 7-12: Some Local Food Dishes Provided for Tourists in Libya



Source: compiled by the author from <http://www.temehu.com/Libyan-food.htm>

A lack of adequate training and education regarding food production and innovation has also hindered the development of food tourism. Food tourism was completely ignored in the 1999 to 2018 Tourism Master Plan, and it was considered only as a supplementary product. Moreover, no tour operators promote local foods as travel attractions for tourists, although dining out is often included within the travel itineraries. Perhaps surprisingly, the same limited concern for food tourism is found in the subsequent 2009 to 2025 LTMP, which mentioned it only in a brief statement. However, the statement also clearly argues that Libyan food can be developed to appeal to authentic food taste lovers if adequate training and education programmes are carried out. Currently, there are only two higher level centres, one in Tripoli and the other in Musrata, that teach hospitality and food production, and several related problems are also addressed by the LTMP (2009-2025, Vol. 1: 106) regarding the availability and quality of teaching staff, quality of the education curricula, and the lack of improvement policies.

Alternative tourism products are often of most interest to independent tourists as individuals or to small tour groups. The latter can be offered tailor-made packages to increase the flexibility of their travel activities while catering for their specialist interests. This can be further enhanced by linking the alternative tourism attractions with each other and with other touristic attractions, notably with cultural and natural resources. The packages in Libya, for example, often link heritage and historical places, trekking locations, mountain hiking areas, and also the experience of authentic local food and local people's lifestyle and hospitality. However, focusing tourism development only on alternative tourism products to attract up-market tourists from international markets could lead to conflicts between tour operators who are pushing to attract large numbers of tourists for their business profitability, and the government's interests, given that government may be more concerned about the adverse sustainability effects of large volumes of tourists impacting on certain cultural and heritage sites and on local host populations. In this context more private sector involvement in Libya's tourism planning is needed in order to balance both sectors' interests and to reduce conflicts.

7.2.2.2 Diversified Mass Tourism Products

The diversification of mass tourism products is defined in this study as the diversification of large-scale tourism products, such as the diversification into other mass products, such as exhibitions, marinas, golf courses, and casinos (Bramwell, 2004), or the diversification

by linking the large-scale products together in order to attract mass or large-scale numbers of tourists. The contemporary concept of diversification of mass tourism products might be better characterised as the development of mass customized tourism products in which individual needs and satisfaction are of much concern, but the total volume of tourists is very substantial (Ioannides and Debbage, 1998). Bramwell (2004: 16) claims that "mass tourism resorts can also offer a wider choice of activities, both in the resort and in their less exploited hinterland, such as casinos, nightclubs, water sports, craft workshops, scenic rail journeys, historical sites and walking in rural areas". He added that customisation can be added when tourists use hire cars or design and book their holidays through the internet, and also sophisticated management systems could assist customisation through linking attractions according to individual preferences (2004). This might draw attention to the important role of linking the tourist attractions to promote flexibility and adaptability and customisation features so as to meet the sophisticated needs of tourists. These insights now will be carefully analysed and assessed in the context of both case studies.

The most observed mass tourist primary product in Tripoli is the exhibition centres and fairs that attract large numbers of tourists, similar to the beach resorts which are considered as concentrated products as they are only limited to two tourism products and also both lack customisation element. In Alkhoms, however, there was only beach tourism as part of mass-based nature tourism. According to Hall and Boyd (2005: 3), "nature based tourism includes tourism in natural settings (e.g. adventure tourism), tourism that focuses on specific elements of the natural environment (e.g. safari and wildlife tourism, nature tourism, marine tourism) and tourism that is developed in order to conserve or protect natural areas (e.g. ecotourism, national parks)". From this definition and linking it to Bramwell's view about mass diversified products, it is quite hard to consider either beach tourism or exhibition tourism in both case study areas as mass diversification products. This is because beach tourism in these areas of Libya is mainly consumed by domestic leisure tourists as a means to relax, based on a sunbathing and swimming product, and they are not diversified such as through water sports, such as through surfing, sailing, etc. Further, the beach tourism products are not strongly linked together or with any other tourist products, such as visits to cultural places. However, particularly in Tripoli, there are some attempts from resort owners to diversify into water sports, such as water skiing, but all of them are still in the early stages of evolution and might not be economically significant. So, beach tourism in the case study areas is still characterised as mass concentrated and not mass diversified.

7.3 The Linkages between Tourism Products

Several linkages might evolve between tourism products within one destination or between several destinations, resulting in competition and/or cooperation relationships. Linkages of compatibilities and complementarities that can be built based on thematic and/or spatial features can help tourism providers to build strong linkages between tourism products. In this way they can offer more flexible and adaptable packages that meet the needs of more types of tourists, resulting in growth, competitiveness and ability to overcome crises. Next, the compatibility and complementarity linkages that might have evolved between the tourist products in each case study area and between both case study areas will be analysed. This can help in understanding how and why the primary products are packaged together by tour operators and why they are visited in specific ways by tourists.

7.3.1 Compatibility and Complementarity Linkages

Weidenfeld *et al.* (2010: 2) define compatibility as "the measure of the effect that one business has upon an adjacent or proximate business", and Wiese (1997: 283) argues that "compatibility influences business strategy and market structure and can itself be the outcome of market forces". Hudman and Jackson (2003: 19) also claim that "a complementary relationship generates interaction in the form of tourism". Thus compatibility and complementarity can have a vital influence on tourism product development and attractiveness since the compatibility and complementarities between tourist products influence tourists' choices and their pattern of movements. This is because tourists' movements are usually motivated by product attractiveness and this might be generated by connecting these attractions together, sometimes in a specific order, according to their spatial proximity and/or thematic relationships. Additionally, clusters of accommodation, retail outlets, and tourism-related businesses can emerge around tourist attractions influenced by their compatibility and complementarity linkages. However, compatibility and complementarity concepts can encompass different meanings based on the standpoint of the researcher. In this study it is purposely limited to the concepts, first, of attraction proximity; and, second, of their thematic similarities and dissimilarities. This is because it is believed that both concepts are related to the relationships that might evolve between tourism products and attractions, and they also can influence and can be influenced by government and private sector product development strategies. Thus, understanding these relationships that can emerge between tourists' products can be crucial to understanding how tourism products are diversified, and also whether the related

tourism development and marketing policies support the attractions' attractiveness and competitiveness.

One measure of the level of compatibility between tourist attractions is to count the number of attractions visited by the same tourists and by examining the resulting amount of sales at each attraction. However, the lack of documented statistical data in Libya (and usually elsewhere) regarding the number of tourists who combine visits between specific attractions, and for the volume of sales resulting from these mutual relationships, makes it difficult to recognise how strong the compatibility and complementarity linkages are between attractions in each of these case study areas. Primary data from the interviewees, however, regarding this phenomenon was a useful starting point to consider these inter-relationships. In addition, it was very useful to examine the travel packages offered by tour operators and the attractions they link together. This is because they were designed mainly for international tourists, and they tended to purchase fixed group packages since hiring a tour guide was mandatory and independent tours were seldom taken due to the high cost involved for the single tourist or family group of having to pay for a guide. Consequently, an analysis was made of tour packages developed by tour operators taking international tourists visiting Libya. The sample of 14 tour operators which were analysed is shown in Table 7.5, and this involved 115 different tour packages to Libya. These packages of products, together with interview data on linkages between attractions, shed much light on the nature of the relationships between the attractions, notably between attractions visited by the same tourist, on how and why these relationships evolve, and on the extent to which they support the flexibility, adaptability and product attractiveness. Further, this analysis indicated whether these linkages generated synergies or conflicts between the attractions. Understanding and developing these relationships can be crucial for the design and development of competitive products based on flexibility, diversity, and adaptability to achieve better economic viability.

The 115 tour packages were analysed based on two concepts: the distance between the attractions and the attraction themes that are combined in travel tours, and the results are shown in Table 7.6.

Table 7.6 reveals that cultural and natural attractions clearly dominate the fixed tour packages that attract general leisure and/or special interest tourists to visit Libya. However, visiting Tripoli and Alkhoms was influenced by many factors. Firstly, Tripoli's airport and

seaport played the role of entry gateway to the country for almost all fixed tours. Secondly, Tripoli geographically mediated the tourist linkage cluster in the Tripolitania region, the region where the most important cultural and natural attractions are found, such as Sabrata, Leptis Magna, Nafusa (Berber) mountains, and Ghadames. Thirdly, Tripoli's airport connects the Tripolitania cluster with the eastern region of Cyrenaica cluster and the desert and south mountains cluster in Fezzan. Fourth, visiting Tripoli and Leptis Magna could be much influenced by the broader compatibility and complementarities between destinations that are included in the whole package taken by an international tourist. For example, the Tripoli-Sabha and Tripoli-Benghazi routes are included in 51 and 48 tours respectively, although they are further than many places located in the same region of Tripolitania and present less apparent compatibility with Tripoli and Alkhoms.

Table 7-5: Sample of Fixed Packages offered by Leading Tour Operators in Libya, 2011

No	Tour Operator Company	Number of Travel Fixed Packages
1	Wesal Tours	6
2	Eye of Libya	9
3	Caravansarie Tours	9
4	Taknes	8
5	Azjar Tours	17
6	Libya Travel & Tours	4
7	C-Libya	12
8	Audley Travel	4
9	Arkno	9
10	Silk Road and Beyond	5
11	Raki Tours	5
12	Simoon Travel	8
13	ShatiZuara	4
14	Temehu Tours	15
Total tours		115

Source: Compiled by the author from tour operators' websites

Table 7.6 also shows that there were only 2 tour packages, provided by C-Libya and Arkno companies, which were designed for special interest tourists attracted by "Scuba Diving Sport". Moreover, 4 companies - Arkno, Eye of Libya, ShatiZuara and Temehu - offered trips for business tourists, while 5 companies - Arkno, C-Libya, Eye of Libya, ShatiZuara and Temehu - offered cultural trips for cruise ship visitors. This reflects the slow growth of these products in particular and of alternative tourism more generally compared to the dominant archaeology and nature based products.

Table 7-6: Distance and Thematic Analysis between Tourist Attractions

Tourist places combined	Distance between them (Km)	Attraction themes combined in holiday package	Number of tour packages offered by tour operators	
Tripolitan Region	Tripoli-Janzour (en-route attraction)	13	(heritage + archaeology + cultural + leisure) - (heritage + archaeology museum)	14
	Tripoli- Sabrata	70	(heritage+ archaeology + cultural + leisure) - (archaeology)	80
	Tripoli- Ghadames (Nafusa mountain cluster)	602	(heritage + archaeology + cultural + leisure) - (Berber heritage and local culture + natural landscape + heritage of Ghadames)	67
	Tripoli-Leptis Magna site	120	(heritage+ archaeology + cultural + leisure) - (Archaeology)	92
	Tripoli - Sport Tourism		(heritage+ archaeology + cultural + leisure) - (scuba diving)	2
	Tripoli - Cruise Tourism		(heritage+ archaeology + cultural + leisure) - (cruise tourism)	5
	Tripoli - Business Tourism		(heritage+ archaeology + cultural + leisure) (business and incentive tours)	4
	Leptis Magna -Villa Celine	15	(archaeology) - (archaeology)	23
	Leptis Magna - Sport tourism		(archaeology) - (scuba diving sport)	2
	Leptis Magna - Cruise Tourism		(archaeology) - (cruise tourism)	5
Tripoli-Benghazi (Cyrenaica cluster)	1,024	(heritage+ archaeology + cultural + leisure) - (heritage+ archaeology + cultural + natural landscape + leisure)	48	
Tripoli-Sebha (Fezzan cluster)	787	(heritage+ archaeology + cultural + leisure) - (heritage + archaeology + natural desert and lakes + adventure)	51	

Source: the author

The value of this analysis highlights the lack of documented data about each attraction's performance in the case study areas, such as the number of visitors and sales. This is typical in Libya and it draws attention to the poor management awareness and effectiveness for tourist attractions in the country. Jwaili, *et al.* (2005) found, for example, that the marketing objectives of Libyan tourism organisations are not monitored annually to determine what had been achieved in relation to addressing problems. This makes it difficult for these organisations to adopt improvement policies. There is limited adaptive management in place in the country's attractions in part due to the lack of information that is vital to make progress.

Diversification into quality products related to tourism in Alkhoms is essential to build up the compatibility and complementarity linkages between the concentrated mass and alternative tourism attractions in the city. The two primary attractions in Alkhoms city are

the alternative product of the Leptis Magna site and its adjacent mass beach resort product. These attractions showed very little of compatibility. Beach tourism is more capable than cultural tourism of building loyalty with customers, as beach tourism attracts many repeat visitors, while this is less frequently the case for visitors to heritage and archaeology attractions. In the case of Leptis Magna as an iconic attraction, some international tourists show loyalty to it, make repeat visits, and recommend others to visit it. Thus, connecting beach tourism as a supplementary product to Leptis Magna, the main product, could enhance loyalty and repeat visitation.

It is observed that in Leptis Magna site there were no entertainment facilities that might be required to motivate the local families who consume the nearby beach resort in the summer period. An interviewee stated that *"I think it needs some sort of transportation inside the site, and also some other services for families and young people and children. Establishing some cultural events and festivals at the site could be a good idea"* (Domestic tourist 7). The same problem is evident for the Leptis beach resorts where there are no water sports or indoor sports that might attract international tourists. The beach resorts were mainly designed to be visited by local families and tourists who have very strict Muslim dress codes, and this might not be suitable for most international tourists who might want to visit the beaches around a visit to the Leptis Magna site. Thus, diversification to attract international tourists who are not Muslim to beach tourism in Alkhoms and/or Tripoli could result in tensions and conflicts with residents due to the significant cultural differences between many international tourists and local Libyan residents. There are also differences in terms of the types of tourist accommodation and entertainment activities that are required. Thus, residents' needs and wishes should be incorporated and given precedence in diversification strategies so as to avoid such conflicts, and in order to enhance compatibility careful consideration needs to be given to narrowing such separation. Similarly, few beach tourists visited Leptis Magna. According a beach resort interviewee, *"Most of our customers are Libyan families from different areas, and during their stay very few families visit Leptis ruins to take pictures and having pleasure time inside the place"* (Private sector actor 13). As a result, the lack of quality superstructure and infrastructure rendered Leptis Magna and Alkhoms' resorts as separate attractions and weakened the chance to integrate them together in terms of spatial cluster.

On the other hand, diversification by connecting beach tourism with heritage and cultural tourism in Libya could intensify the competition which Libya faces with other North

Mediterranean coastal countries, which have long experience in this type of diversification, and they have both a head start and perhaps also more inherent advantages because of their greater cultural similarity with the major European market. The two unique features for Libya could be the very distinctive character of its beach tourism and the relatively unexploited yet quite dramatic character and authenticity of its cultural resources, and these could be strongly highlighted for differentiation.

Further, diversification into cultural tourism in Alkhoms might slow down the growth of beach tourism if it is based on giving priority to cultural tourism to the neglect of beach tourism. If domestic tourists and international tourists are encouraged to visit only for cultural tourism then it could lead to a shorter average length of stay. That would potentially lead to the beach tourist hotels having fewer long-stay holiday guests and might overall lead to reduced expenditure on beach tourism. Thus, diversification could lead to negative economic impacts for some tourism products. To avoid such a situation, vertical diversification of beach tourism alongside diversification into cultural tourism might be needed to ensure economic resilience. On the other hand, cultural tourism could be a key part of promoting conservation and sustainable development in Alkhoms. Therefore, diversification into water sports and indoor activities at the beach resorts and diversification into hallmark events, festival and families activities at the Leptis Magna site potentially might encourage greater compatibility and complementarity linkages between the two, leading to greater synergy to produce flexible offerings that meet wider range of tourists.

Compatibility and complementarity linkages can be central to successful diversification policies, notably by packaging the different primary attractions together, which can prolong the trip and augment the package attractiveness. For instance, Arkno and C-Libya tour operators offer diving adventure packages in the Alkhoms area at Ghaneema and Nagaze beaches, and the package includes excursions to the nearby archaeological sites of Villa Celine and Leptis Magna. Similarly, the adventure tourists who experience diving in areas close to Tripoli, such as at Tajoura and Janzour beaches, are offered excursions to various touristic urban and cultural places in Tripoli. An interviewee contended that

"to promote tourist enjoyment and to sell trip packages, the tour companies often match different products in one package, such as scuba diving with visits to Tripoli and Leptis and Sabrata, the desert with cultural places in Ghadames and Ghat and Akacus, and business with trips to museums and

archaeology sites. This is because those individual products are not strong enough to appeal to international tourists who are used to being more sophisticated in their selections" (Government official 5).

These deliberate linkages of compatibility and complementarity between dissimilar and adjacent attractions can mutually benefit both attractions, resulting in successful diversification.

A destination that enjoys greater tourism product diversification is itself more likely to experience higher levels of compatibility and complementarity between its attractions. In such cases tourists are less likely to visit an attraction without visiting another in the same place on the same trip (Hunt and Crompton, 2008; Weidenfeld *et al.*, 2010). For instance, Tripoli has more primary and supplementary tourism products located quite close to each other, which promotes accessibility and encourages them to be visited one after another in one journey. By contrast, Alkhoms depends very largely on two highly separated primary attractions, as no sufficient supplementary products to amalgam them together is found, thus this promotes very little compatibility and complementarity. A local tourist in Tripoli stated that *"Strolling around Tripoli centre with my family is fantastic. We visited most places in Old Medina and took some pictures, bought some gifts, then we had our lunch, and we are now in the museum of Saraya"* (Domestic tourist 2). A government respondent similarly stated that *"Most tourists enjoy Tripoli because they can visit tourist places, go shopping, walk round the city, and enjoy the traditional environment of teahouses and restaurants. But when they go to Alkhoms they can only visit Leptis Magna. Although it is more attractive, Tripoli attracts more people"* (Government official 3). This can mean that the destinations with less diversified attractions or those that rely on only a few concentrated attractions, or that lack supplementary products, may experience less compatibility.

The availability of accommodation and infrastructure related to tourism is crucial to prolong the tourists' length of stay at a destination and to support the compatibility and complementarity between its attractions. Tourists coming from Tripoli to visit the Leptis Magna site are mostly forced to return to hotels in Tripoli after their visit due to the lack of adequate accommodation in the nearest city of Alkhoms. Yet one day is not enough to visit both the Leptis Magna site and Villa Celine. As a consequence, the Villa is often excluded from visits as tourists lack sufficient time also to visit it and this resulting in low compatibility between the Leptis Magna site and the Villa. The negative impact of this

accommodation shortage in Alkhoms is seen in the very limited volume of overnight stays in Alkhoms' hotels, as presented in Table 7.7. It shows that Alkhoms received only 1.7% (or 18 overnights) of the 1,056 overnights offered in Libya by the sample of tour operators examined in this study. A hotel manager in Leptis Magna stated that *"The majority of tourists spend most of their time in seeing Leptis, and then leave to return to Tripoli in the late evening. Some of them visit Villa Celine, but that depends on leaving time. Few of them stay in Alkhoms or Zletin hotels for revisiting Leptis the next day, or for visiting the Villa as well"* (Private sector actor 8).

Table 7-7: Overnights and Day Visits in Tripoli and Alkhoms Offered by Tour Operators in Fixed Packages (F.P)

Overnight and day visits	Tour Operators (No. of Fixed Packages F.P														Total Frequency out of 115 F.Ps	
	Wesal Tours = F.P=6)	Eye Libya (F.P=9)	Caravanserai Tours (F.P=9)	Badran Tours (F.P=8)	Azjar Tours (F.P=17)	Libyan Travel (F.P=4)	C-Libya (F.P=12)	Auldley Travel (F.P=4)	Arkno (F.P=9)	Silk Road and Beyond (F.P=5)	Raki Tours (F.P=5)	Simoon Travel (F.P=8)	Shatizwara Tours (F.P=4)	Temehu Tours (F.P=15)	1056	%
Overnights offered by each tour operator in Libya	63	78	79	69	185	38	117	39	87	49	37	63	37	115	1056	
Overnights offered in Tripoli	28	29	26	21	47	13	41	21	24	21	17	28	14	40	370	35
Day visits to Tripoli	7	17	7	6	20	5	12	4	7	9	4	16	4	12	130	12.3
Day visits in Leptis Magna (Alkhoms)	4	4	6	6	13	4	9	4	6	5	4	8	4	8	85	8
Total overnights offered in Leptis Magna (Alkhoms)	2	0	3	2	1	0	1	0	3	0	1	0	0	5	18	1.7

Source: Compiled by the author from tour operators' websites

By contrast, the availability of accommodation in Tripoli has benefited the city so that it attracts 35% of overall overnights, based on the tour operator survey. Staying in Tripoli helps tourists to visit more places in it, and it encourages repeat visits to some places as well as improving the compatibility levels.

Packaging mass and alternative tourist products together can be of enormous assistance to less visited attractions and also to enhance the overall attractiveness of a trip. For example, cruise tourism as a mass product is complemented by offering visits to alternative cultural and historical attractions in both case study areas. Cruise leisure tourists who come in large groups to Tripoli's passenger port, which is 0.5 mile away from the city centre, are taken on excursions to different cultural and heritage attractions in the city centre, such as Saraya museum, the traditional markets and the string of mosques and historical buildings in Old Medina. A tour operator in Tripoli commented that *"cruise tourists are taken to visit museums, to Old Medina and to go shopping in Tripoli, and they also are taken to farther places to Sabrata and Leptis Magna for day trips"* (Private sector actor 15). Sometimes cruise tourists are taken by coach to visit far places, which are further away, such as Leptis Magna or Sabrata. *"Our ship, M/V Discovery, docked at Alkhoms, and we made a brief trip by bus to see the archaeological site Leptis Magna.....There is a lot to give a sense of what it would have been like for the inhabitants who lived there"* (Maine Explorer, 2011). Thus, cruise tourism is complemented by adding learning value from alternative attractions.

The conglomeration of attractions and businesses helps in building and strengthening the compatibility and complementarity between tourist products in place. The Green Square (currently named Martyr Square) in Tripoli centre has many of tourism-related businesses and a variety of important primary tourist products which a tourist can walk between easily, creating a compact tourist district. A website reviewer explained how: *"The Square is surrounded with some other (Tripoli's) main attractions like Tripoli Castle, Tripoli Medina or sea side. Palm trees around square and a fountain add an exotic taste to a pleasurable city centre"* (omek18pl, 2007). This situation also sheds light on the positive role that supplementary products can play to support the complementarity between attractions in Tripoli. Thus the availability of, and accessibility to, pleasurable products, such as green spaces and waterfronts etc., can lead to tourist enjoyment, through encouraging them to take an enjoyable walk, visit more attractions in the place, and benefit from the reduced travel time and expenses. Another interviewee stated that *"Tourists visiting Tripoli for short trips or long trips can walk in the city and visit the Old Medina, the Souq, Marcus Aurilius Arch, Saraya Museum, Green Square, and have their lunch in restaurants in the same area, and they could spend some time at swimming or shopping"* (Government official 5).

Poor infrastructure at geographically dispersed small attractions can negatively influence the ability to build compatibility and complementarity linkages with other primary attractions. Villa Celine, which is a small archaeological attraction, is occasionally visited as an "en-route attraction" by international tourists, who spend most of their time in the Leptis Magna site. Richards (1992) argues that "A small attraction in a place with a strong image as a destination will not attract visitors in its own right but will benefit from the ready-made flow of visitors" (in Law, 2002: 73). In the analysis of Libyan tours, however, the Villa Celine has a low level of compatibility with Leptis Magna, where it is included in only 23 tours out of 92 from Tripoli and Leptis Magna packages, as shown in Table 7.6. An interviewee described this attraction: *"Villa Celine is a small ancient ruin far from Leptis Magna, and it is located just beside the sea beach and it includes fabulous mosaics. You can stroll around it within half an hour, and then there is nothing else to do"* (Public sector actor 4). The researcher observed on a trip to Villa Celine that, while it is supplied with the basic infrastructure of water and electricity and it is connected by a well paved road that reaches the site from the main road, it has no leisure facilities close to or en-route to the site, and the surrounding area is still desolate, as shown in Figure 7.13.

Figure 7-13: Villa Celine Surrounded by Desolate Area and Mass Local Beach Resorts, 2010



Source: <http://travellingtonito.files.wordpress.com/2010/02/025.jpg>

Moreover, despite its locational advantages of being just next to the local seasonal resort, there is no tourist compatibility made between the resort and the Villa. Another problem is that visiting the Villa needs tickets which are purchased from the sales office in Leptis Magna site, 15 kms away. A reviewer stated that, *"For many years access was extremely restricted and even today, although the villa is now open to visitors, getting there is not easy. If you plan to make a private visit, your tickets, and a guide, must be collected from*

the ticket office in Leptis Magna (and the guide returned there after your visit)" (TheWanderingCamel, 2005). The inability to link the cultural attractions of Villa Celine with the natural attractions of the nearby undeveloped beaches, and between the Leptis Magna site and the area's beach resorts reveals a major planning issue and an issue affected by the poor local infrastructure. However, there are plans to develop a 5-star hotel and golf courses on a total area of 148 hectares near to the Villa Celine site, and this is a significant opportunity to develop strong compatibility linkages not only between the beach resorts and Villa Celine but also with the Leptis Magna site. Such strong linkages can only be built up through diversification. Diversification can achieve higher economic value, and diversification into greener tourism products (including heritage and cultural products that reflect the distinctive local history and culture) can also be seen as a part of solving the environmental problems and loss of cultural diversity caused by conventional mass tourism at local, national, and global levels.

Similar problems existed for Janzour catacomb museum, which is a small attraction that is occasionally included as an "en-route attraction" on the way back to Tripoli after visiting the archaeology site of Sabrata. The museum is included in only 14 tours out of 80 on the Tripoli - Sabrata route, indicating a low compatibility with the Tripoli attractions. Thus, the Janzour catacomb museum and Villa Celine are complementary attractions, since they are small and visited just because of their locations as en-route attractions rather than due to their own attractiveness.

Primary and supplementary tourist products can be mutually supported through developing complementarity linkages stemming from their proximity, thus creating a collective competitive advantage (Lue, Crompton and Stewart, 1996). For instance, in Tripoli the primary tourist attractions might include Old Medina and Saraya museum, while other tourist activities such as shopping, sightseeing and walking round the city might have less importance. The presence of these products in the same place, however, generates mutual relationships, allowing tourists to enjoy the place as a whole rather than as separate products. For example, the Marcus Arulus Arch is small Roman Arch that can be visited very quickly, but one reviewer suggested that having dinner in the restaurant next to it can add to the experience of feeling history: *"It is one of the beautiful spots in downtown Tripoli. After the sun sets, it is well lighted up, offering a different look. Nothing to spend too much time at, but still it is amazingly well preserved to date. You can have a local tea (or food) at a teahouse nearby, watching this beauty"* (Arimaya, 2007).

Another example is the heritage attraction of the Zumit hotel, which is located near Tripoli harbour and opposite the Marcus Aurelius Arch. The hotel was built during the Ottoman period and it is used as a small hotel and also as a cultural attraction by organising folklore music parties and by supplying food in an authentic environment, as shown in Figures 7.14 and 7.15. The hotel attracts local and international tourists who dine out, benefiting from its location close to the Old Medina and other attractions. A website reviewer commented that they "*Loved the hotel and great location. Traditional style hotel beautifully renovated. Directly opposite the Marcus Aurelius Arch. Convenient to walk to the old city and the harbour*" (Pablo1000, 2007).

Figure 7-14: The Traditional Environment in Zumit Hotel Restaurant



Source: <http://www.zumithotel.com/en/gallery.html>

Figure 7-15: Folklore Music Party in Zumit Hotel



Source: <http://www.zumithotel.com/en/gallery.html>

The quality of attractions is a key factor in sustaining mutual compatibility and complementarity linkages between them. The attractions that promote high quality often

have higher levels of compatibility since tourists are becoming more sophisticated and demand higher quality attractions in a destination and value for their money (Buhalis, 1998). The Leptis Magna site is a high quality archaeology site that benefits from high compatibility with the attractions in Tripoli, such as Old Medina and Saraya museum. Thus, Tripoli - Leptis Magna and Tripoli- Sabrata account for 92 and 80 tours respectively out of the 115 tours in Table 7.6. Both Leptis Magna and Sabrata are powerful "flagship destinations". They are "must see" attractions that are often included in most tours to Tripoli, despite being located far from the city (120 km and 70 km respectively). A manager of Arkno tour operator stated that *"we always include the main three places in the region, which are Leptis Magna, Tripoli, and Sabarata in all our tourist packages, but we do not put them in the same day because of their spacing, and then we add other places such as Gadames, Cyrenaica, Ghat and Ackacus and so on"* (Private sector actor 14). Thus, Leptis Magna as a high quality iconic attraction is visited by the same tourists who visit the Old Medina, Saraya museum, and Red Castle in Tripoli, showing a high level of compatibility. A web reviewer stated that *"If you should drop down Tripoli for just a day this is the place to go.....if you are in oil or something and will be in Tripoli on business and got just a day to spare go to Leptis Magna"* (tj1777, 2007). An interviewee from the tourism authority in Alkhoms explained how *"Leptis Magna is usually packaged with visits to Tripoli, Sabrata, the desert and Cyrene, and many Berber places. Leptis cannot be ignored, and most international tourists in Libya visit it for at least four hours"* (Government official 10). This sheds further light on the crucial role of the quality of the flagship attractions in enhancing the linkages of compatibility and complementarity between tourist attractions.

7.3.2 Spatial Proximity

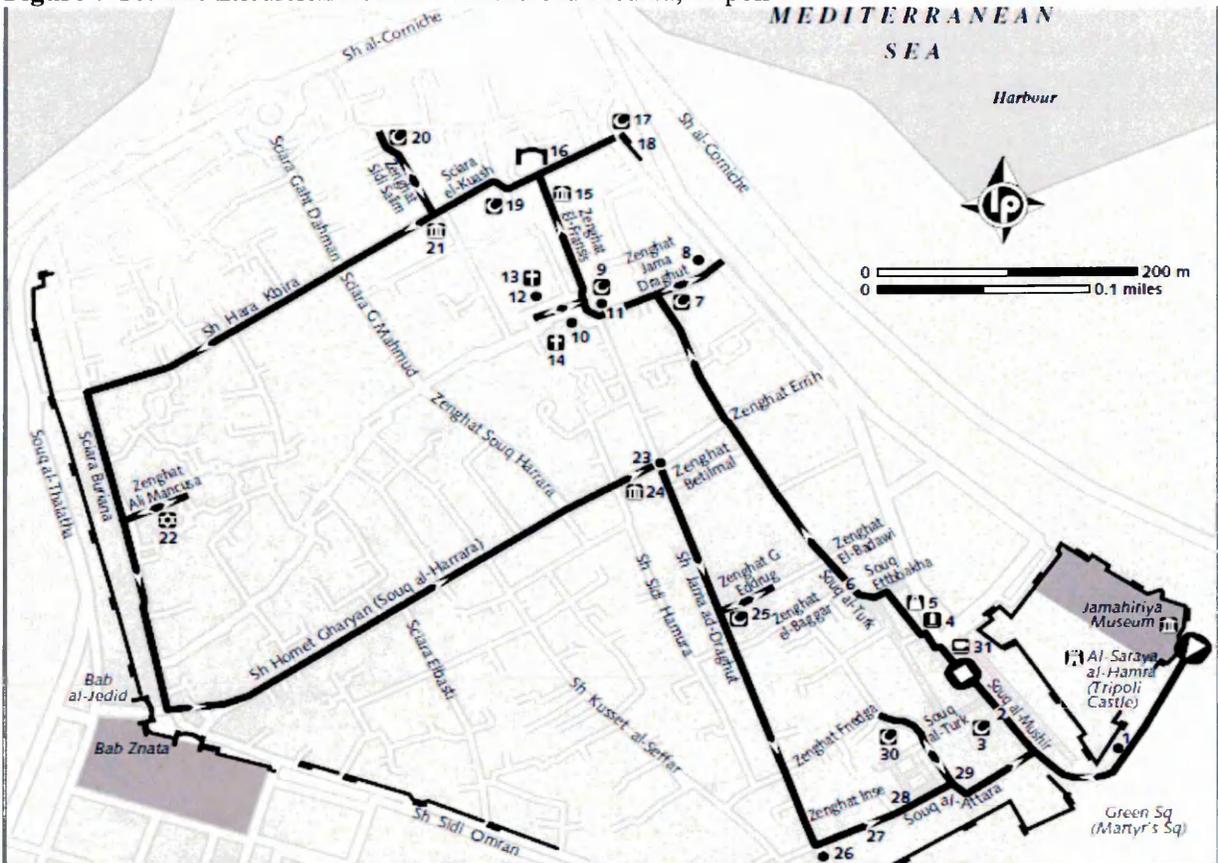
Physical proximity can be an important factor in strengthening the compatibility and complementarity between tourist attractions since tourist movement from one place to another consumes money, effort and time. However, people will often visit an area with multiple attractions in order to reduce the risk of dissatisfaction (Hunt and Crompton, 2008). This might mean the attractions that are spatially clustered in a small area can promote a higher level of compatibility than those that are spread over a large area. To understand the link between geographical proximity and packaging, a governmental interviewee stated that *"attractions are combined in tourist packages because of their geographical nearness"* (Government official 1). This was also stated by a tour operator:

"The itineraries of the trips usually dictate the way of ordering these places, and to avoid the frustration of long journeys, adjacent places are visited first" (Private sector actor 14). Most of the primary attractions in Tripoli are geographically clustered in and around the city centre where the distances between them are relatively short and they can be visited by walking or hiring local taxis. *"In Tripoli....as an historical city, most of its attractions are found in or close to the city centre, so that tourists enjoy walking the short distances between them, This is not found in Alkhoms and many other places in Libya"* (Private sector actor 14).

The Old Medina in Tripoli, for instance, encompasses a mix of tourist attractions, such as archaeology, heritage, and cultural places such as Hammames, traditional shopping markets, handicraft makers, local style restaurants and teahouses. All these products are spatially clustered within the Old Medina's walls, where tourists can leisurely explore them one after another by walking for perhaps 2-3 hours. The travel guide Lonely Planet proposed a specific excursion route for the Old Medina, as shown in Figure 7.16, in which the attractions are clustered in a physically small area that connects the most powerful attractions, such as the Saray museum, Red Castle, Marcus Aurleus Arch, Karammanli House, Ottman Clock Tour, Souqs, Mosques, Old consulates, churches, the Hammamas, and restaurants and teahouses.

While tourists might not visit all the adjacent attractions on the Lonely Planet route, the compatibility and complementarity between these attractions is likely to be high based on their spatial proximity. A tour operator in Tripoli stated that *"the most visited place in Tripoli is the Old Medina because it includes within its walls a mix of things worth seeing and doing"* (Private sector actor 15). Furthermore, the Old Medina cluster is also located next to other adjacent attractions, such as Green Square (Martyr Square), the local street shops, Tripoli museum, the fish market, the sea front area, Tripoli Exhibition, the Zoo, and the municipal beaches, although some of these are less visited by tourists. A tour operator explained how *"Old Medina, which is inside the wall, includes several cultural and heritage attractions... and it is facing the sea and the Green Square. Tourists can buy souvenirs and have local food and tea at restaurants and cafés. They can walk round the Italian style buildings and walk to the seaside and go back to their nearby hotels without paying any money for transportation"* (Private sector actor 16).

Figure 7-16: The Excursion Route inside the Old Medina, Tripoli



Source: http://www.lonelvplanet.com/shop_pickandmix/previews/libya-tripoli-preview.pdf

The proximity between tourist supplementary and primary tourist products in Tripoli thus helps them together to enhance their linkages of complementarity and compatibility and to enhance the collective attractiveness of the destination. The proximity of accommodation and attractions also encourages the tourists to stay for a longer time exploring the attractions and they might revisit for further explorations. In a tourist review of his experience at Corinthia hotel, which is located next to Old Medina, he stated that *"One of the arches into the Medina is across the road, so it is an ideal location for exploring the old town"* (travelmad9, 2010). A tourist who was interviewed recalled that *"We stayed in Zumit hotel in Tripoli for two nights. Old Medina and the Saraya museum are a few metres away, making its location great"* (International tourist 3).

In contrast, a large physical distance between primary attractions can reduce the level of compatibility and complementarity between them. At a national level Table 7.6 shows that Ghadames and Tripoli are connected together by only 67 tours out of the total of 115. This low number of tours connecting Ghadames and Tripoli, compared to the connections between Tripoli and the Leptis Magna site and Sabrata, is probably due to the long distance

of 602 km that tourists need to travel by car from Tripoli to Ghadames. Yet there are fair levels of compatibility and complementarity between Ghadames and Tripoli, in part encouraged by there being several primary heritage and cultural attractions on the way to Ghadames that are usually visited. Those are in Gheryan, Yefran, Gasr Elhaj, Nalut etc. These primary attractions play the role of "en-route attractions" that encourage tour operators to develop several tours connecting Tripoli and Ghadames.

There are also only 51 tours out of 115 to Sebha in the Fezzan region, where tourists can explore the desert, lakes and the world heritage site of Akacus. This lower number is probably also affected by its remote location, with tourists often needing to travel 787 km by air from Tripoli to Sebha first, and then they take the excursion into the desert. Similarly, with Benghazi, the entry gateway into the Cyrenaica region, which was connected with Tripoli in only 49 tours out of 115 due to the long distance separating them, with the 1,024 km usually travelled by air. By contrast, the physical proximity of Leptis Magna and Sabrata helped to connect them with Tripoli in 92 and 80 tours respectively. Thus, spacing between tourists attractions can reduce the compatibility, since travelling between them can involve expenditure and travelling time.

However, there are other factors potentially affecting the compatibility and complementarity linkages between attractions, such as the powerful image of an attraction, the infrastructure, seasonality and the thematic similarity and dissimilarity between attractions. These issues are explored next.

7.3.3 Thematic Similarity and Dissimilarity

Thematic linkages between tourist products can be expressed in terms of similarities and dissimilarities. The themes for tourism products are often diverse and often are not clearly separated because tourists usually consume more than one theme during the trip. Similarity and dissimilarity of tourism products can affect the way the products are connected together, thus affecting the level of their compatibility and complementarity. Complementary products are usually dissimilar, while similarity can offer alternatives for tourists (Hunt and Crompton, 2008) to avoid dissatisfaction or can increase the conflict due to business interests' interference. However, the same tourists during their visits to a specific destination that encompasses several attractions might visit similar and/or

dissimilar types of tourist products that are packaged together based on how their thematic features are managed.

Table 7.6 presents the fixed tour packages offered by the sample of tour operators that connect Tripoli and Leptis Magna according to the mix of heritage, archaeology, cultural and leisure products. These packages were usually developed by tour operators to attract different types of tourists according to their particular interests. As one of the tour operators interviewed stated: *"Our tourists are leisure, archaeology and historical places seekers and adventurers"* (Private sector actor 15). The head of the tourism authority in Leptis Magna contended that *"Leptis Magna is visited by tourists who differ in their interests. Most international tourists come in tour groups and a few as individuals, but the majority of them can be seen as more specialist tourists because they are more interested in culture and archaeology, and they show high respect to the local culture and the site's environment"* (Government official 10). However, general tourists might consider Tripoli's heritage attractions similar to the Leptis Magna archaeology site, while special interest tourists can see them as quite dissimilar. This perception might be linked to the fact that a significant part of Saraya museum includes sculptures and antiques from Leptis Magna. Thus, it might be true that there is some similarity between the two destinations. Tripoli and Leptis Magna site are connected together within 92 tours out of 115 tours of the sample shown in Table 7.6. For those tourists considering both destinations to be similar, Leptis Magna can be seen as an alternative product substituting for the lack of diversity in Tripoli, while tourists who are interested in archaeology attractions might consider Tripoli's attractions as dissimilar and complementary products.

One distinctive product in Table 7.6 is scuba diving. The table shows that scuba diving as sport tourism is marketed by only two tour agencies, Arkno and C-Libya, and it is connected in the tours with cultural products in Tripoli and Alkhoms. Scuba diving might be a difficult product to market alone because of the low quality and other deficiencies of infrastructure, and this may well account for there being only 2 tour packages. Thus, the tour operators tend to add to it the most powerful tourism products to enhance the scuba diving's attractiveness and to increase tourist expenditure. An interviewee stated that *"Diving in Libya needs proper infrastructure and skilful people and regulation. There is big gap in these things so tourists who are interested in diving are taken to visit coastal places such as Leptis Magna and Villa Celine during the trip. This helps to make tourists enjoy the diving and spend more at cultural places"* (Government official 10). The

dissimilarity between scuba diving as a primary product and the cultural products means the cultural attractions are seen as complementary products. However, the poor infrastructure related to scuba diving might discourage other tour agencies from developing more scuba diving tours.

Diversification via mixing different or similar themes is essential to developing tour packages. Reviewing the tourist packages that are promoted by the tour operators in Table 7.8 reveals that tour packages contain a mix of cultural and natural tourist products. The labels used for many tour packages clearly indicate thematic linkages of compatibility and complementarity that are used to connect either similar or dissimilar products. Each tour is often labelled in a way that reflects the linkages between tourist product themes.

Table 7.8 also shows that the length of the trip depends on the scale of diversification into more product themes. Thus, stronger linkages of compatibilities and complementarities between tourist attractions can be created in places that offer more attractions. This could encourage tourists to stay for a longer time and spend more money, and that can lead to an improved economic performance. An interviewed tour operator stated that *"We usually create our fixed tours based on the length of stay and what there is to be seen by tourists, and to avoid repetition more products are added to the longer packages. Most of the ready attractions are cultural and natural, and those are combined to be visited according to their proximity and types"* (Private sector actor 16).

Diversification by developing more themed linkages is important to prolong the length of stay and consequently to increase tourist expenditure. Packages that include more tourist products logically need a longer length of stay and cost more than the shorter break holidays. For example, a small sample of the costs of relevant tour packages developed by Audley Travel Company and Simoon Travel Company are shown in Table 7.9. Both operators are based in UK and their prices include full board for private arrangements using economy class flights based on two people travelling together and sharing a room. Only a few tour operators reveal their packages prices online, however, while most keep these prices for contacts and negotiation.

Table 7-8: Sample of Tour Packages that are labelled based on Thematic Linkages, 2010

Tour Operator	Labels of Tours	Tour Days	Tour Itineraries in which Attractions Are Connected Together	Packaged Themes in Each Tour
Azjar	Archaeological Tours	4	Tripoli, Leptis Magna and Villa Celine, Tripoli, Sabrata, Tripoli	Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Roman Archaeology
	Ancient Cities of Tripolitania and of Cyrenaica	9	Tripoli, Sabrata, Tripoli, Cyrenaica Cities, Tripoli, Leptis Magna and Villa Celine, Tripoli	Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Roman Archaeology, Greek Archaeology, Natural Green Mountain
	World War II Cemeteries in Tobruk, Tripoli and Benghazi	12	Tripoli, Sabrata, Tripoli, Leptis Magna, Sirt, Sultan, Cyrenaica, Tobruk WWII Cemeteries, Cyrenaica, Tripoli	Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Roman Archaeology, Greek Archaeology, Natural Green Mountain, Dark Tourism
	Oases of Libya, Tripolitania and of Cyrenaica	15	Tripoli, Sabrata, Nafusa Cities and Mountains, Ghadames, Girza, Sirt, Sultan, Cyrenaica, Tripoli, Leptis Magna and Villa Celine, Tripoli	Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Roman Archaeology, Berber Cultural and Mountains, Ghadames Heritage, Greek Archaeology, Natural Green Mountain
Takness	Tripoli Experience	5	Tripoli, Sabrata, Tripoli, Leptis Magna and Villa Celine, Tripoli	Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Roman Archaeology
	Libya Classic	8	Tripoli, Sabrata, Tripoli, Benghazi, Ptolmias, Cyrene, Apollonia, Cyrene, Apollonia, Lathrun and Ras Hilal, Benghazi, Tripoli, Leptis Magna and Villa Celine, Tripoli	Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Roman Archaeology, Greek Archaeology, Natural Green Mountains, Roman Archaeology
	Libya Classic with an Extension to Ghadames	11	Tripoli, Sabrata, Tripoli, Benghazi, Ptolmais, Cyrene, Apollonia, Cyrene, Apollonia, Lathrun and Ras Hilal, Benghazi, Tripoli, Leptis Magna, Tripoli, Qasr Al-haj, Nalut, Ghadames, Kabaow, Ghayan, Tripoli	Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Roman Archaeology, Greek Archaeology, Natural Green Mountain, Roman Archaeology, Berber Cultural Heritage, Ghadames Heritage and Mountains, Handicrafts and Heritage Products in Gharyan
C-Libya	Unique Tour	4	Tripoli-Sabrata-Tripoli-Leptis Magna-Tripoli	Mixed attractions in Tripoli, Roman Archaeology
	Classical Cities of Libya	14	Tripoli-Janjour-Sabrata-Qasr Al-haj-Nalut-Ghadames-Termisa-Gharyan-Leptis Magna-Zliten-Leptis Magna and Villa Celine-Tripoli- Benghazi-Tocra-Ptolmais-Cyrene-Apollonia-Ras Al-hilal-Al-atrun-Slontah-Qasr Libya-Benghazi-Tripoli	Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Roman Archaeology, Berber Cultural and Heritage Attractions and Nafusa Mountains, Ghadames Heritage, Greek Archaeology
	Diving and Cultural Expedition Tour	6	Tripoli beach-Surman Beach-Sabrata Ruins-Tajoura Beach-Ganeema beach-Leptis Magna Ruins-Tripoli Trek	Diving Sport Adventure, Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Roman Archaeology
Arkno	Portrait of Tripolitania	8	Tripoli-Janjour-Sabrata-Qasr Al-haj-Nalut-Ghadames-Termisa-Gharyan-Leptis Magna- Tripoli	Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Roman Ruins, Berber Culture and Heritage and Mountains, Handicrafts of Gharyan
	Desert and Romans	18	Tripoli-Qasr Al-haj-Nalut-Ghadames-Ghat-Akacus Mountains-WadiMathandoush-Murzuk Sand Sea-Germa ancient city-Desert Lakes in Ubari-Sebha-Leptis Magna-Sabrata-Tripoli	Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Berber Culture and Mountains, Ghadames Heritage City, Natural Desert, Ghat Culture and Mountains, Roman Ruins
	Diving/Cultural Tour	8	Tripoli Beach Village-Janjour-Zwara-Tajoura Beach-Tripoli Trek-Garaboli Beach-Ganema Beach-Leptis Magna and Villa Celine Visit	Scuba Diving Adventure, Mixed Attractions in Tripoli, Roman Archaeology

Source: Compiled by the author from tour operators' websites

Table 7.9 shows the tour packages that are diversified into more products, such as the tours of "Classic Libya" and "Grand Tour of Libya" developed by Audley Travel Company and "Highlights of Libya Tour" developed by Simoon Travel Company, take up more days and they cost relatively more. Since the same tourists are likely to visit all products included in the tour package then the included products might promote a certain level of compatibility and complementarity linkages.

Table 7-9: Sample of Tour Packages in Libya against Prices and Length of Stay, 2010

Tour Operator	Label of Tour	Number of Days	Tour Itinerary	Packaged Attractions in the Tour Package	Price
Audley Travel	Short break in Tripoli	6	Tripoli, Leptis Magna, Villa Celine, Tripoli, Sabrata, Janzour catacomb and museum, Tripoli, Berber villages and mountains	Mixed attractions in Tripoli, Roman archaeology, Berber culture and landscape	From £1,315
	Tripoli and Ghadames	8	Tripoli, Sabrata, Janzour catacomb and museum, Tripoli, QasrAlhaj, Nalut, Ghadames, Kabaow, Tormisa, Gharyan, Tripoli, Leptis Magna, Villa Celine, Tripoli	Mixed attractions in Tripoli, Roman archaeology, Berber culture and landscape, Ghadames heritage and handicrafts	From £1,790
	Classic Libya	12	Tripoli, Leptis Magna, Villa Celine, Tripoli, Sabrata, Janzour catacomb and museum, Tripoli, Benghazi, Ptolmais, Apolonia, Cyrene, Al-Bayda, Eas-Hilal, Al-Bayda, Benghazi, Tripoli, QasrAlhaj, Nalut, Ghadames, Kabaow, Tormisa, Gharyan, Tripoli	Mixed attractions in Tripoli, Roman archaeology, Greek archaeology, Green mountains landscape, Berber culture and landscape, Ghadames heritage and handicrafts	From £2,855
	Grand tour of Libya	17	Tripoli, Leptis Magna, Villa Celine, Tripoli, Sabrata, Janzour catacomb and museum, Tripoli, Benghazi, Ptolmais, Apolonia, Cyrene, Al-Bayda, Eas-Hilal, Al-Bayda, Benghazi, Tripoli, Qasr Alhaj, Nalut, Ghadames, Kabaow, Tormisa, Gharyan, Tripoli, Sebha, Al-Awainat desert lakes, Akacus mountains and culture, WadiTashwinat and desert landscape, Sebha, Tripoli	Mixed attractions in Tripoli, Roman archaeology, Greek archaeology, Green mountains landscape, Berber culture and landscape, Ghadames Heritage and handicrafts, desert landscape and Akacus land marks and heritage	From £5,075
Simoon Travel	Long weekend in Libya tour	4	Tripoli, Sabrata, Janzourcatacomb and museum, Tripoli, Leptis Magna, Villa Celine, Tripoli	Mixed attractions in Tripoli, Roman archaeology	From £1,105
	Taste of Libya tour	8	Tripoli, Sabrata, Tripoli, QasrAlhaj, Nalut, Ghadames, Kabaow, Tormisa, Gharyan, Leptis Magna, Villa Celine, Tripoli	Mixed attractions in Tripoli, Roman archaeology, Berber culture and landscape	From £1,465
	Classical Libya tour	8	Tripoli, Sabrata, Tripoli, Leptis Magna, Tripoli, Benghazi, Cyrene, Ptolmias, Qasr Libya, Apolonia, Ras-Hilal, Benghazi, Tripoli	Mixed attractions in Tripoli, Roman archaeology, Greek archaeology	From £1,565
	Land of Tauareq tour	10	Tripoli, Sebha, Germa, Ghat, Akacus, Awiss, Al-Awainat desert lakes, Ubari sand sea, Umm alma desert lakes, Sebha, Tripoli, Leptis Magna, Tripoli	Mixed attractions in Tripoli, desert landscape and Akacus mountains and culture, desert lakes, Roman archaeology	From £1,795
	Highlights of Libya tour	12	Tripoli, Sabrata, QasrAlhaj, Nalut, Ghadames, Tripoli, Benghazi, Ptlomias, Qasr Libya, Green Mountain, Cyrene, Apolonia, Benghazi, Tripoli, Leptis Magna, Villa Celine, Tripoli	Mixed attractions in Tripoli, Roman archaeology, Greek archaeology, Green Mountain landscape	From £2,075

Source: Compiled by the author from tour operators' websites

Similarity and dissimilarity themes are crucial variables in mixing tourist products to meet and satisfy visitors' needs. Most tourist products in Tripoli and Alkhoms that are available for international tourists are a mix of archaeology, heritage, and culture that are considered as relatively passive and unsophisticated products. Thus, these products are mostly dominated by passive consumption where tourists can only see these products without doing any creative activities (Richards and Wilson, 2006). These products to some extent are similar, and tourists might find Leptis Magna site as an alternative product to substitute them if they are not satisfied by Tripoli's attractions. A tour operator argued that *"Visiting Tripoli might take two days because there isn't much in Tripoli for a longer time. So Leptis Magna or Sabrata or both are usually added to Tripoli. Both sites can astonish tourists and add to their holiday experience"* (Private sector actor 14). Furthermore, dissimilar themes such as cruise tourism and cultural products, or business tourism and cultural and archaeology attractions, are connected together to mutually complement each other in order to enhance tourist satisfaction and to overcome any shortages in the primary products. Thus Taknes tour operator contended that *"when we receive the plan from business tourists to attend a conference or exhibition, we immediately suggest and encourage them to try short visits to some important places in Tripoli, Leptis Magna and Sabrata during break times"* (Private sector actor 20). Thus diversification through thematic linkages between tourist products in Tripoli and Leptis Magna site might promote a high level of compatibility and complementarity, while the lack of enough products in Tripoli and Leptis Magna encourages tour operators to link them with other products despite the distance.

The lack of infrastructure and facilities that is required to diversify Libya's beach tourism into water games and indoor water sports hinders the possibility to build thematic linkages between beach tourism and other products. Beach resorts are mainly consumed by domestic tourists in the summer season. Tour operators do not promote beach tourism as a primary product for international tourists due to the lack of quality infrastructure and services at these attractions. A local resort manager stated that *"swimming and relaxing in the sun are the major activities visitors can do, but also youths can organise beach volleyball and football games....water sports are rare because we lack facilities"* (Private sector actor 9). An interviewee from a tourism planning department argued that *"beach tourism cannot be marketed for foreign tourists at the moment because there is a shortage of good resorts that can compete with our neighbours"* (Government official 4). Such lack

of quality infrastructure clearly weakens the compatibility and complementarity between cultural products and beach tourism.

Diversification to attract international tourists to beach tourism in Alkhoms or Tripoli could result in tensions and conflicts with residents due to the significant cultural differences between many international tourists and local Libyan residents. This is especially the case in relation to Western international tourists who are not Muslim. There are substantial cultural differences in terms of what are seen as appropriate activities and patterns of dress and behaviour, especially in beach areas. There are also differences in terms of the types of tourist accommodation and entertainment activities that are required. Thus, residents' needs and wishes should be incorporated and given precedence in diversification strategies to avoid such conflicts.

7.3.4 Competition and Collaboration between Attractions

Tourism is a major income source for many countries, hence competition and collaboration between and within tourist products are crucial to ensure improvements and progress. Developing collaboration between businesses has become an essential approach for survival in an intensively competitive marketplace. Fyall and Garrod (2005) argue that the tourism industry tends to collaborate due to its multi-sectoral and interdependent nature. Bramwell and Lane (2002: 333) contend that "Collaboration can allow stakeholders to develop a common approach to tourism policy-making and planning". The problem is that integrated planning usually cannot be forced, but has to come up from self interest in relation to awareness about the commercial advantages of cooperation (Gunn, 1989). The relationships between tourist attractions, in terms of collaboration, coordination, cooperation and competition, will be examined here in relation to diversification concepts. This is in order to understand whether the destinations that have more diversified attractions promote synergy linkages between the attractions based on compatibility and complementarities concepts.

The unstable administrative system in Libya has diminished the efforts of collaboration between the sectors. Timothy (1998: 54) argues that "Cooperation between government agencies is essential if tourism is to develop and operate smoothly". However, in Libya, the stepping down of the Tourism Ministry to become the General Board of the Tourism Authority (GBT) has shrunk the powers of the new body and diminished its ability to

coordinate the efforts that require investments with other sectors. In an interview in the "Jamahyria" newspaper (2009, No. 6354), the General Director of GBT stated that the *"Tourism sector cannot work properly with their organisation's very limited authority and budget. The law No 7 gives all the required powers for the tourism sector, but all these were thwarted by decisions. Now most of the tourism responsibilities are fragmented between many other sectors, of which tourism is not the priority task of their mission. Meanwhile, we have established a special department for tourism development which could not do anything because of this problem"*.

This clearly highlights the problems created by Libya's unstable administration system, and the fragmentation of various sectors, that render coordination and cooperation very difficult. An integrated planning process for the tourism sector in line with other sector plans in Libya is a difficult task due to this fragmentation of effort.

Skilled and qualified employees in the tourism sector are essential to identify areas for collaboration and for supporting actions. Skilled employees are required to regularly scan the impacts of tourism and gather intelligence about tourism markets, so that they can take appropriate decisions and adopt the best policies regarding collaboration. Such adaptation in policies is needed to sustain product development and market penetration. Issues about the lack of skilled people were raised by the head of Planning and Training Department in General Tourism Board (GTB), who argued that *"We have shortages in trained and skilled people in the tourism sector, accompanied with poor infrastructure"* (Government official 4). It is unlikely that less skilled workers will have the know-how to spot the areas of low performance and generate ideas for solving problems and collaboration. A tour operator commented about the poor skills at management level in the GTB itself: *"The management failed. First, the majority of employees in GTB do not speak any foreign language, yet they have continued leading their departments for ages. Most of them came from other sectors and have no experience or even knowledge in tourism"* (Private sector actor 16). This sheds light on the need for training and for "learning employees" to be more responsive to the changes, and for them to seek collaborative opportunities.

Collaboration and partnership between the public and private sectors is necessary to achieve tourism goals and priorities, especially in relation to the wider needs of businesses and the community. Relations between the private and public sector in Libya, however, are still weak, and tourism planning and operations are still dominated by the public sector.

The head of GTB's Planning and Training Department stated that *"The private sector is supposed to play a major role in tourism development, while the public sector should be responsible for developing major infrastructure, consultancy and control. But at the moment the private sector is still weak, and the government is still in control of the tourism sector"* (Government official 4).

At the moment some tourism-related projects are purely invested in by private sector local companies, although some are joint venture projects with local or international private investors, such as for some major hotels in Tripoli. Libya's private sector, however, is financially weak. According to the General Director of GTB, "the private sector needs financial support to build infrastructure and a strong investment platform" (Oxford Business Group: Libya 2010: 238). To support the private sector in the tourism industry the government had established a Tourism Development Bank (TDB) in 2003 in which 80% of shares were held by the private sector (Panapress, 2003). According to the TDB's management committee chairperson, Mr Mouftah Chaibi, the TDB would finance the construction of businesses related to tourism under a profit-sharing scheme (Panapress, 2003). Moreover, the government has put in place a One-Stop-Shop service to simplify the procedures for private investors (Abaid, 2010). This step in coordination between the private and public sectors was intended to reduce the administrative bureaucracy, and it has clearly helped to increase the number of private sector hotels and travel agencies, particularly in Tripoli.

The most obvious coordination in marketing efforts between the private and public sector organisations related to tourism is their participation in internal and international fairs, where both sectors cooperate to promote Libyan tourism products and services. A government interviewee stated that *"As a marketing department the core objective is to promote Libya as a tourist destination through participating in coordination with the private sector in national and international fairs to attract more tourists"* (Government official 5). However, such cooperation has often failed to achieve its objectives since the public and private sectors participants regularly failed to manage the coordination processes properly, resulting in delays in taking decisions to fund their participation until the last minute. The manager of Taknes tour operator, for example, stated that *"Every time we plan to participate in international exhibitions and fairs, the government delays the finance permission until the last minute when we could not have a good display place in the exhibitions"* (Private sector actor 20).

Cooperation in tourism management among the private and public sector owners and managers of the tourist products is crucial in order to build strong linkages of compatibility and complementarity. But in Alkhoms there is no cooperation at management levels between the proximate dissimilar primary products of the archaeology of Leptis Magna and Lebda beach resort because both sectors did not want to bear the costs of risk, and thus the complementarity between them is very little. Both attractions are largely separated at managerial levels because Leptis Magna and Lebda beach resort are owned and operated by the public and private sectors respectively. The management team of the Leptis Magna site were assigned by the related governmental authority and were given no authority to make agreements for any kind of collaboration with other sectors until they had received permission from top management. In practice such procedures take a long time and are commonly refused in Libya. Further, the head officer of the Leptis Magna site stated that *"I do not make any meetings or even communication with the manager of Lebda resort regarding working together, because that needs funds and I have no power to use the site revenues"* (Public sector actor 4). According to a key interviewee at Lebda resort: *"There is no collaboration between our resort and the Leptis Magna attraction because we belong to different sectors"* (Private sector actor 7).

Domestic tourists are the usual visitors at Lebda beach resort. Some of these are in family groups and they might visit the adjacent archaeology site due to its proximity, but they do not do so in any notable numbers because there is a lack of activities and entertainment facilities there for children and families. This indicates a need to diversify into activities and products that can motivate local tourists to increase their visits to the Leptis Magna site. Similarly, visitors to the Leptis ruins rarely visited the beach resort. Yet some international tourists might visit the resort if they were to stay in Alkhoms' hotels for one or more nights. The manager of Lebda resort stated that *"Some foreign tourists come to enjoy swimming or stay in this resort, especially if their visit to Lebda will take two or three days"* (Private sector actor 13). Thus, these primary attractions in Alkhoms are separately operated and their dissimilarity and proximity features were not efficiently exploited by the two sectors to establish synergies. Such synergies could include establishing one ticketing system, shared discounts, and shared promotion investments.

Beach tourism is better placed than cultural tourism to build loyalty with customers as beach tourism attracts many repeat visitors, while this is less frequently the case for visitors to heritage and archaeology attractions. In the case of Leptis Magna as an iconic

attraction, there are some international tourists who show loyalty and repeat their visits and recommend others to visit. Thus, connecting beach tourism as a supplementary product to Leptis Magna, the main product, could enhance loyalty and repeat visits.

Cooperation between tourist products is essential to establish competitive pricing policies. The museums in Tripoli are similar attractions, all belonging to the public sector, and they are all still operated and marketed as completely separate products. It was observed, for example, that an entry ticket for each museum must be bought at the entrance of the museum on the same day as the visit and according to the predetermined prices by the tourism authority. The lack of cost efficient policies, such as creating pass ticket cards to encourage more visitors to visit several linked attractions, together with discount prices, reflects the lack of cooperation between the public sector museums in Tripoli.

Adoption of ICT for tourist attractions and products is also important to build up networks for e-marketing (Cetinkaya, 2009), and also to keep up with market changes and trends that are necessary for market research and decision-making. Use of the internet can help to increase the competitiveness by supporting collaboration and coordination between different tourism actors. It is observed that none of the primary tourist products in Libya has a website or used the internet for ticketing and booking visits or even to gain visitors' feedback for future improvements. The marketing of the tourism products in this study still depends largely on tour operators and on attending international exhibitions and fairs, instead of exploiting advancing new technologies.

7.4 Planning, Management and Leadership

The tourism market is rapidly changing, and meeting customers' needs requires strategic approaches in planning and management to maintain competitiveness and to resist forces of decline. The strategic Libyan Tourism Master Plan for the period (1999-2018) was developed by the Libyan Tourism Ministry in collaboration with other national and international organisations. Many major tourism plans in the plan (1999-2018) were not implemented, however, because the public sector was given responsibility for all the activities of planning, financing and implementing all development projects for all the sectors (LTMP, 2009-2025: Vol.1: 1). This led to tourism projects in Libya widely being seen as of secondary importance, which has added to the effects of the UN sanctions in making tourism's share in the economy very small because of the limited flow of

international tourists to the country. The changes that followed the lifting of the sanctions, such as improvements in oil prices, improvements in political relations between Libya and western nations, the opening of the door for local and international private investors, and improvements in investment regulations, have all forced the government to revise the previous plan into new one for the period 2009 to 2025. Here the tourism sector is depicted as important for diversifying the economy. According to the Director of GTB "We have just finalised the Libyan Tourism Master Plan (LTMP) for 2009-2025, which aims to promote tourism as a key element in the economy" (Oxford Business Group: Libya 2010: 238). The plan was divided into three parts, short, medium and long term, and the objectives by 2025 are to receive 4.6 millions of tourists, to offer 100,000 beds, to have 225,000 new jobs, and to increase the GDP contribution of the tourism sector from 1.45% in 2008 to 6% by 2025. To achieve these objectives several issues were given attention by the planners (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol.2: 1).

"There are several projects in Tripoli, whether in tourism sector or hotel industry.....The private sector is already involved in developing tourism related businesses.....All these projects will increase the number of tourists in the future. Also, there are tourism projects for Alkhoms, but there are some administrative and financial problems that hinder the implementation" (Government official 3).

Regarding tourism product development, the planners considered, firstly, that tourism products in Libya were still in the early stages of development, and that was seen to help in shaping and controlling their development according to their national objectives. Secondly, they identified that the tourism products in Libya are geographically distributed over a very large area, which they considered allowed them to achieve a more spatially balanced and sustainable development (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol.2: 55).

In the short term strategy in the LTMP, 2009-2025 the planners have given priority to the restoration and maintenance of tourist products, and to developing the infrastructure for the primary products, with these seen as the required first step in further commodifying Libya's resources for tourism. According to the GTB's Director: "Libya has huge potential for tourism but lacks infrastructure, and that's our first objective" (World Report: Libya, 2004: 9). The planners also have given importance to the role that can be played by the private sector in managing some attractions under the supervision of the GTB (LTMP, Vol.2: 53). They have focused, for example, on diversifying beach tourism through giving incentives for the private investors to develop quality beach tourism. They have also

encouraged the private sector to improve the performance of the handicrafts sector, such as through opening a new related museum in Tripoli and through opening training centres for young people to learn handicrafts skills where currently there are only two training centres for handicrafts, one in Tripoli and the other one in Gharyan, and around 30 trainees were sent to Tunisia for handicrafts training in years 2005-2007 (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol.2: 78-80). The planners also stressed the diversification into cultural products, such as through establishing regular festivals and events at major tourist attractions. They have also emphasised the importance of developing small attractions through developing spatial clusters of attractions and through connecting these clusters together to complement each other (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol.1: 97).

The LTMP 2009-2025 is also focused in the short term for the period 2009-2013 on developing cultural and heritage attractions and products in the coastal regions. For the medium and long term the focus is on diversification into beach tourism and water sports that will be developed to complement cultural tourism *"Tourism product development requires a focus on the attractiveness of the product. Developing the tourism products must be integrative implemented in medium and long-term plans....[and] either in medium and long-term plans, the development of beach tourism will be in complement of cultural tourism where tourists can be accommodated near the site of an archaeological or historical and enjoy visiting cultural sites as well as the nearby beach and diverse marina activities"* (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol.2: 71-72). Also the plan stated that "in the long-term, the development of beach tourism and related products such as scuba diving, water sports, and protected areas will complement the archaeological tourism resulting in better tourists satisfaction and prolonging tourists stay" (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol.2: 54).

A hierarchical, top-down communication style is still dominant in all management of public and private sector organisations in Libya, and tourism is no exception (Omran, et al., 2012; Abubaker, 2009). This style of management has hindered the flexibility required from management to function effectively with the changing demands of tourists. Rigid management style has made it difficult to secure cooperation and collaboration with other involved sectors in order to manage the primary tourism products collectively, such as by establishing a one entry ticket for all (Bramwell and Pomfret, 2007; De Araujo and Bramwell, 1999; Weaver and Lawton, 2006). It was observed that the entry ticket to the Leptis Magna site neither included entry to the nearby museum nor the entry to Villa Celine, despite them being managed by one public sector authority. This all reflects how

management is inflexible and often does not open the door for suggestions for improvements.

There is limited solid leadership of the Libyan tourism industry. Yet diversification into more products through building strong linkages between tourist products needs flexible management. That management needs to seek to compete on prices and high quality through cost reduction, by implementing clusters, and by introducing partnerships and collaboration to share knowledge and skills for better competitiveness. Diversification into more tourist products can also increase the opportunity to encourage tourists to spend more and stay longer. But leadership is essential in exploring options for diversification into more products. For example, the lack of quality hotels close to the Leptis Magna site and the lack of appropriate infrastructure at Lebda beach resort have forced tourists to visit the site for only a few hours, leading to a low economic performance. The lack of know-how at managerial level means management has often been unable to see the opportunity of spatial proximity to establish strong relationships between attractions in order to attract more tourists. One tour guide stated that *"All managers in the tourism sector have nothing to do with the industry, and learned tourism management by experience. We want the right man in the right place"* (Private sector Actor. 19). This reflects the importance of leadership in management for better competitiveness.

7.5 Lack of Strategic Management

The integration of management efforts is also important to reduce conflicts between sectors and to work together in harmony to achieve strategic plans. Tourism products and attractions in Libya are highly fragmented between several organisations in the public and private sectors. Further, *"Tourism products in Libya are controlled by other sectors where tourism is not their main tasks. This situation has made it difficult to properly manage tourism development"* (Government official 3). For instance, museums and archaeology sites are controlled by the General Board of Antiquities, beach resorts are controlled by the Ministry of Services and Facilities, while gardens and parks are managed by the General Board of Public Parks. Fragmentation of tourism between sectors and public sector organisations might result from the lack of know-how at managerial level about the value of the strategic management principles of coordination and collaboration in order to accomplish shared goals. Such a lack of strategic linkages between sectors has clearly affected the performance of Libya's tourism products.

One manifestation of poor strategic management is the failure of the tourism plans to be properly translated into actions. For example, despite the improvements in Tripoli's hotel sector, which offered more jobs for local people, the sophisticated ICT technology is not fully reliable yet so as to provide tourists with sufficient information about the tourism products and attractions in Tripoli and Alkhoms, or to receive customer feedback for future improvements. Al-Hasan, *et al.* (2003: 1) has stressed that the "tourism industry is important to Libya's economy and greater consideration should be given to its development and, in particular, to e-marketing". Buhalis (2003: 16) argues that by "Using ICT, tourism organisations can differentiate their product, customising the final product and adding value according to individual requirements". The inability of management to track tourists' feedback and undertake continuous market research has hindered the development of quality of attractions and reflects the failure to adapt strategies that comply with customer needs. A web reviewer who visited Leptis Magna museum, commented how *"There's also a serious problem with lighting in some of the museums.....the museum at Leptis Magna was the worst for this – it was like trying to go round a museum with your sunglasses on. The other problem was labelling – most of the museums don't have English (or any other European language) labels"* (Koshkha, 2010). The management will not receive such tourist feedback at a cost efficient rate without using ICT and the internet, and this can help them to be more responsive and adaptable.

7.6 Conclusion

Tripoli has diversified its tourism products, both alternative and mass tourism. Thus, the cultural tourism products there include museums, heritage and archaeology attractions, local crafts, food, festivals and songs. The city also contains beach tourism, scuba-diving, and cruise tourism. Shopping and business tourism are also tourism products that grow fast in the city due to the development of new shopping malls and conference halls in the luxury hotels. However, beach tourism is still concentrated mainly as a sand, sun, and swimming product. The tourism attractions in Tripoli are clustered in the city centre, leading to the agglomeration of businesses nearby. Such a situation has helped to create more tourism-related jobs and also to enhance the dynamics of the city and the comfort of tourists. In contrast, tourism product development in Alkhoms was concentrated on two distinctive types, the archaeological site of Leptis Magna promoted mainly for international tourists, and beach tourism consumed in the summer time by domestic tourists. Both products are separated and also consumed in different seasons. Therefore,

there are very few complementarity and synergy linkages between them. This has reduced the economic value of tourism to the city and made the city more dependent on the tourists flow from Tripoli.

Chapter 8 : Tourist Destination Inherent Economic Resilience

8.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the tourist destination inherent economic resilience, labelled as box 5 in the study's general framework (Figure 3.1). It examines whether tourism product development in terms of concentration and diversification and the linkages between diversified tourism products promotes inherent economic resilience for the destinations under study. Thus, this chapter applies the third framework (Figure 3.3) which seeks to understand the relationships between the primary tourism products, particularly the dimensions of attributes and characteristics, the interrelationships and linkages that strengthen the relationships between the diversified tourism products, the external factors that influence the attributes and the linkages between tourism products, and the implications of all of these for the destination inherent economic resilience. This represents the resilience pre-conditions of the system pre-crisis. This study does not measure economic resilience using a quantification approach. This was not possible due to Libya's system which is bureaucratic and has cultural problems, so that there was only limited access to quantitative data, and often such data is not collected. Moreover, the researcher was more interested in multiple issues and complex human issues, which are hard to quantify. However, there are some quantitative data which was used, but a lot of other data used had to be qualitative in character. So, it is not just about data but also about the researcher's philosophical view about these issues. The present research used a constructivist approach by building ideas through looking at what people think about social systems, social values, and political and management systems. This approach facilitated looking at resilience in a broader way than for some resilience studies.

This study investigates resilience at the tourism industry level, and not at the city level. City resilience is the outcome of the resilience of several sectors working in the city, and these sectors might differ in their resilience. The focus of the present study is to see whether product diversification promotes the inherent economic resilience of the tourism sector. It is in fact part of city resilience and the national economy resilience, but that was not the focus of this particular study.

This chapter links together some of the earlier results and it relates them to the concept of economic resilience. Thus, it is in part a synthesis chapter as it integrates the earlier

findings in Chapters Six and Seven around the concept of destination inherent economic resilience. It uses the concept of inherent resilience to explore the connections in the case studies and it prepares for the study's overall conclusion chapter. The study focuses on inherent resilience because of the difficulties of obtaining data about temporal responses to potential crises, as considered in adaptive resilience. Due to a lack of previous data about tourism performance and because the fieldwork was done in one round, it was too difficult to look into resilience changes based on temporal aspects.

8.2 The Third Framework

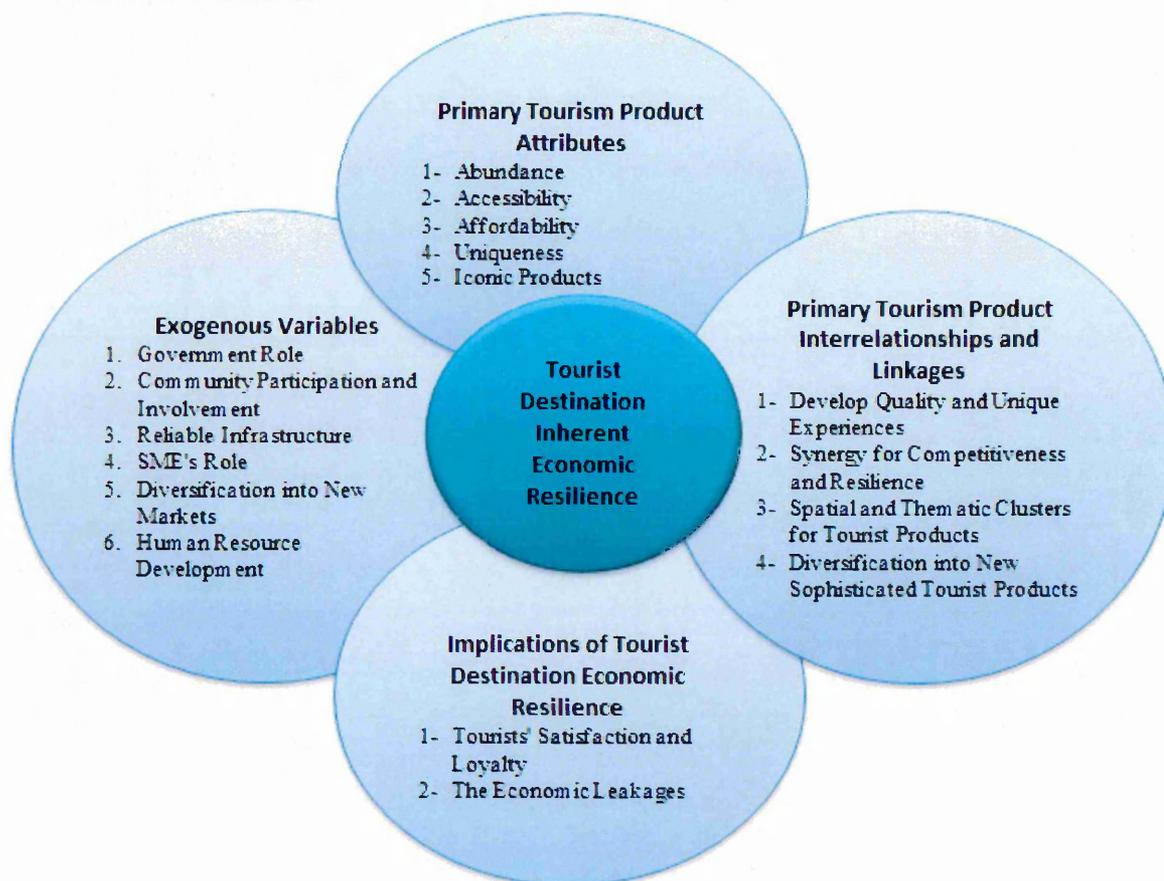
This study's third deductive framework on resilience in the tourism sector is further developed here based on the inductive findings in Chapters Six, Seven and Eight. Thus, this chapter assesses the merits of the deductive framework (Figure 3.3 in Chapter 3) but also extends it through refining it based on the inductive findings about tourism primary products, product concentration and diversification, and destination inherent economic resilience.

The deductive development of this framework was based on the notion that there are four key dimensions strongly associated with the concept of destination inherent economic resilience. These dimensions are presented once again in the revised framework in Figure 8.1.

These dimensions are broad in nature and each dimension includes several specific issues that influence the tourist destination inherent economic resilience. These issues were identified by the application of the third framework (Figure 3.3) to the two case study areas. This framework is original, but it builds on previous researchers' ideas who examine destination competitiveness elements for better economic performance. According to Enright and Newton (2005: 340), "a destination is competitive if it can attract and satisfy potential tourists, and this competitiveness is determined both by tourism-specific factors and a much wider range of factors that influence the tourism service providers". It also draws on ideas about the importance of adopting long term planning strategies in marketing and destination management, and about "destination visioning" for sustainable development (Bramwell and Lane, 1993; Cooper, 2002), relationships between tourism products, locational and thematic clustering, tourist behaviour and movement (Weidenfeld *et al.*, 2010), adaptation and adaptive tourism systems for long term rewards (Ferrell and

Twining-Ward, 2004), and about economic resilience in tourism (Biggs, 2011; Briguglio *et al.*, 2011). The framework also draws on the findings of this research about tourist product development patterns in terms of concentration and diversification, and about patterns of consumption stemming from the mixes and relationships between these products. "The more diversified a destination's portfolio of tourism products, services and experiences the greater is its ability to attract different tourist market segments" (Dwyer and Kim, 2003: 382). Thus, diversification and competitiveness factors are essential for destination inherent economic resilience.

Figure 8-1: The Revised Framework of Tourist Destination Inherent Economic Resilience Based on Product Diversification



Source: Developed by the author

The framework forms a "crystal" to represent the dynamic interactions and mutual influences between all the dimensions, so that, for example, all must be improved together to promote a higher degree of inherent economic resilience. It is also suggested that any defects or variations and lack of harmony in the improvement processes of these elements will likely hinder resilience and may lead to decline.

The factors are: First, factors that are linked directly to tourist product characteristics, such as the availability of attractions and services, accessibility, affordability, quality and uniqueness, product image, iconic products, and capacity. These factors are important for destination inherent economic resilience. Second, factors that are more related to the features that are associated with interrelationships between tourism products in a place, such as diversification, flexibility, synergy, competition, spatial proximity and thematic linkages and clusters. Third, exogenous variables are that affect the attributes and the interrelationships between tourist products, such as government roles, community participation, presence of reliable infra- and super-structure, SMEs role, diversification into new markets, and HR development. Fourth, there are the implications for destination economic resilience resulting from the complexity of relationships between product attributes, interrelationships and external factors. These implications include tourist satisfaction and loyalty, and economic leakages. The structure of the chapter here, however, does not review all the factors mentioned here in the revised framework, rather it reviews the issues of most importance for the case studies in Libya. So, the framework includes some factors that the researcher does not go into in any detail about because of lack of space.

Tourism is vulnerable to crises because it depends on the voluntary mobility of people, as well as on other sectors' capacities and interrelationships, climate seasonality (Nyaupane, and Shhtre, 2009; Richardson and Witkowski, 2010), political stability (Sonmez, 1998), local people's hospitality and participation (Ghimire and Upreti, 2011), quality of attractions, scale of tourist offerings, and flexibility and adaptation of tourism products. Problems in any of these can negatively influence the tourists' experience, resulting in declining tourist arrivals (Anderson and Juma, 2011). All these factors can increase the tourism sector's vulnerability, thus decreasing the destination's economic resilience. Repositioning declining tourist attractions in the market can be accomplished through rejuvenating tourism products by improving and maintaining their flexibility and adaptability to meet current and future changes, so that diversification can become crucial (Ioannides, 2006). Bramwell (2004) emphasizes how careful consideration should be given to the appropriate scale and mix of types of tourism development for sustainability. The strategies of tourism product diversification in relation to alternative and mass developments, whether concentrated or diversified, might or might not increase economic resilience and reduce vulnerability, depending on what happens during implementation.

Tourist product diversification can revive the destination lifecycle for further growth, while the resilience concept involves the ability of a destination to revive and reorganise after absorbing specific disturbances (Strickland-Munro, Alison and Moore, 2010). Thus, diversification into more products may increase the capacity by reducing demand pressures on just one product by spreading demand to a wider range of tourist products over a wider timescale. It can also reduce the negative effects of seasonality, and make the total capacity of the destination larger so it can receive more tourists and eliminate deterioration. It can also promote collaborative linkages between tourism products in order to maintain demand below the supply capacity and to reduce production costs in order to effectively compete and adapt to change. This might be the connection point between diversification and resilience.

The concepts of inherent and adaptive economic resilience were recognised from the literature, but in this study, there was only scope to investigate inherent resilience (potential resilience in the context of more normal perturbations and circumstances) in more depth. There was not the scope to examine in any depth the concept of adaptive resilience, which concerns activities during and after major crises. This was not possible due to constraints of time and funding. The focus on inherent resilience is because the inherent capacities of a tourist destination concern the ability of a system to deal with changes under normal conditions. These inherent capacities are linked to products and other influences in terms of internal and external factors. The study examines the strengths and weaknesses of these factors that could influence destination inherent resilience.

8.2.1 Tourism Product Attributes and Inherent Resilience

The characteristics of tourism products represent a given destination's comparative advantages and this can determine its readiness and inherent features to resist and continue in business as a resilient destination. Zhang and Jensen (2007: 17) argue that there is "strong support for the relevance of supply-side factors such as natural endowments, technology, and infrastructure in explaining international tourism flows". Thus, assessing the strengths and weaknesses of these elements is a pre-condition for the resilience assessment process. However, increasing tourist flows may not be reflected in increased tourist expenditure if these factors do not meet their expectations, perhaps because of a deterioration of these factors over time. The LTMP (2009-2025, Vol.1: 130) states that the very small increase in tourists' expenditure from \$70 to \$134 per day between 2000-2008

was due to such problems as an unavailability of activities during the time of a visit, long travel times between distant tourist sites, and unavailability of en-route services. Otman and Karlberg, (2007) state that, despite the increasing of international tourist flows to Libya, this has not resulted in an increased quality and number of hotels. Thus, improving these comparative or inherent factors is a requirement not only to increase the tourist flows but also to encourage them to spend more, so as to promote growth and inherent economic resilience. Many of these characteristics were discussed in Chapter Six, such as abundance, affordability, accessibility, capacity, iconic image, differentiation and uniqueness, security and safety.

However, these comparative advantages in both case study areas are still weak compared to many other countries in the region and internationally. These attributes are largely influenced by political, organizational, socio-economic and cultural problems, and they are affected by a lack of creativity and innovative thinking in planning and marketing regarding diversification. A key issue here is that tourism planning and marketing are still dominated by the public sector in Libya. For instance, in the public sector, including for tourism, people are employed in permanent jobs for life against fixed monthly wages without any real accountability regarding performance. Employee performance is still measured annually basically on absence and other simple criteria that do not relate to quality and productivity performance, and the assessment reports are not subject to further discussion for learning and improvements (El Orufi, 2003, African Economic Outlook 2012). These factors have led to an inefficient use of resources and an inability to develop tourism attributes to meet market needs and to sustain resilience. In this section, some of these inherent characteristics are discussed in relation to the resilience concept. So, this section is not a repetition of earlier discussions, rather it suggests that these attributes are an essential part of the inherent resilience capacity.

Thus, a product diversification strategy is unlikely to work well to sustain resilience if these pre-condition features remain weak.

Abundance: Tourist products that are available in Tripoli are greater in quantity and variety than those in Alkhoms. Thus, the inherent ability to adapt to a wider range of tastes is greater in Tripoli, making it more resilient. But, although Libya has recently emerged as a tourist destination with a strong base of tourism resources that can provide great potential for tourism development, the abundance feature is still far from sustaining resilience at

regional and global levels, which should not be underestimated. The Mediterranean nations, for example, have similar climate and maybe similar core tourism products to Libya, and offer a larger number of offerings that Libya cannot offer at the moment. Thus, the abundance feature is still weak and needs attention to sustain resilience at a global scale.

Accessibility: Travel is an integral part of tourism. Thus, high physical and informational accessibility is an important factor that enables the tourism sector to increase market share, while low accessibility can divert tourists to other more accessible destinations. Accessibility is also important for strengthening complementarity and compatibility linkages between diversified products. Where products are less accessible they are unlikely to build linkages of complementarity and compatibility since these linkages depend on the volume of exchangeable tourists and the movements between tourism products, which are largely influenced by accessibility. Thus, during crises the more accessible destinations are more likely to adopt new policies to cope with changes and to recover faster than destinations that suffer from accessibility problems. Accessibility to Libya in general in terms of obtaining visas, flights, road transportation, and valid and reliable information is still a problem due to several issues related to political and administrative policies, lack of strong and vibrant transport systems, and a lack of e-marketing know-how and of skilled humans. Low accessibility at national level is reflected at local level, making the tourism sector more vulnerable and less resilient.

Affordability: Generally, Libya's tourism product prices are cheap compared with similar products in developed countries. This is partly due to differences in currency exchange rates, but these prices are often not competitive at a global scale since tourism product quality in both case study areas regularly does not meet international standards. On the macro level, the unpredictable fluctuations of exchange rate will continue and could severely impact the destinations that focus on budget tourists who are less loyal, especially if the quality is lower than international standards, such as in Libya's case. Therefore, Libya's international tourist arrivals have declined after 2006, as shown in Figure 6.15, due to problems in service quality and other political issues. Low prices of supplementary tourism products have not compensated for the low quality experiences, leading to lower resilience. Thus, diversification into sophisticated tourism products that could attract sophisticated tourists along with developing a flexible pricing strategy can be important for resilience enhancement.

Uniqueness: The similarity between tourism products in Libya, specifically in both case study areas and in other Mediterranean countries, is one of the challenges against the efforts to differentiate the tourist products in the country. Despite the quality and the differences of local cultures in these countries, the archaeology sites and beach tourism in both case study areas are quite similar to those offered by other nations in the region, such as in Italy, Tunisia, Morocco and Turkey. Coastal cities in these countries overlook the Mediterranean Sea, and share a similar climate and history. Most of the important archaeology sites in both case study areas, such as Leptis Magna site, Villa Celine, Marcus Aurelius Arch, and Saraya Castle, were built by ancient civilizations originating from neighbouring countries. Such similarity combined with low quality services are considered as real challenges that negatively affect the capacity of both destinations to compete with regional competitors, especially as these places are being compared by tourists. Thus, the low quality sites provide low sector economic resilience. *"In comparison to the old medinas of Morocco and other North African countries, the medina of Tripoli is not quite as spectacular"* (Libyatravelandtours, 2012). Libya's tourism planners suggest that to enable the tourism products to compete, it is essential to differentiate them by offering high quality, authenticity of local culture and food, warm hospitality, and competitive prices based on quality experiences (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol 2: 71). There are no crisis management plans developed to help tourism suppliers to cope with likely problems resulting from this similarity.

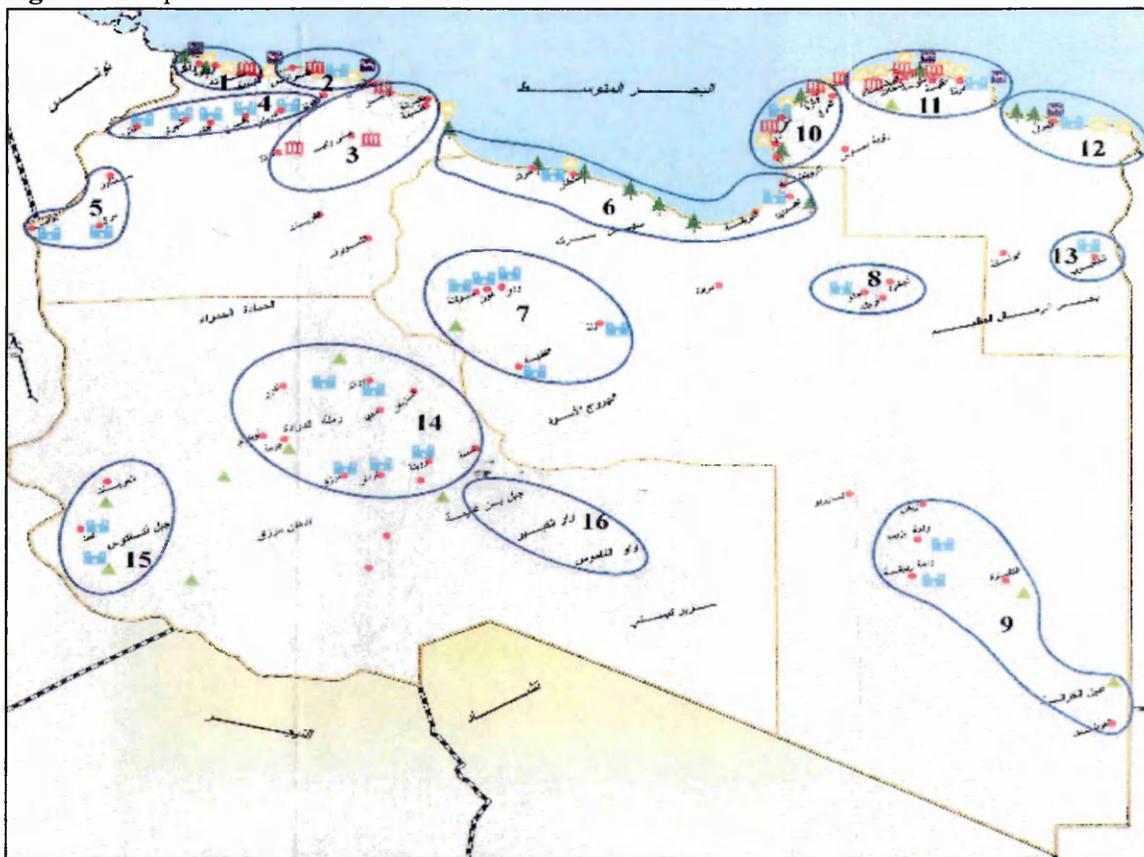
Iconic Products: Developing iconic attractions can sustain place attractiveness, revitalize tourism (Dybedal, 1998; Smith, 2012, 2006) and inherent resilience in the long term since they can be poles for development that attract more investors. The iconic image of the Roman sites, particularly Leptis Magna in Alkhoms, has played a significant role in attracting international tourists who still see them as iconic places. A reviewer stated about the Leptis Magna site: *"This city has been the "Hong Kong" of the Antique world - one of the most prosperous places in the Empire"* (magvey, 2011). Because of this iconic attraction and improvements in people's incomes in the region, tourism in Libya continued to attract tourists during the 10 years of sanctions against the country (1992-2003), as can be seen from Figure 6.15. *"Even in the period of the sanctions, the foreign tourists came to Libya by sea and land entry points in order to visit the archaeology sites and the desert. And domestic demand for beach tourism has not been affected by the sanctions and it has continued to grow due to improved incomes for Libyans"* (Government official 4).

However, tourist numbers have increased at a slow rate, and thus the tourism sector has not significantly contributed to Libya's economy. Despite the strong image of iconic attractions, their inherent capacity to attract different types of tourists was lowered by the concentration on their themes as cultural products instead of diversifying them by creating new products or linking them with other tourist products, and also due to the limited provision and low quality of supported tourism products. When respondents were asked about what can be done to ensure the Leptis Magna site attracts more varied types of tourists, most responses emphasised diversification and quality services. For instance, a public official stated that *"The Leptis Magna site is famous and constantly attracts foreign tourists. However, it can be improved if music events, festivals, exhibitions, and play grounds, etc., are added, or if it is connected with the beach resorts to attract local people and foreigners. But that first requires the development of accommodation and services"* (Public sector actor 4).

In Tripoli, the Saraya museum and Old Medina might serve as iconic attractions that attract both foreigners and domestic tourists. Thus, the diversification into business tourism, shopping, conferences, cruise and diving tourism in the city, and the growing availability of accommodation and service facilities, have enhanced the capacity to create more jobs, improve economic returns and boost the inherent economic resilience.

Libya's tourism strategy (2009-2025, Vol.2:54-55) focuses on exploiting the iconic cultural and natural attractions all over the country by creating 16 development growth centres, as shown as circles in Figure 8.2, with each of them having at least one attraction as a nucleus for further developments. The strategy encourages local entrepreneurs in these centres to establish tourism-related businesses close to the iconic attractions, and at a national scale this spreads the tourism development benefits to wider communities and sustains the capacity of these attractions to attract more tourists, resulting in improved the inherent economic performance and resilience.

Figure 8-2: Spatial and Thematic Clusters of Tourism Products



Source: Adapted by the Author from the Libyan Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025, Vol.2:98)

8.2.2 Primary Tourism Product Interrelationships and Linkages Associated with Concentration and Diversification Patterns, for Improved Adaptation

The development strategies for tourist attractions and products in Libya, and in particular in Tripoli and Alkhoms, are discussed next in the light of the concentration and diversification concepts in order to understand whether they sustain or degrade the resilience of destinations, so as to resist economic deterioration and maintain economic growth, thus promoting inherent economic resilience. These issues are also related to adaptive resilience that can be sustained over time in the context of major crises through specific strategies. The lack of previous data about the tourism performance in Libya during various crises makes it hard to measure the adaptive economic resilience of the tourism sector, and instead the focus here is on inherent resilience.

8.2.2.1 Develop Quality and Unique Experiences

Branding tourism products based on quality and unique experiences is important to sustain tourists' satisfaction and loyalty, and thus to increase the inherent resilience of a destination. Differentiated image and branding of Libyan tourism, however, is a real

challenge (Frontier Report, 2012). Word of mouth has been an essential element in marketing Libya as a tourist destination (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol.3: 15), so that maintaining tourists' satisfaction and loyalty is critical. Despite the variations, tourism products that are marketed for inbound tourists in both cities are thematically dominated by heritage and archaeology, while the one promoted for domestic tourists is dominated by beach tourism. *"Currently the tourism products either in Tripoli and Leptis Magna are very similar and so they attract a small segment of tourists"* (Private sector actor 15). Such similarity limits the size of the market and makes visiting some attractions in Tripoli, such as Saraya museum and the Leptis Magna site, potentially rather repetitive. The heritage attractions in Libya as a whole are seen to some extent as similar to those in competitor countries, and the quality is still weak. Some tourists were asked whether there are cities and other places that offer similar attractions to those found in Tripoli and Alkhoms and that are more worth visiting. A respondent stated that *"There are similar places in Rome and Greece to Leptis, but Leptis Magna is still at the top in terms of its prettiness and completeness. But Tripoli I think, well it has name identity, but Old Medinas in capital cities in the region are a little bit similar. Maybe Tripoli's one is bigger but it needs attention"* (International tourist 2).

In this context, Libya's tourism plan recommends that marketing efforts should focus on branding Libya's tourism products as "value added tourism" by focusing on alternative tourism instead of mass tourism in order to keep the negative impacts of tourism at a low level and to maintain tourist loyalty. According to one government officer, *"There is a clear emphasis on the importance of minimizing the negative impacts of tourism developments by maintaining quality control and standards at high levels. Therefore, development priority will be given to selective tourism at the beginning in order to keep and maintain the environment and social impacts at minimum levels"* (Government official 2).

However, branding is about gaining a strong position in the market. There are four policies in the Libyan Tourism Master Plan (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol.2: 30) to brand Libyan tourism as "value added tourism". These are:

- Offering a diversity of products through developing the secondary products to become primary ones.
- Focusing on alternative tourism, such as ecotourism and adventure tourism, rather than mass tourism so as to maintain uniqueness and competitive advantage.

- Focusing on quality experiences through offering facilities and services at international standards with security and hospitality.
- Competing on prices to encourage tourist expenditure on more entertainment and more products.

In reality, the "value added tourism" approach has not been implemented properly, and it is still a wish rather than real practice due to several complex problems. As one tour operator contended:

"The plans talking about experience tourism are not applicable in practice because that requires more products that add experience and knowledge. What is available now are just heritage and historical attractions for seeing. Also, the tourists require freedom of movement and choices and these are currently not available because of regulations. There are not enough diverse tourism products ready for marketing because of problems related to infrastructure, skilled people and lack of funding for development" (Private sector actor 9).

It is important to develop reliable pricing strategies that can be a competitive advantage so as to sustain resilience. However, prices in the tourism sector and related industries, such as the hotel and aviation sectors, are still uncompetitive and rely on government regulations rather than market forces. On the ground, however, these regulations are rarely followed. For example, the prices for luxury hotels are usually imposed by lead actors in the market, such as Corinthia hotel in Tripoli, regardless of any competition (Euromonitor, 2011).

In addition, the lack of cooperation and partnerships between the hotel sector, tour operators and aviation companies has resulted in higher management and marketing costs, which are reflected in the high prices for visiting Libya compared to neighbouring countries. For example, Table 8.1 shows the prices of fixed travel packages to Libya, Tunisia, Morocco, and Egypt for Audley Travel Company on its website. Given that Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia are well recognised as tourist destinations and have better quality services and infrastructure than Libya, then for Audley the prices of fixed travel packages in Libya are the most expensive compared with its neighbouring countries.

Table 8-1: Comparison of Audley Travel's Prices of Fixed Tourist Packages in Libya and its Neighbours

Country	Travel Package and content	Price (£) from
Libya	Short Break in Tripoli: 6 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4star hotels, and local guides.	1,315
	Tripoli and Ghadames: 8 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4 star hotels, and local guides.	1,790
	Classic Libya: 12 days: international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4star hotels, and local guides.	2,855
	Grand Tour of Libya: 17 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4star hotels, and local guides.	5,075
Tunis	Short Break in Tunisia: 6 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4 star hotels.	1,145
	Roman Tunisia: 8 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4 star hotels.	1,725
	Grand Tour of Tunisia: 13 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4 star hotels.	2,735
Morocco	Marrakesh and the High Atlas: 7 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4 star hotels.	860
	Marrakesh and Mountain and Coast: 10 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4 star hotels.	1,155
	Trekking in the High Atlas: 7 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4 star hotels.	1,320
Egypt	Luxor and the Red Sea: 8 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4 star hotels, and local guides.	1,105
	Highlight of Egypt: 7 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4 star hotels, and local guides.	1,390
	Cairo and the Treasure of Nile: 10 days, international flights, bed and breakfast in 3 / 4 star hotels, and local guides.	1,765

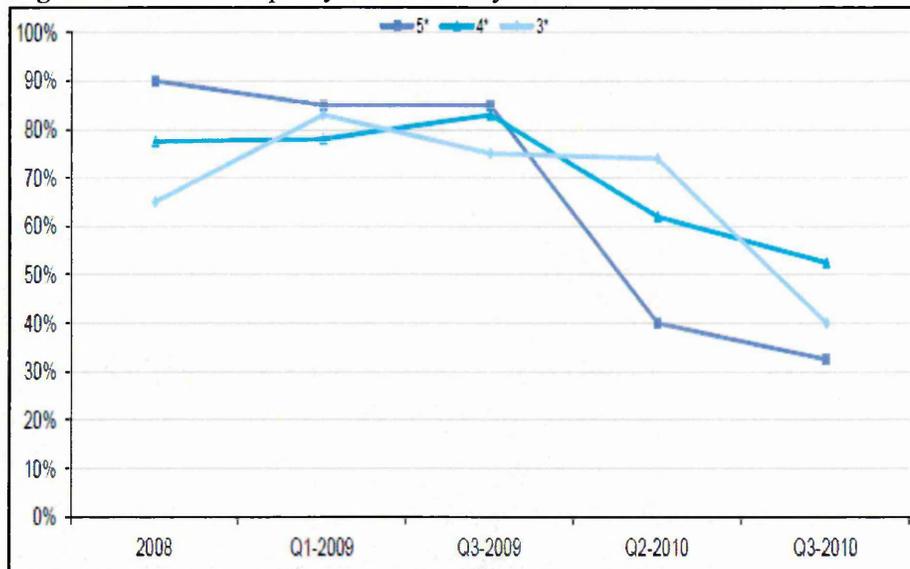
Source: Compiled by the author from international tour operator "Audley Travel" website at: <http://www.audleytravel.com/Destinations/North-Africa-and-The-Middle-East.aspx>

Tourist demand for Libya is also not predictable due to the lack of coherent systems for collecting data about tourist flows and patterns of demand, and also due to the lack of market research and analysis of competitors' prices. Such problems can inhibit the ability of the tourism-related sector to invest in cooperation and partnership, resulting in blurred pricing policies based on arbitrary estimations. This encourages higher prices compared to rivals selling similar products. *"Our prices are a little bit higher than that in Tunisia and Egypt regarding the quality and the variety offered to tourists, but our tourists are still content with our prices, which are still cheap for international tourists because of differences of exchange rates"* (Private sector actor 14). Therefore, the pricing strategies applied by Libyan tourism are still far from sustaining the inherent economic resilience.

The integration of international and domestic tourism in terms of developing accommodation that fits the needs of both is a possible strategy to reduce investment costs in infrastructure related to tourism and it can also help to maintain high hotel occupancy all year round. Unfortunately, most hotels are still built according to the western style, which indeed does not fit domestic tourist needs. Libyans usually travel and spend their holidays in large family groups of 5 or so people. The style of the existing hotels is not convenient, therefore, for Libyan families. In addition, high prices of hotel rooms, for example, have

led to declining hotel occupancy and they reduce their adaptability to cope with declines in tourist demand. Prices of hotel rooms in good hotels in Tripoli are not only high for domestic tourists but also for international tourists who have relatively higher incomes. A business tourist reviewing the prices of Tripoli's Corinthia hotel commented: *"I agree with comments that the rooms are not cheap, but given the limited choice of quality hotels in Tripoli at present that is not surprising"* (AussieroversAmman, 2012). Another business tourist reviewed Al-Waddan hotel: *"It is not a cheap hotel, but for Tripoli it is one of the best, all things considered"* (DYSMoscow, 2010). These hotel pricing policies could not cope with the decline in tourists that the sector has faced in recent years, where the prices were not cheap enough to attract domestic tourists or low income tourists, resulting in notable declining occupancy rates in 3, 4, and 5 Star hotels, as shown in Figure 8.3.

Figure 8-3: The Occupancy Trend in Libya's Hotel Sector



Source: Frontier: The Libya Report, [http://www.arabianreach.com/libya/presentations/Alex Warren Dubai hotels presentation.pdf](http://www.arabianreach.com/libya/presentations/Alex%20Warren%20Dubai%20hotels%20presentation.pdf)

The inability of the hotel sector, as an essential component of the tourism economy, to resist a considerable decline in occupancy rates means that the tourism sector seems to lack strong inherent resilience. Thus, greater cooperation and collaboration between hotels and the wider tourism sector is needed to reduce management and marketing costs so as to establish competitive prices for sustaining inherent economic resilience.

8.2.2.2 Synergy for Competitiveness and Resilience

Synergy is needed to achieve the common goals for the different parts of the tourism industry and to address the policies that help to improve the inherent resilience. Tourism is basically an assembly process for fragmented and diffuse parts (Bramwell and Lane, 2000: 1). Therefore, building up deliberate linkages of compatibility and complementarities between various primary tourist products based on their location and/or thematic relationships is necessary to build coherent clusters of diversified tourism products that collectively can compete in the market and are resilient enough to resist decline. Brunori and Rossi (2000) defined synergies as the linkages between two or more units by which the collective efforts can maximize the results more than can be achieved by the same units as individuals. Collaboration within a cluster will encourage the involved businesses to seek innovation by stimulating information flow and investments, resulting in better inherent resilience of the cluster (Porter, Pinto and Cruz, 2012). Here synergy will be explored by shedding light on the thematic and spatial linkages between diversified tourism products and attractions, and by considering whether these linkages are fully exploited to reduce production and marketing costs, and to share ideas for further improvements in decision-making, production and services, responses and capacity in order to deal with current and future changes.

Collaboration based on sharing knowledge and resources between government and the private sector is valuable in order to sustain the competitiveness of tourism products and to increase their inherent resilience. Bramwell and Lane (2000: 4) argue that collaboration helps stakeholders to work together to achieve shared objectives since each is unlikely to possess all resources required to accomplish their objectives. However, there is an increasing trend towards private sector involvement in Libya's tourism developments, particularly in the hotel sector, beach resorts, tour operators and travel agencies and other supplementary services (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol. 1: 89). This has helped to reduce the public sector's dominance towards more decentralisation in planning, marketing and operational processes in the tourism sector, as an effect of economic reforms. It has also encouraged increasing use of ICT and the availability of experts to assist the private sector. Regarding management and marketing, the General Tourism Board (GTB) is working with private sector businesses, such as tour operators and hoteliers, in marketing Libya as a tourist destination by sharing experiences and the costs of participating in national and international exhibitions. An example of tourism marketing collaboration is the annual

Tripoli International Tourism Expo (T.I.T. Ex), which is considered the largest tourism gathering in Libya. According to the Expo's Website, this exhibition was established in 2008 and it was sponsored by the General Authority of Tourism and Handicrafts. While the public sector organisers of the Tripoli International Fairs offering the land and facilities for the exhibition, the private sector company, Taknes Tourism Services, organised the event. *"We as a travel agency and operator organise exhibitions, conferences and special events in Libya and outside through coordination and collaboration with different public and private sector actors"* (Private sector actor 9). Such synergy or collaboration is essential to broaden and spread knowledge and experiences among individuals and organisations involved in the event, thus strengthening the participants' inherent resilience capacities. For example, tour operators and hoteliers can market their products and services through the event to gain more customers, but they can also attend conferences and seminars to gain knowledge and build new relationship networks for a better business performance, thus sustaining the overall tourism inherent economic resilience.

Partnership between the private and public tourism sectors is important for successful planning, and the resulting implementation will improve the tourism industry's economic performance and inherent resilience. Yet the Libyan tourism development strategy is characterized by public sector dominance as the major agent of growth, while the private sector may play only a subsidiary role (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol.1: 1). This situation has started to change, where "the government recognized that the existence of multiple sources of growth, by promoting the private sector, will enhance the resilience of the economy. To this end, it has identified and accorded a special economic status to high potential clusters in tourism, agriculture, construction and transit-trade, to be the focus of future investments" (African Development Bank, 2009: 7). On the ground, managers in the government and related public organisations are often assigned because of their political loyalty or because of nepotism and favouritism rather than their professions and skills (Johnson and Heinrich, 2012; Pargeter, 2010; Organisation for Transparency Libya, 2007). Al-Baddawy (2011: 5) contends that "selection and promotion for many public sector jobs, especially high ranking ones, is made on the basis of personal contacts and the degree of loyalty the applicant displays toward the regime".

Managers of most publically-owned attractions tend to be concerned more about managing rather than leading the attraction, with the common structure of public organisations in Libya being characterised as "classical bureaucratic" (Abubaker, 2012; Bezweek and

Egbu, 2010). Managers' low skills and know-how, combined with a top-down organisational culture, have often increased the inflexibility and resistance to change and innovation in many managerial activities, such as the adoption of ICT, decision making processes, and flat communication approaches, and this has often resulted in an incapability to cope with changes and low adaptability. "Top management are not keen to be involved in adopting ICT projects due to the lack of education, skills, and avoiding anything which is new and uncertain" (Twati and Gammack, 2006: 187). Accordingly, these organisational forms have intensified the bureaucracy and corruption in various organisations, often resulting in difficulty for the tourism sector to work together with other sectors to control and manage tourism development in sustainable ways. The centralized power in top management in publically-owned attractions has hindered the synergy arrangements between tourist attractions, especially those belonging to different and competing organisations. *"It is quite difficult to establish partnerships between tourism products because these attractions belong to different sectors and any arrangement to invest in any partnership needs permission from the top management. Some proposals were made in the past, but the long time for the paper work to circulate and the corruption usually led to these proposals being ignored"* (Public sector actor 11). Another interviewee pointed to a lack of collaboration in a different way, stating that, *"there is no real coordination between the General Authority for Tourism and the various sectors which manage the facilities and tourist sites, and therefore the tourism sector cannot be blamed for the deterioration of the quality of beaches and others and for the inability to compete. It will be important to make the tourist sites belong to the tourism sector in order to direct the tourism development towards sustainable development"* (Government official 3). Lack of collaboration between different actors owning tourism products is likely to have deterred efforts to solve the deteriorating quality at beach resorts and archaeology sites and has probably led to these attractions failing to attract more tourists and creating more jobs due to their inflexibility and inadaptability, and thus these reduced the areas' inherent resilience.

In addition, the partnership strategy in the LTMP (2009-2025, Vol. 2: 53-56) for the tourism sector only highlights general principles instead of developing comprehensive resilience policies and flexible implementation frameworks that offer alternatives for better inherent resilience. This has meant partnership projects have been rare and they have tended to flounder, which has reduced the amount of foreign and domestic private investments in tourism projects compared to oil and real estate construction projects.

Colijn (2010: 3) reports that "many investors, in particular in the non-oil sectors, are frustrated by unfriendly practices and policies and legal contradictions. As a result, non-oil foreign investment is expected to remain small until a more predictable legal and regulatory regime is in place". Therefore, institutional and organisational reforms might be an obligatory requirement to sustain collaboration and partnership policies to nurture the tourism sector's inherent resilience so as effectively to meet future changes.

The private sector's higher resources and other strengths are likely to be an important ingredient to sustain destination inherent resilience. The National Planning Council (2008) reports that partnership and collaboration between private sector SMEs and the public sector are unsustainable as long as the private sector is weak and lacks the ability to fund research studies to generate ideas for development, lacks experts to support the public sector through consultation, and lacks financial resources to take risks by establishing innovative projects. The very limited collaboration between private and public sectors within Libya was even reflected in who was involved in developing the tourism master plan. The plan was produced by using a consultation panel which included experts from Libya, many individual consultants from other countries, the public sector National Consulting Bureau, and the state's General Tourism Board that funded the project. Overall, the low financial resources and lack of experts in the tourism industry in the private sector has limited the private sector's contribution to tourism development.

Increasing competition is likely to be important in sustaining quality services and products and in strengthening the inherent economic resilience for the tourist destinations. The development of tourism products is essential to increase the number of new tourism business entrants who tend to compete on quality improvement, which in turn can support the competitiveness of primary products leading to enhanced overall economic resilience. According to Franco and Estevao (2010: 603), "Competition leads to innovation, efficiency and lower costs".

After the lifting of international sanctions against Libya in 2003 the tourism industry began to recover, and this was supported by the developments of SMEs, such as travel agencies, tour operators, car rental companies, cafés, restaurants, new budget hotels, camps, guesthouses, local beach resorts, and tourist villages. There was the development of international hotel chains and large hotel developments, particularly in Tripoli to serve business tourists. The concentrated developments of these supported products in Tripoli

has increased tourist demand and attracted new types of tourists, and this has intensified competition between the involved businesses. The intensified competition has meant that the businesses have sought to improve the quality of their services and products to survive and increase their market share, and in turn this has raised land process and property rents, which also has fended off new small entrants. A tour operator stated that *"we have established our company in Tripoli, although we are from Alkhoms, because the size and the type of business here is larger, but also harder. Many small tour operators have closed or merged with other bigger companies"* (Private sector actor 16). In contrast, Alkhoms has received few new developments, and thus it tends to have a low capacity to compete, resulting in lower inherent resilience.

8.2.2.3 Spatial and Thematic Clusters for Tourist Products

It can be important to develop clusters based on complementarities, compatibilities and various linkages between the tourism entities in a destination so as help destination attractions to compete and be more resilient in present and future time. Gibson and Hardman (1998:39) claim that the "clustering of attractions, for example, creates spin-off benefits in terms of generating increased aggregate visitor numbers and provides a critical mass of activities to attract visitors for a trip of one or more days, while suggesting opportunities for future visits". Da Cunha and Da Cunha (2005: 48) argue that a destination's "power of attraction depends on the differing potential of the tourism product and the supporting services". According to Porter (1998), tourist destination competitiveness depends on the appeal of primary attractions and also on the quality and efficiency of the complementary businesses that link the attractions. Thus, clustering can strengthen the inherent and adaptive resilience since it sustains destination attractiveness and the density of the destinations' mutual interactions and cooperative and competitive relationships between involved actors (De Cunha and De Cunha, 2005). Therefore, spatial proximity and thematic similarity and dissimilarity of tourism products in a cluster can play an essential role in developing interactions between businesses and the management operating these attractions, thus generating more opportunities and ideas for the related actors to work together to improve the quality of services and products, to strengthen economic resilience, and to create buffers against new entrants. This section next sheds light on whether location-based and thematic clusters have developed in Tripoli and Alkhoms, and also whether such clusters have enhanced destination economic resilience.

The spatial clustering of tourist attractions in Tripoli's city centre has helped to attract more tourists and consequently to create more jobs and multiplier effects. In Tripoli the majority of tourist attractions and accommodation are clustered in and around the city centre. This spatial proximity has added a competitive advantage for tourist products as the tourists save money on transportation as this arrangement allows them to walk around the city centre and to interact with local culture and experience more during their visit. The compatibility and complementarity linkages between nearby attractions clustered in the city centre are strong since tourists on fixed tour packages often visit very many of the attractions. In addition, the proximity of the accommodation allows tourists to revisit nearby places and explore the city in more detail by themselves and without a need for a guide. A reviewer stated that *"The Square is surrounded by other Tripoli main attractions, like Tripoli Castle, Tripoli Medina or the sea side. Palm trees around the square and a fountain add an exotic taste to a pleasurable city centre. Green Square has one minus as it is a noisy place. Traffic circles the square and it is full of speeding cars, day and night. Especially in the night time, the square full of people can be attractive"* (tomek18pl, 2007).

The physical proximity of tourist attractions and service amenities has encouraged several private sector businesses to agglomerate in the city centre, particularly around the Old Medina, Green (Martyr) Square, and Red Castle. This has led to increasing congestion and land prices, however. These clusters have mostly emerged circumstantially within general urbanisation processes and not as a result of a strategic planning. Such spatial clustering helps the tourism products to support each other, benefiting from their diversity, proximity, and complementarity linkages. These linkages help them to achieve the improved economic performance in terms of sales and jobs, but it has not necessarily improved the central area due to its deteriorating quality in terms of congestion, crowds and unplanned growth of businesses. By contrast, Alkhoms depends only on two physically separate tourism products – the local beach resort and the Leptis Magna site – that are consumed by different types of tourists – domestic tourists and international tourists – in different seasons. Thus, these primary tourism products are unable to utilize their spatial proximity to build linkages, and as a result they are less competitive, more seasonal and more vulnerable and less adaptable and resilient.

With most of Tripoli's tourist attractions spatially concentrated in and around the city centre, tourists can visit most of them due to their proximity. There is one spatial cluster in Tripoli, which is the city centre cluster including Old Medina. The heaviest concentrated

part of the cluster includes the primary tourist attractions within the Old Medina walls, with various private and public sector businesses conglomerated around the primary attractions and giving tourists the opportunity to visit and revisit the cultural and historical places and enjoy shopping, dining, interaction with locals, and having a bath in traditional hammams or spas. Table 8.2 presents the activities and businesses inside the Old Medina walls.

Table 8-2: Activities and Products in the Old Medina Cluster

Activity	Products and Services
Educational	Religious Schools (Manarat)
Health-Care	Hammams (traditional spas), and Traditional Cosmetics
Commercial Sooqs	Traditional Clothes and Shoes
	Gold and Silver
	Handicrafts and Souvenirs
Hospitality	Boutique Hotels
	Cafés and Teahouses
	Traditional Restaurants
Cultural	Museums and Art Galleries
	Old Mosques
	Churches and Synagogues
	Archaeology and Historical Buildings

Source: Compiled by the Author

This product cluster can be described as an informal economic union that generates internal complementarities and competition among businesses and that might improve the competitiveness and the adaptation ability of the cluster. A reviewer states that *"If you believe you can get a product for a better price, simply ask another vendor in an adjoining stall what they might charge you for the same product. This grouping of similar goods and services tends to offer the visitor a wider range of products at competitive prices"* (Bob and Sherri, 2010). A respondent also stated that *"The large number of services and the diversity of tourist attractions in the city centre attract shoppers and tourists, help them to visit and do whatever they want without the use of transportation. Also that help us to benefit from the size and diversity of the demand, which is increasing because of the existence of Old Medina, Saraya museum, shops, and restaurants"* (Private sector actor 16). Thus, this competition and complementarity linkages in the cluster may increase the ability to adapt the different tastes and achieve better economic resilience.

The outer boundaries of this cluster is bigger and includes various touristic places, such as the Square areas, various museums, WWII graves, religious and historical buildings, beach villages and resorts, shopping malls and centres, sports clubs and exhibitions that

conglomerate in the city centre zone. The primary tourism products within the city centre cluster are physically integrated together through their location proximity, and this helps to attract more tourists to visit the city, which in turn has led to the agglomeration and opening of more shops and businesses in the area to provide supplementary products and services, making it economically more attractive. Therefore, Tripoli receives the largest number of tourists in Libya, benefiting from the spatial clustering of its attractions and products. *"In Tripoli, tourists stay close to the city centre where almost all tourist attractions and hotels are located"* (Government officials 4).

The spatial cluster in Tripoli helps the weak and small primary and supporting tourism products within and nearby the cluster to make economies through building complementary linkages between them. Ewen *et al.*, (2007) argue that clustering itself should not be seen as a formula for growth; rather it is the resulting ability of attractions to collaborate to lower production costs and innovate so they can consistently achieve growth through creating complementary linkages that satisfy tourists and offer more opportunities for firms within the cluster. Accordingly, the clustering of attractions within Tripoli helps tourists to save transportation costs, a saving that may be used to buy other products or services within the cluster. In addition, businesses in the cluster reduce the delivery and marketing costs through such accumulation thus gaining more competitive advantage and a better inherent resilience position.

Entrepreneurial management is vital to building synergies between similar and dissimilar attractions that are located within the clusters. Thematically, the museums and archaeology sites share the theme of cultural tourism. The museums and archaeology sites are owned by the government and managed by the General Authority for Antiquities and Museums Department (G.A.A.M.D). In some cases these museums organise staff exchanges to solve problems and share knowledge via participation into training programmes and attending seminars, but there are no signs of collaboration between these attractions for marketing. A key problem here is that the public attraction manager lacks independence in decision making, with policies for pricing, the issuing of tickets, activities, recruiting employees, opening hours, and the new developments still being decided by top government officials instead of operational management. In part this is because the state recruits and pays the salaries for all public sector organisations' employees and not the institutions that they are working for. For example, the manager of Leptis Magna site stated that the *"entry tickets are issued by the Ministry of Treasury and they contain information about the price on one*

side of the ticket, and the other side is empty and it is not used for advertisements as you can find in tickets for museums in Europe" (Public sector actor 4). In addition, none of these very important attractions for Libyan tourism has its own website and there is no specific website for all of them together, meaning that they are poorly placed to market themselves, with this largely being done only by tour operators. Further, although there are several museums in Tripoli, they are not thematically linked together in one entry ticket, despite such an approach potentially helping to reduce promotion costs and supporting the less attractive museums by packaging them with the most attractive ones. Managers of these attractions were unable to act proactively and take risks and invest in building linkages based on attraction proximity and similarity, which might enhance their tourist numbers, attract more tourists of different tastes, and make them more adaptable and resilient.

Developing networks and alliances between tourism actors is necessary to develop strong clusters for greater economic resilience. However, cultural and archaeology sites in Tripoli and Leptis Magna are often packaged with the nearby archaeology site of Sabrata in shorter holiday packages. These three tourist products thematically support each other within the Roman archaeology theme as a distinctive cluster for tourists interested in historical and cultural places. Mixing attractions together in tour packages, however, does not necessarily involve collaboration between the attractions' management to reduce production costs. Developing deliberate synergies between attractions can be important to enhance their resiliency by satisfying tourists at lower cost. However, the fragmented operations of SMEs in these Libyan tourist destinations and the lack of know-how and entrepreneurship have made it difficult to develop effective networks and alliances within this cluster, resulting in lower resilience.

A clustering strategy is mentioned at national level in the Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025, Vol.2: 57-58). This strategy divides the country into 16 geographical circles for spatial and thematic tourism product development, as shown in Figure 8.2.

In identifying these spatial clusters the strategy takes into account the range of dissimilar tourism assets, their geographical proximity, and several other factors, such as human, economic, environmental and natural resources, which are essential for tourism development. According to the tourism plan (2009-2025, Vol.2: 57-58), each cluster was designed to include more than one primary tourism product so that tourists could

experience more than one product within each cluster. This design could help attractions in each cluster to share the same infrastructure, thus reducing the production costs and potentially encouraging the managers of tourism products in each cluster to collaborate together to attract more investments for better competitiveness.

In the future it is possible the strategy will encourage more interconnectivity and linkages between products within these clusters, whether deliberately or circumstantially, based on complementarity and compatibility features, and thus potentially it could boost Libya's destination inherent resilience. On the other hand, however, the plan does not explain how the tourism products within any single cluster or several clusters should develop networks and alliances. In practice new regulations, revised organisational arrangements, and use of sophisticated technologies may be required in order to establish collaboration and partnership based on sharing knowledge and distributing costs and on learning from experiences to improve overall economic performance and resilience.

8.2.2.4 Diversification into New Sophisticated Tourist Products

Diversification into more sophisticated tourism products that appeal to higher spending tourists can be important for inherent economic resilience. Nelson (2003) argues that the continued growth of tourism requires tourism product diversification to increase place capacity and to improve the visitor experience. Butler (2011) asserts that destinations that fail to offer a range of attraction offerings are likely very quickly to fall out of favour with consumers. Nowadays, tourists are more knowledgeable in their selections, in part due to their increased use of sophisticated technologies and media to collect destination information and to make comparisons based on what kind of added experiences and value the selected places can offer them. The new style of tourists reputedly are more sophisticated and more interested in tailor-made tours in smaller groups that offer them more freedom of choice, and allow them to be actively immersed in local cultures and nature, and entail using all their senses in learning and enjoying the new experiences. Thus, the destinations that only offer standardised packages of tourism products may increasingly face challenges, especially with the increasing spread of information technologies (Buhalis and O'Connor, 2005).

Libya's dependence on the mass low cost product of beach tourism almost exclusively for domestic tourism would benefit from some shift to a higher cost product through

diversification into heritage and cultural tourism. This would add spending opportunities for domestic and international tourism – it would offer a supplementary product to beach tourism in order to increase and spread the economic benefits spatially, socially and among economic sectors.

Lack of alternatives to beach resorts for domestic tourism, combined with a lack of government control systems and low competency in the private sector, have led to an evolving of an unsustainable pattern of concentrated development at the coastal beaches in both case study areas. An interviewee from Alkhoms' local tourism authority explained why beach resorts had developed as a mass, seasonal concentrated product. He stated that, *"beach tourism began to grow a decade ago when the private sector was allowed to invest in small beach resorts through seasonal contracts with the local authorities, and that allowed more investors to enter and lead the development in an uncontrolled manner. The increased demand, and the inability of the local authorities to provide alternatives for residents, has led to the concentration on domestic demand in the beach resorts"* (Government official 10). The lack of alternative attractions has led domestic tourists to focus their demand on the beach resorts, especially as domestic tourists are influenced by long summer school holidays, so that there is intensified demand in the summer season. This peaking of demand has contributed to the deterioration and overcrowding associated with Libya's beach tourism, and also added to its low resiliency. Diversification as a potential solution for the economic vulnerability problem in tourism can also be a partial solution for other problems, such unemployment, environmental deterioration, and enhancing local people's sense of identity, national heritage, and well-being. Cultural tourism can also be promoted to the local population as having the major benefit that it is an important educational and promotional tool in bringing Libya's heritage and cultural features to the notice of a global market. The wealth and richness of the heritage and cultural resources can help to boost positive external images of the country.

The failure to diversify into more sophisticated active products, such as sports and adventure tourism, and also to connect them with cultural attractions, has hindered Libya's ability to build a strong brand for its policy for "value added tourism". The international tourists in this study were asked whether anything could be added to make the destinations they visited more worth visiting. A respondent in Leptis Magna stated that *"Well, I love golf. I wished there was a golf course here close to Leptis Magna. That will amuse people like me"* (International tourist 2). Another tourist complained that *"Leptis Magna is*

incredible but there is nothing else to do after visiting Leptis Magna, so we went back to Tripoli. Tripoli city has more life" (International tourist 1), and another one responded to the question about what could usefully be added by saying *"Lots – the ones that you get in any other capital – bus tours, tourist info with walking tours, etc"* (International tourist 5). Therefore, product diversification, combined with branding and imaging, are big challenges that are essential for Libyan tourism to penetrate into more markets thus sustaining the economic resilience.

In the case of Libyan tourism, the main origin market is Western Europe, as can be seen in Figure 6.15, which has become highly sophisticated, partly due to the spread of smart ICT. The internet offers tourists in developed countries more knowledge and accessibility to interact with tourism suppliers who have opportunities to design specific packages to satisfy the needs of tourists who are seeking more sophisticated holidays (Buhalis and O'connor, 2005). In this context, Libyan tourism faces a very strong challenge to maintain its traditional market as the country's tourism industry largely depended on marketing pre-packaged and inflexible tours that are basically designed based on the supply side perceptions, and also due to the very poor tourism e-marketing (Al-Hasan, *et al.*, 2003).

As recognised from Figures 6.2 and 6.3, Tripoli and Alkhoms largely depend on a narrow range of passive tourist products that are designed to be seen without real active engagement by tourists and do not meet some of the needs of more sophisticated tourists. While Tripoli has slightly diversified into new forms of tourism, such as business tourism, scuba adventure and sports, Alkhoms mainly depends on the archaeology site of Leptis Magna to attract inbound tourists. Thus, Tripoli has more capacity than Alkhoms to attract more tourists from different market segments. Such differences between the two cases have helped Tripoli to gain more tourism growth than that of Alkhoms. Thus, Tripoli's tourism sector offered more job vacancies and attracted more investors to build more hotels and to establish more businesses. Thus, product diversification has improved the ability of Tripoli's tourism not only to reduce seasonality effects but also to enable the sector to easily switch to specific tourism products in the case of the decline of other products, making it more resilient and robust.

The integration of international and domestic tourism sectors could enhance their substitutability in difficult times and it could also reduce the seasonality effect. In the case of beach tourism in Libya, it might be highly risky to diversify into marinas or enclave

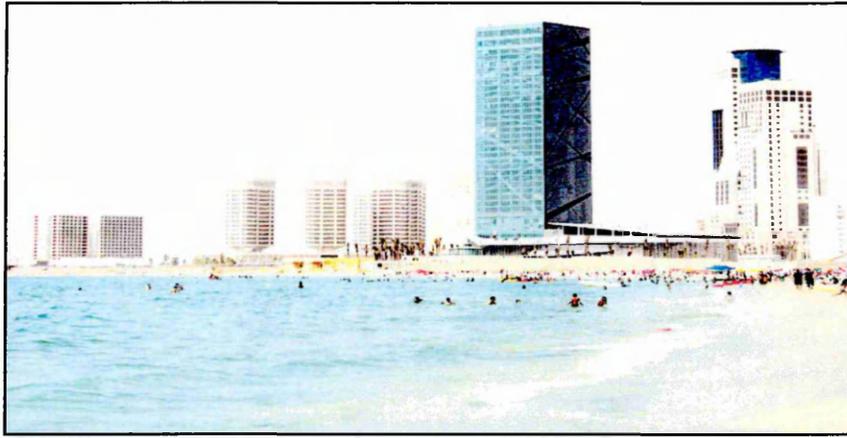
luxury tourism in order to attract international western tourists. The cultural and income differences between western and domestic tourists, and their different market needs, could result in tensions between both sectors rather than an opportunity. Thus, carefully considering the cultural and income dimensions in planning strategies could be critical in establishing diversification. Libya is one of 21 Arab Muslim nations in which Islamic culture dominates. And globally, Muslims constitute 24% of the world's population, or 1.65 billion people (Kettani, 2010), giving the possibility to diversify beach tourism to attract Arab and international Muslim tourists in order to reduce cultural conflicts and seasonality of demand through substitutability, and in order to sustain resilience.

However, the lack of diversified tourism products, lack of accommodation, and the small size specifically of Alkhoms city are all issues that discourage international tourists from staying longer than a few hours in the city. These factors all result in a significant loss of economic returns for the destination making the sector poorly inadaptable and less resilient than Tripoli's tourism sector.

The concentration of much of Libya's urbanisation and development in Tripoli city has increased the development of beach tourism to meet the large demand in Tripoli, which is much greater than in Alkhoms, resulting in an unbalanced socioeconomic and geographical development. Huypers (2007: 5) states that "although the tourism sector has grown very fast in developing countries, those nations encountered several problems such as the creation of separate enclaves, the reinforcement of socioeconomic and spatial inequalities, environmental destruction, and rising cultural alienation".

In Tripoli, residential and beach resorts such as Palm city and Regatta, shown in Figures 5.10 and 5.11 respectively, were developed as separate enclaves to be consumed by upmarket domestic and foreign tourists and residents. These places and the municipal beach resort close to Tripoli city centre (Figure 8.4) are cleaner and provide better services for tourists because of the proximity of services and the public government institutions that apply some quality control measures in Tripoli. By contrast, it was observed that rural areas and places farther from the city centre suffer from less attention from government, including a lack of services, and these places suffer from the dumping of waste and garbage.

Figure 8-4: Municipal Beach Resort in Tripoli City Crowded with People



Source: http://www.temehu.com/tours/zuwarah_beach_holiday.htm

Such inequality of development has furthered the concentration of businesses in Tripoli and created social class segregation on the basis of wealth, as expressed by an interviewed tour guide: *“Only rich families can stay in Reggata and Janzour Villages. These villages are not for normal people who need to carry their tents and food by themselves to spend some time at open beaches or at low quality resorts away from Tripoli”* (Private sector actor 16). The generally low quality and lack of diversification in beach tourism has deterred tour operators from promoting beach resorts for international tourists, and it has also encouraged upmarket domestic tourists, in terms of rich Libyan families, to travel to spend their summer holidays at beach resorts in neighbour countries, and this has resulted in the loss of a significant market segment. One domestic tourist, for example, stated that *“I spent one month last summer holiday in Tunis with my family in Djerba beaches. In Tunis we rented a house close to the beach where we enjoyed playing and swimming and we hired water motorbikes, parasailing. These things are not available here”* (Domestic tourist 3). In this context it is worth mentioning that, according to Andy McDonough (reported in Global Arab Network), Tunisia received more than 1.5 million Libyan tourists in 2009, and 1.8 million in 2010 according to Business Monitor International report published in 2011. Thus, destinations that lack diversity and more sophisticated products are avoided by significant market segments, leading to reduced economic resilience.

The focus on comparative advantage of sun, sea, and sand with an unclean and poor quality character has also intensified seasonality and has made it difficult to spread demand over a longer period. Turning comparative advantages of tourist destinations to competitive advantages is important to sustain destination uniqueness and attractiveness (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003) and that could improve adaptation capacity of tourism to cope with changes.

Libya's beach tourism still depends on the comparative advantage of warm blue waters, sunshine and sandy beaches, rather than competitive advantages by adding new water and sport activities. Thus, one government interviewee stated that *"The private beach resorts are very basic and less than what people want. I think, tourists now need something more exciting, more adventure, and these are not available yet"* (Government actor 4). Another government official commented: *"I think beach tourism will not continue in such a manner of crowding and low quality of services. Most of them provide the same things, so what is the point for a tourist to prefer one than another. So we won't be able to position beach tourism for international tourists until we connect that with culture and heritage places. That needs time and money"* (Government official 3). Consequently, it is unlikely that Libya's beach tourism will be able to adapt to satisfy visitors and compete with rivals until it diversifies into more products based on competitive advantages and has products that can be consumed all year round.

A further implication is that the concentration policies by promoting Leptis Magna's archaeological attraction have meant it attracts only a small portion of the international tourism market. According to the Tourism Master Plans and supply side interviewees the majority of international tourists are older people interested in archaeology and heritage attractions and they come mainly from a very small number of European tourism markets, particularly Italy, France, Germany and the UK, as shown earlier in Figure 6.18. The lack of complementary attractions at archaeology sites has made it difficult for these places to draw other potential market segments, such as young people and domestic tourists. Thus, the concentration on one theme or in one place can potentially entail an inability to penetrate new markets and a low capability to cope with new market demands, and hence reduced economic resilience.

The concentration on promoting the archaeology site of Leptis Magna for international tourists as a single product in Alkhoms has significantly lowered this destination's economic resilience. Although the international arrivals in Libya grew by 137% between 1995 and 2008, according to the Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025, Vol.1: 8) the tourism sector in Alkhoms has not secured as much growth in economic returns as Tripoli. According to an interviewee from Alkhoms tourism authority *"Leptis attracts only those people who enjoy learning history and culture, but Tripoli attracts various types of tourists who can enjoy shopping, trekking, swimming, and attending festivals and sport events and exhibitions. The opportunity for tour operators and hoteliers to make business in Tripoli is*

greater than here" (Government official 10). The lack of variety of tourist products that could attract various types of tourists to Alkhoms has limited job creation and the value of tourists' receipts, and it has reduced the economic resilience and made it more vulnerable to experience declines.

Lack of tourism product diversification and poor quality of beach resorts in both cases has forced tour operators to develop tour packages for international tourists based on connecting the cultural products with other natural and cultural products found elsewhere in the country, often at some distance away. The analysis of travel packages presented in Table 7.8 showed the dominance of cultural heritage tourism for international tourists for both case study areas. A tour operator stated that *"To develop tour packages we divide Libya into four main areas based on the number of days tourists will stay. Tripolitania visits take no longer than 4 to 5 days. In this package tourists will visit Tripoli, Sabrata and Leptis Magna. Because there are not many things to see and do in Tripoli and at the Leptis Magna site we add other places for longer visits"* (Private sector actor 15). Karcher (1994) argues that re-engineering tourism business activities in the production and marketing of package holidays through the assembly and sale of new types of packages can help to reduce threats of high competition imposed by technological developments and to cater for more sophisticated tourist demands. Therefore, diversification into more primary tourist products will be important for both case study areas in order to develop strong and flexible tour packages that could sustain their inherent economic resilience.

The strategy to diversify into more products in Tripolitania region, where both case study areas are located, is mentioned in the Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025, Vol.2: 80). It highlights the need to conserve historical buildings and to develop services and accommodation near to them in order to attract new markets, and the strategy also includes developing new protected areas, sport centres, scuba diving clubs, golf courses, yachting ports, museums, and festivals and cultural events. But in practice much investment has actually been concentrated on the general infrastructure: *"Libya at the moment attracts cultural tourists and those who are attracted by the desert. We are planning to diversify into more tourist products to attract new markets and increase the economic potential of tourism. So, most of the investment has been allocated to the infrastructure that is needed. Fortunately, the investment in infrastructure and other sectors has created business tourism, which is an important new market"* (Government official 4). But some clearly tourism-specific investment has occurred. Some plans had already being implemented in

Tripoli, for example, where new museums were opened and others were under construction. New exhibitions and conference areas had been created to attract more business tourists, and real estate buildings, shopping malls and new quality hotels had been built in order to improve the overall image of the metropolitan city of Tripoli. To meet the increased demand of international tourists and domestic visitors, more beach villages that included various activities had also been developed or were intended to be developed.

By contrast, the new developments in Alkhoms were still only future plans. Thus, the diversification strategy in Tripoli had increased the capacity of this destination to achieve economic growth through creating new jobs and attracting more businesses, and had helped it to compete nationally. The availability of many new facilities and of more infrastructures has made Tripoli more economically resilient than Alkhoms.

8.2.3 Exogenous Variables

These variables are also linked to the inherent resilience concept, where they represent the capacity to adopt policies that could help tourism sector to be more adaptable with changes.

8.2.3.1 Government Role

Government intervention through establishing strong quality control systems is often important to accomplish sustainable development and maintain economic resilience. Sharpley and Telfer contended that "In developing countries the problem of resource scarcity and consequently allocation is acute. Strong government control is necessary to prevent exploitation and obvious waste, and to ensure that the benefits from tourism are optimized" (2002: 172).

The Libyan tourism sector's development is still slow and underdeveloped (Jones, 2010). Thus, potentially to control and direct the development of tourism products as unique products that can add value of experience for tourists could be relatively simple since most potential tourism resources are untouched and no major deterioration has happened. This potentially could lower the costs of developments and also help to ensure sustainability from early stages of development through consistent regulations and actions. There is a need to eliminate unwanted circumstantial developments and to ensure deliberate developments occur based on strong quality measures and sustainability requirements. But

in practice the absence of government intervention has encouraged unsustainable developments in some tourism projects, such as in local resorts and enclave areas. The absence of quality control measures in these places has led to deteriorating the beaches which will be unable to attract larger tourist numbers in future. *"Each year, there is an increase in the number of beach resorts. And this phenomenon is good in economic terms, but over the years the number of consumers has been decreasing and every year became lower because of low quality services. Additionally, a lot of people prefer to travel to neighbouring countries where the beaches are more attractive and higher quality services are available at affordable prices"* (Government official 9). Another interviewee stated that *"summer resorts are a big problem for the tourism sector because of the negative impacts on the environment at these beaches. The problem is that the tourism sector cannot stop this problem because issuing licences is the responsibility of the utilities sector"* (Government official 3). Thus, due to the private sector's low competency to maintain sustainable development, the effective government interference becomes essential not only to eliminate the negative impacts of tourism development but also to sustain the resilience of tourism products and destinations.

In Libya the lack of suitable government regulations that control tourism developments, and the focus on economic returns from tourism for the private sector, have led to inability to sustainably develop the coastal beaches. Opening the door for private sector investment in tourism projects has boosted domestic demand for beach resorts in the summer but at the cost of putting high pressure on social and ecological systems. An interviewee from the local tourism authority in Alkhoms observed how *"domestic tourism development has been left to the private sector, which has concentrated on beach tourism and the hotel sector. There is no real support from government and its control is weak, resulting in low quality and less attractive resorts. These resorts have created social conflicts and environmental problems"*(Government official 10).

By law these beach resorts are not allowed to operate all night, but in practice none of them obey the law as most resorts do not close and the businesses run throughout the nights for the people who want to stay. Thus, some illegal incidents occur due to the behaviour of some young people at these resorts late at night. According to one private sector operator, *"The problems in the family resorts like this one are less than that occur in male resorts, especially in the night time. Some young people illegally drink alcohol and some of them turn up the music very loudly and disturb others or they fight for different reasons, which*

means these places are not safe at night" (Private sector actor 9). Such problems impact on the reputation of these places, and thus they are avoided by many local tourists making them less resilient. Moreover, according to the contracts the resort managers are responsible for protecting the environment from trash and damage. But in reality, it was observed that piles of rubbish and other damages were left behind in the beaches at the end of the summer season, as shown in Figures 8.5 and 8.6 from Alkhoms and Figure 8.7 from Tripoli.

Figure 8-5: A Deteriorating Private Beach Resort in the Alkhoms City Area, 2010



Source: the author

Figure 8-6: Trash in Uncontrolled Developments at Ganeema Resorts in the Alkhoms Area, 2010



Source: the author

Figure 8-7: Poor Quality Tourist Facilities at Tajoura Beach in Tripoli, 2010



Source: the author

Due to the lack of government control and support these resorts are rarely penalised for the pollution and damage they cause. This situation has fostered the blame culture among both the public and private sectors instead of supporting the collaboration culture. For example, one private sector operator noted that *"We provide rubbish bags for our visitors, but the government does not collect rubbish at regular times so it sometimes gathers for several weeks and it becomes a problem. And the government does not support us to solve these problems"* (Private sector actor 13). However, although there is no documented data or previous research about beach tourism development and the damage they cause, it does appear from this study that most beach resorts developed in both case study areas by the private sector face huge future problems in terms of quality experience they provide for local tourists.

Lack of diversification has intensified the seasonality effect due to relying on one concentrated product. The private local resorts provide very basic services, such as umbrellas, chairs, tents, and huts made from wood and palm leaves. These resorts are not really diversified either vertically into sophisticated primary tourist products, such as outdoor and indoor water sports or horizontally by connecting beach tourism with business, cultural and heritage products. Although there is little diversification by connecting scuba-diving with visiting archaeology and cultural tourism products that offered by a very limited number of tour operators, such as C-Libya and Arkno, these products lack are quality services and regulations and safety measures. Thus, these beach resorts are unlikely easily to meet the future more sophisticated tourists' demand. Therefore, adopting diversification strategies and collaboration between government and

private sector are probably important to maintain quality and to ensure the adaptation of the beach resorts to meet more demand in the long term.

However, the government plans to develop beach tourism areas in both case study areas are considerable, as shown in Tables 6.2 and 6.3, but have not yet been implemented. If these projects come to reality as they are planned to be high quality destinations, offering diversity of tourism and sport activities, then beach tourism might become stronger and better placed to attract tourists all year round, and this might sustain these destinations inherent economic resilience. But if these resorts and beach areas continue to be developed by the private sector unsustainably without strong quality control regulations and support from the public sector, then they could intensify the problems of poor quality, exceeding the capacity, waste and conflicts, leading to incapability to adapt with the needs and expectations of sophisticated tourists. Thus, the result would be low economic resilience.

Lack of commitment from the State has also contributed to the failure of the public and private sectors to coordinate their efforts, making them operating in separate and maybe in conflict. Such separate efforts have increased the costs of production and management, which in turn lowered the competitiveness, and reduced their capacity to adopt adaptable, flexible strategies to overcome crises and achieve better resilience. The tourism planners established the Libyan Tourism Master Plan (LTMP, 1999-2018) in order to encourage government decision makers to diversify the economic base into tourism as a way to improve the country's economic performance and reduce its dependency on oil. Up to the study period the plan had only been partially implemented, and it was also revised and improved after the major changes and improvements in political and economic relationships between Libya and other Western countries. The revision in 2008 resulted in the LTMP for 2009-2025. The master plan includes various aspects, such as tourism product development, marketing, human resource development, and regulatory and institutional reforms. The LTMP plan is very broad, and in order to make it implementable it was divided into three temporal stages of development plans: short term (2009-2013), medium term (up to 2018), and long term (up to 2025). This temporal division was intended to help achieve the urgent requirement of infra- and super-structure developments related tourism in the early stages, and also to allow the required adjustments in plans and policies according to future changes. An interviewee from the tourism authority stated that *"The lack of funds and experience in tourism, either in the private or public sectors, dictated that we develop a very broad strategy as a guiding vision, and then tourism plans*

were divided into short, medium and long term. This helps to focus on priorities, reduce risks, and make revisions and amendments to cope with market changes" (Government official 3).

To implement the policies, the plan emphasized the importance of creating the National Tourism Council that was supposed to include people from both the private and public sectors, as recommended by Item (12) of the Law No. 7/2007. This Council has responsibility for coordinating the efforts of different sectors to ensure sustainable development by monitoring and supervising the quality control of tourism developments. Unfortunately, at the time of the present research this Council had not been established, and that had further hindered partnership development between the private and public sectors (LTMP, 2009-2025, Vol.1: 121). Thus, much of the contribution of the private sector to tourism product development was specifically concentrated on beach resorts and services, and this often occurred in an unsustainable manner due to the lack of control and support from the government towards sustainability matters. A government interviewee stated that *"There is some cooperation between the various sectors in tourism, especially in the exhibitions and in tourism marketing, but there is no strategic framework to continue working together for competing globally, and thus cooperation ends between these institutions by the end of the events"* (Public sector actor 4).

A clear vision and realistic coherent plans and successful implementation are valuable factors to sustain tourist destination economic resilience. The short term objectives for the period 2009-2013 of the tourism strategy in relation to tourist attractions and products are to brand Libyan tourism as high quality or "value added tourism" since the focus is to attract tourists who are seeking cultural and natural attractions in an alternative tourism form. Thus a government official stated that *"our plans are to keep attracting cultural tourists. Mass tourism would not be possible in the short and medium term strategies because there is a substantial lack of accommodation and a low quality of services, and such requirements will need huge funds and a long time"* (Government official actor 3). A tourist guide also stated that *"We want to get a lot more people here, but not mass market tourists like next door in Tunisia"* (Donkin, 2005). Also, the short term strategy focused on maintaining and restoring deteriorating tourist attractions, increasing the accommodation capacity to 35,075 beds, sustaining domestic tourism, and developing needed infrastructure. The medium and long term objectives are developing the accommodation capacity to reach 100,000 beds, offering 225,000 direct jobs by the period end, widening

and diversifying into beach tourism for international tourists, and prolonging tourist stays by connecting heritage and beach tourism together.

Despite the optimistic plans, the implementation processes had not followed the determined time frameworks. For example, the number of new beds that were planned to be developed in Tripoli and Alkhoms, between 2009-2013, is shown in Table 8.3, and also Table 8.4 that presents the planned number of new trained people to be offered work in tourism in years 2009-2013. But many of these tourism projects were delayed or cancelled due to several obstacles, and tourism sector has not achieved its economic goals and arguably it has become less resilient.

Table 8-3: The New Hotel Beds Required in Tripoli and Alkhosm, 2009-2013

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Total
Number of beds	0	625	2,000	3,600	4,750	10,975

Source: Libyan Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025, Vol.4: 23)

Table 8-4: Numbers of Required Jobs in the Tourism Industry in Years, 2009-2013

Year	Leaders	Skilled People	Semi-skilled People	Total
2009	906	1,865	1,931	4,700
2010	1,698	3,080	2,926	7,020
2011	1,682	6,891	6,491	15,080
2012	2,382	11,872	11,395	25,650
2013	3,322	15,062	15,275	33,660
Total	9,320	38,770	38,018	86,110

Source: Libyan Tourism Master Plan (2009-2013, Vol.4:46)

Although there are significant differences between Tripoli and Alkhoms in respect of number of hotels and number of SMEs, such as tour operators and travel agencies, the achieved number of beds and jobs so far is much less than that targeted by the plans. According to the head of the tourism planning department, in an interview for Almasalla (Almasall for Arab Tourism News, 2011), this puts doubts around how realistic these plans are, and certainly they need auditing and revision.

Indeed, the overall vision about tourism's potential at governmental decision making level was uncertain. At the time of the survey most supply side interviewees pointed out that the government did not trust tourism as a potential economic sector due to the huge investments that the sector required in order for it to be competitive. They felt that instead the government continued to focus on oil as an easy sector for economic development. One government respondent argued that *"there is no real will from the government to develop*

tourism. The government still prefer to invest in the oil industry" (Public sector actor 3). Another interviewee contended that *"Tourism projects will need huge amounts of investment and the government does not want to do that on its own because tourism is a very sensitive and vulnerable sector"* (Government official 2). Moreover, in a survey carried out by Tumi, Omran and Pakir (2009: 269) regarding the causes of delays in the construction industry- including tourism projects- in Libya, they identified the most significant causes are improper planning, a lack of effective communication, design errors, shortage of supply, slow decision making, and financial issues. Thus, an often slow and ineffective implementation process to cope with the increasing tourist demand mean that the tourism sector is less adaptable and could not substitute the decline in the oil sector, resulting in reduced inherent economic resilience.

8.2.3.2 Community Participation and Involvement

Community participation and involvement in tourism planning, implementation and operation is often needed to improve economic resilience. Communities impact on, and are impacted by, tourism developments (Simmons, 1994: 98). McKercher (1993: 13), for instance, states that "Tourism cannot exist in social isolation from the host community". Tosun (2000) emphasises that community participation in tourism development is necessary for sustainability, where involvement of the host community in tourism planning and development potentially can help to transfer and share knowledge and skills among community members and businesses, keeping the community positively interested in tourism development (Murphy, 1985), and that could make the host community and local culture more resilient, cohesive, and adaptable with tourism demand changes. The positive impacts of tourism development on communities can be through creating new jobs, and improving community lifestyle and income; while the negative impacts can include road congestion, parking inaccessibility, litter, increasing commercial rents and land prices, and crime and safety problems. Thus, integrating host community needs within tourism planning and development potentially can strengthen tourism growth while also reducing the conflicts and negative impacts of tourism development, which in turn may sustain further development and longer term resilience.

However, the community is a wide concept and it can include all stakeholders in a host community, such as residents, local businesses, tourist guides, and even immigration and customs officers. In order to enlarge the benefits for both tourists and local people, and to

mitigate tourism's negative impacts and ensure long term inherent resilience, community involvement in the planning and implementation of tourism projects can be very important. "Community participation in the tourism planning process is advocated as a way of implementing sustainable tourism" (Okazaki, 2008: 511). Further, the community is an essential ingredient of the tourism product itself in terms of hospitality and welcome, authentic customs and traditions, and so on. Moreover, diversification into more attractions requires more services and employees from the local community, so that it can be important for the community to improve its knowledge and skills. Such improved knowledge can enable the attractions to function better and help to create new collaboration arrangements to develop new, innovative tourist products in order to keep competitiveness and resist decline. Thus, a knowledgeable and skilful local community can help to ensure wider and effective participation of local people in economic resilience enhancement.

The resistance of residents to tourism development can be a major problem hindering tourism development. However, the tourism sector's weak economic contribution and issues around its viability, as explained in Chapter Five section 5.2.5.1, has meant that it has been difficult to gain local people's support for tourism development. Thus, the majority of Libyans are not yet fully aware about the sector's positive role and about their own potential contribution to it. This is aided by an absence of communication between planners and decision makers and local people about the importance of community support for developing tourism, and indeed there has been some conflicts and opposition against some tourism projects (Gunn, 1972). For instance, when asked about whether there is a need to develop more tourism projects in Alkhoms, one respondent replied that *"the problem with tourism development in Alkhoms is the resistance of local people, particularly in Celine, Ganeema and Garaboli. People in these coastal rural and farm areas feel that they will lose their land and their culture through tourism development. Several projects were not implemented because local people made complaints to the courts to keep their land"* (Government official 10). Similarly, another interviewee stated that *"Beach tourism in Alkhoms faces challenges from local people who refuse to accept the compensation offered for their land that had been identified for the construction of beach resorts and villages. People prefer to sell them at higher prices, for those people have the power to secure better compensation from the government. So the land prices in coastal areas have suddenly become in millions"* (Government official 11). However, the populations of the targeted areas for tourism development in both case study areas are not

willing to relocate within the country. They maintain the lands they own for agriculture and herding, although they are not productive, and also for tribal considerations because no tax obligations are imposed on owners of large areas of land, and also because there is an unawareness about the importance of tourism development. Therefore, the government needs to communicate with them to soften these cultural obstacles and it also needs to establish new laws regarding land-owning taxation and development.

These conflicts have resulted in part from the lack of local people's involvement in the early stages of planning, not only as a mitigation approach but also to maintain support from local people in the later stages of implementation and operation. Popular support is unlikely if people are not aware and they do not perceive the positive contribution of tourism development for them as individuals. This requires government organisations to engage in communication programmes to educate local people about tourism and about how they might participate positively in more sustainable development. Lack of communication between tourism planners and communities has blurred the strategic objectives of tourism development for local communities, resulting in conflicts instead of collaboration. The Leptis Magna site's manager stated that *"I have heard about some planned projects in Alkhoms. A 5-star hotel and leisure centre in Leptis Area, also big tourism projects close to Villa Celine and Negazza beaches. But nothing has appeared yet. One of many problems is for the land owners where the land compensation offered is not fair, and some people do not want tourism development in their areas"* (Public sector actor 4). Such conflicts have hindered tourism development by alienating some investors (Tumi, Omran and Pakir. 2009), and this has reduced the sector's growth and reduced its economic resilience to meet the growing demand. Thus, successful diversification strategies may well require improved dialogue and a sharing of ideas with local communities to ensure their active participation in planning and implementation strategies, which in turn might enhance the economic resilience.

Community involvement in planning is probably also required in relation to integrating international tourism and domestic tourism more fully, so as to increase substitutability between these markets and thus to boost economic resilience and adaptability. The increased number of types and classes of hotels in Tripoli has increased the tourism sector's capacity there to receive more and different types of international tourists. By contrast, domestic family tourists in Libya are not keen to use hotels during their holidays, and they prefer to be housed instead at their relatives' homes or in rented self-contained

accommodation. Thus, one governmental official noted how *"Libyan families travel and visit their relatives and stay with them rather than staying in hotels. That is cheaper for them, and also they prefer renting flats or houses when they travel as families"* (Government official 4). However, the tourist accommodation sector has been slow to meet the specific requirements of domestic tourists, not sufficiently taking into account their distinctive society and culture, and associated preferences. The large size of many Libyan (extended) families, for example, means that staying in hotels can be prohibitively costly for families that receive only a modest income. Further, western style hotels do not fit with local culture, with Libyan families preferring to rent the whole of a small flat or house in beach resorts, rather than using single hotel bedrooms and mixing with strangers in hotels. These cultural differences, and the related accommodation needs, reduce the substitutability between international and domestic tourism, including between their different off-peak seasons and in times of crisis. There is probably a need here to involve local people in the planning and design of tourist accommodation in order to make it more adaptable and resilient.

In order to improve the accommodation sector's adaptability to meet different types of needs, the Master Plan (2009-2025, Vol.1: 14) recommends developing large resorts and camps that contain 100-200 flats and chalets of different sizes and at low prices to accommodate families. Also, the plan calls for encouraging citizens who wish to rent their homes or some rooms in their houses on the basis of bed and breakfast. This policy potentially might encourage domestic tourism and substitutability between international and domestic tourism, thus improving destination economic resilience.

8.2.3.3 Reliable Infrastructure

Reliable infrastructure is needed to increase tourism's capacity to achieve growth and also to interconnect various tourism products (Draghici et al., 2010; Oppermann and Chon, 1997) leading to sustain the tourism sector's adaptability against turbulence, enabling it to be more resilient. Tyrrell and Johnson (2007) found that the level of infrastructure development is one among several factors that is critical to enable the tourism system to recover from tourism-induced stress. Building a strong infrastructure base is costly. Thus, errors in the planning and implementation of infrastructure development policies not only lead to destruction of the environment but also to economic losses, as built infrastructure

that is incapable of supporting the flexibility of tourism products and thus reduces the capacity to adapt to changes in demand means that there is less resilience.

The urbanisation of Libya's cities has been in response to the country's rapid macro-economic changes (UN Habitat, 2007). The development of infrastructure in Tripoli had progressed faster than that in Alkhoms, which itself had promoted faster tourism growth in Tripoli. The capital's infrastructure projects were focused on the urban infrastructure schemes, but they also include large hotels, as well as public space or public realm projects, including the creation of green areas, fountains, the paving of roads and waterfront areas, and the restoration of green areas such as public gardens. However, the lack of comprehensive urbanization planning and lack of government controls has led to much arbitrary development in Tripoli, and this has created some significant problems (Ali, *et al.*, 2011). For example, it was observed that many of the private sector low quality small hotels have been built rather randomly in the city centre, so that they often lack parking and cause congestion. A government official noted that,

"Most private hotels built in the city centre do not conform to the tourism development plans. And their removal needs a large amount of financial compensation because most of them are licenced by the government. These crowded hotels cause congestion problems and affect the beauty of the city, but they have also offered more jobs and have helped in reducing the pressure of tourism demand in the city. But in the future they will close because they will not be able to compete with the quality international hotels" (Government official 9).

Despite such unsustainable infrastructure developments in Tripoli, their development has increased the city's flexibility to cope with the increased demand, and improve the city's resilience. By contrast, the lack of infrastructure in Alkhoms has been a major obstacle to improving its resilience.

In addition, the poor infrastructure has led to geographically or thematically concentrating the tourism product development, which in turn has reduced the flexibility and resilience. For instance, the GTB's former Secretary commented that *"It is not enough just to promote our ancient heritage, the sea, the Sahara, Libyan food, music and folk life; we have to build resorts and hotels. Then we have to think about the logistics: airlines and airport services, transportation, telecommunications and the banking system. We need to develop the infrastructure of all these areas to market the tourism product"* (World Report, 2004). Low infrastructure capacity and quality around touristic places has discouraged the

developers from diversifying the country's tourism products. According to one tour operator, *"There are many attractions in Libya and many new products can be developed if the required infrastructure was developed. We still rely on cultural products to attract small numbers of tourists to Tripoli and Leptis Magna, and that is not enough to compete"* (Private sector actor 15).

Thus, without strengthening the infrastructure, the trend in tourism product development is likely to be towards more concentration on those few products that enjoy better infrastructure, probably resulting in less resilient destinations.

8.2.3.4 Small Medium Enterprises (SMEs) Role

It may be important to support tourism-related SMEs in order to ensure flexibility and economic inherent resilience. SMEs can significantly contribute to tourism economic growth despite the small size of many of the individual businesses. The number of Libya's tourism-related SMEs grew rapidly in recent years as a response to tourism growth. Much of this SMEs growth was in Tripoli, however, leading to unbalanced economic growth at a national level. This has encouraged further concentration and emergence of new tourist products in Tripoli, such as shopping and business tourism. However, the growth was not planned based on predicted growth in market demand, and this resulted in high internal competition between these businesses, this being exacerbated by the sharp declines in international tourist flows caused by the introduction of changes in the entry visa regulations, political conflict between Libya and Switzerland, and the international recession. These problems led to the closure of several private sector tourism businesses in Libya between 2008 and 2010, as shown in Table 8.5.

Table 8-5: Trend in the Number of Private Sector Tourism-Related Businesses in Libya, 2008-10

Type of Organisation	2008	2010	Decline%
Tourism Companies	304	266	12.6
Tourism SME's (Family owned Tashrukyat)	459	447	2.6
Travel Offices and Agencies	65	54	16.9

Source: Compiled by Author from Statistics Published by the General Tourism Board (GTB)

Libya's SMEs would be better placed to enhance economic resilience if they had more support from the government to improve their quality, know-how and competitiveness. Jwaili and Al-Hasan (2004) have examined the problems regarding the competitiveness of SMEs in the Libyan tourism sector. They note the problems of their inability to identify the

potential opportunities to develop innovative new tourism products were their lack of know-how to collaborate and build networks to share ideas and experiences to develop more sophisticated and flexible travel packages and market them at competitive prices. Such problems are likely to lower their capability to improve the overall tourism sector's flexibility and adaptability towards better economic resilience. The LTMP (2009-2025, Vol.1: 102) concludes that, despite the increasing number of SMEs operating in the tourism sector, this had not resulted in improvements in services due to the lack of experience and lack of support. However, there were some increasing financial support and tax exemptions from the government for SMEs across all sectors. For example, the Libyan Bank of Development provided loans to a value of LD 957,202,467 million between 2004-2009 to assist SMEs in various businesses and that was reported to have created 36,534 new jobs for Libyans, and among these projects were small hotels, resorts, tour operators, travel agencies, and car rental companies. However, other types of support, such as training and education programmes, and attending international conferences, are still insufficient.

On the ground, the slow development of the tourism industry has been reflected in the slow job creation. Table 8.6 shows that, the tourism sector's contribution to creating new jobs has been very limited, with only 16,782 new jobs being created by tourism over 12 years in the whole country.

Table 8-6: The Job Opportunities Created by Tourism Development

Year	Direct Jobs	Indirect Jobs	Occasional Jobs	Total
1996	5,579	1,395	1,116	8,090
2003	6,221	3,110	2,458	11,789
2008	11,305	7,914	5,653	24,872

Source: LTMP (2009-2025, Vol.1: 102)

However, the average annual increase in the earlier period, 1996-2003, was only 462 new jobs, while between 2003 and 2008 the average annual increase was 2,180 new jobs. Although this rate of increase was fairly low, it does indicate tourism's growth over the period resulting from the lifting of sanctions, the economic reforms towards an open market, and the emergence of new tourism products, particularly in Tripoli, which had helped the tourism industry to bounce back with better economic resilience.

Further, the LTMP (2009-2025) strategy also concerns job creation in sectors associated with the tourism sector's development. Tables 8.7 and 8.8 present the number of jobs the

national strategy predicts will be created over the period 2009-2025 in the hotel sector and café and restaurant sectors respectively.

Table 8-7: The Planned Job Opportunities for Hotel Sector (2009-2025)

Year	Direct Jobs	Indirect Jobs	Occasional Jobs	Total
2009	525	263	263	1,050
2010	1,575	788	788	3,150
2015	6,750	3,375	3,375	13,500
2020	3,000	1,500	1,500	6,000
2025	1,155	578	578	2,310
Total	13,005	6,504	6,504	52,023

Source: LTMP (2009-2025, Vol.2: 84)

Table 8-8: The Planned Job Opportunities for the Café & Restaurant Sector (2009-2025)

Year	Direct Jobs	Indirect Jobs	Occasional Jobs	Total
2009	175	131	131	437
2010	525	394	394	1,313
2015	2,250	1,688	1,688	5,627
2020	1,000	750	750	2,500
2025	385	289	289	913
Total	4,335	3,242	3,242	21,609

Source: LTMP (2009-2025, Vol.2:84)

Although there is a severe lack of data about jobs in the tourism sector in both case study areas, the national strategy clearly indicates tourism's intended direction toward more growth and greater economic resilience. According to one official,

"There is a will from the State to develop the tourism sector in general, and especially in populated areas where diverse tourism resources are available. This will encourage the public and private sectors to invest more in tourism. Currently, tourism development in Tripoli is going faster than in Alkhoms because of many reasons related to infrastructure availability, population density, land ownership problems, as well as the desire of the investors themselves" (Public sector actor 3).

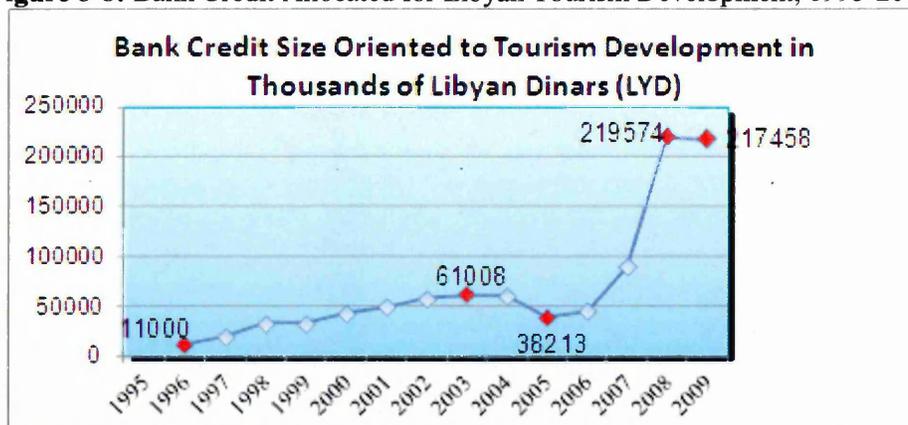
In reality, the number of hotels, retailers, attractions, and other tourism-related services is considerably bigger in Tripoli than in Alkhoms, and that generally is likely to give Tripoli the edge in economic resilience.

Access to capital loans and bank facilities is essential to accelerate the development of tourism projects. Libya's tourism sector is probably still in the exploration stage and it lacks basic infra- and super-structure, so that the sector will likely need huge investment as it progresses through the establishment stage. Since the tourism is a vulnerable and uncertain sector, most international investments in the past went to the oil industry. The

national banks found it is difficult to substantially invest in tourism projects due to obstacles related to their rules and capacity. The banking sector, which is largely owned by the public sector (although there has been a little limited privatization in recent years), is considered the backbone of Libya's financial system, especially as there are no internal equity and debt markets. According to a 2006 report by the General Planning Council of Libya, the country's banking sector has been applying a very tight lending regime. This has meant that SMEs have faced difficulties in accessing loans and other facilities from the banks. Maitah, Zedan, and Shibani (2012: 108) comment that "Libyan banks offer limited financial products, loans are often made on the basis of personal connections (rather than business plans).....Lack of financing acts as a brake on Libya's development, hampering both the completion of existing projects and the start of new ones". Despite the establishment of the Libyan Privatization & Investment Board, based on Law No.(5)/1997 and Law No.(7)/2004, for organizing and empowering the tourism sector, the focus has been on attracting foreign investments instead of encouraging local entrepreneurs through offering them funds and training programmes. The laws, to some extent, have improved the investment environment, but one of the major obstacles was accessibility to capital for SMEs from national banks because these banks have tended to avoid risk taking by lending money for tourism projects. This is because tourism projects usually take a long time to return the capital to the banks, and also because of the uncertainty of tourist demand. In response to a question about whether more tourism products are needed to attract more tourists, the head of Alkhoms' tourism authority replied that the *"first thing we need to build is more quality hotels to maintain the current tourists here for a longer time, and then we need more products to attract more tourists. We need support from the government and banks to lend money for local people to establish private hotels and resorts. Unfortunately, it is not easy to gain loans for tourism projects at the moment"* (Government official 10).

This issue is seen in the fluctuating and small size of bank credits oriented to the tourism sector. Figure 8.8 shows that banking credits for tourism were very small, especially for the decade 1996 to 2006. There was a rapid improvement in 2007-2008, but the size of the credits is still quite small. This indicates the funding challenge that tourism faces, resulting in a low inherent capacity of the tourism sector to cope with future increasing tourist demand, and thus its low resilience in the face of upward growth.

Figure 8-8: Bank Credit Allocated for Libyan Tourism Development, 1995-2009



Source: Compiled by the Author from General Authority of Information Publications

8.2.3.5 Diversification into New Markets

Penetrating new markets can be important to minimize the risk of dependence on a small market segment, to secure growth, and as a proactive policy of mitigation to sustain resilience. Tripoli and Alkhoms largely depend on a small European tourism market segment, specifically leisure cultural tourists interested in archaeology. Consequently, tourism in both cases is vulnerable to the changes that influence European markets. It is essential for both case study areas to gain a larger market share to ensure there is a flow of tourists in all seasons in larger numbers. The diffusion of ICT and Internet technologies can play a vital role in consolidating the current markets and also in penetrating new tourism markets worldwide at low cost. ICT and Internet have become core tools for tourism e-business. Al-Hasan, *et al.*, (2003) identify the problems specifically facing Libyan tourism SMEs in establishing effective E-marketing systems. These problems are shown in Table 8.9.

Table 8-9: Problems Affecting E-Marketing for SMEs in Libyan Tourism

Problem	Description
1	Lack of co-ordination between NBT and tourism companies concerning e-marketing.
2	E-marketing has not been developed enough to cope with the increasing demand in all the various types of tourism activities offered by the industry i.e. desert tourism.
3	Due to the lack of e-marketing there is a big disadvantage in relation to international markets.
4	Lack of e-marketing facilities for places of interest to the tourist.
5	Lack of preparation and training of all personnel in e-marketing.
6	Lack of co-ordination to develop a competitive e-marketing policy.
7	Lack of regulations to encourage e-marketing.
8	The delay by NBT in establishing e-marketing.
9	There is no comprehensive regulation for e-marketing for the tourism industry that allows it to benefit from development in the international tourism market and international tourism research.

Source: Al-Hasan, *et al.* (2003)

On account of these problems, the tourism sector is still using conventional marketing approaches, such as distributing print brochures, leaflets and publications, such as those shown in Figure 8.9, through international and local tourism exhibitions. Such marketing methods are expensive and often ineffective because they rely on attendance at tourism events that are held seasonally, and also these promotional products are received by only a very limited number of the events' attendees, specifically those who visit the Libyan stand at exhibitions.

Figure 8-9: Promotional publications for Libyan Tourism Marketing



Source: the author

Tourists can access some pictures and a very limited amount of information about tourist places in Libya from some local tour operators' websites, with these sites tending to use information about tourism products to market the tour packages they provide rather than the tourism products themselves. Thus, the information about tourism products provided on the websites is brief and insufficient. Consequently, the tourism marketing policies in place are far from achieving the necessary penetration of new markets due to the lack of e-business, which in turn lowers the resilience of Libya's destinations as they remain dependent on a few existing markets.

8.2.3.6 Human Resource Development (HRD)

Appropriate and sufficient skills and competencies of local people are a prerequisite to ensure quality services that add a competitive and flexibility advantage for destination and thus support the inherent economic resilience. Blake, Sinclair and Soria (2006: 1102) argue that human capital in terms of education, skills and training is crucial to tourism productivity and competitiveness. Biggs (2011: 4) also state that human capital in terms of

skills and qualifications is vital for enterprise resilience. In relation to Libyan tourism, Jones (2010: 11) notes that "There are skills shortages and gaps in the labour market, and Libyans are generally ill-equipped to take up employment opportunities in the tourism industry". For example, the tourism curricula is not fully recognised by Libyan education and training organisations, and thus most programmes at various levels of education and training are focused on hospitality rather than on tourism (LTMP, 2009-2025). Table 8.10 shows the limited number of institutions with the title of "hospitality and tourism higher institutions", and the narrow range of specialities offered in these institutions.

Table 8-10: The Specialities Taught in Libyan Higher Institutions

The Institution	Specialities	Location	Condition
High Institution for Hospitality and Tourism	Food Production, Hotel Management, Hospitality and Lodging	Tripoli	Working
High Institution for Hospitality and Tourism	Food Production, Hotel Management, Hospitality and Lodging	Misurata	Working
High Institution for Hospitality and Tourism	Food Production, Hotel Management, Hospitality and Lodging	Sosa	Working
High Institution for Hospitality and Tourism	Food Production, Hotel Management, Hospitality and Lodging	Benghazi	Under Construction
High Institution for Hospitality and Tourism	Food Production, Hotel Management, Hospitality and Lodging	Zwara	Under Construction
High Institution for Handicrafts	Handicrafts Making	Wadi Elhaya	Under Construction

Source: Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025, Vol.1: 107)

The Table shows there are only three higher institutions providing hospitality training programmes, while tourism skills and qualifications, such as tourist guiding, tourism planning, management and marketing, are completely absent. This shortage is apparently reflected in the competency and qualifications of tourist guides, who often work as tourist guides because of their ability to speak one or more foreign language without necessarily having appropriate other skills as a tourist guide. An officer from the planning and training department of the General Tourism Board stated that "Most of the licensed tourist guides have not graduated from specialist institutions. They were licensed because of their fluent speaking of foreign languages and few of them because of their experience"(Government official 4). A reviewer stated that "Looking back, I think the guide was slightly lazy, since he did not show us the hunting baths and the circus, which would have been quite a walk. Oh well, next time perhaps" (Nomen_Nescio74, 2010).

Libya's shortage of trained tourism professionals is linked to the lack of clear strategy towards developing human capital related to tourism. A tourist guide stated that "tourist

guides are part time or self-employed. It is not yet recognised as permanent job by the tourism sector. To be licensed as a tourist guide, you need to apply for a sandwich course, which are offered by local tourism authorities from time to time. Speaking a foreign language is required to be accepted on such courses" (Private sector actor 15). The lack of qualified and skilled people is likely to reduce the number of jobs in tourism as well as the competitive advantage that can be added by having skilled people in the tourism sector, with this likely to reduce the sector's inherent economic resilience.

To produce more diverse and worthwhile products that could appeal to more tourists, and to sustain destination inherent resilience, it can be important to elevate the awareness and know-how of local people about the value of their own community assets for tourism, such as their culture, folk, cuisine, handicrafts and lifestyle, and also about how to convert these into relatively authentic tourism products that offer more jobs and income. This is especially important due to both case study areas still concentrating on publically-owned historical and heritage products as the main features marketed for international tourists. There are slight differences between Tripoli and Alkhoms in this regard, however, with people in Tripoli being more aware about their community resources, more able to commodify them as tourism products, and better able to establish small and medium sized enterprises related to tourism, such as restaurants specialising in selling traditional local foods, workshops making traditional handicrafts, and cafes serving coffees and teas in a traditional style with folk music. There are two educational institutions in Tripoli contributing to traditional industry development: the School of Arts and Handicrafts and the Jamal Eddin Elmeladi Institution for Theatre and Music. Moreover, the government has opened a new permanent exhibition in Tripoli for handicrafts in order to support the sector and encourage local people to engage in it to enhance the attractiveness of Tripoli for both domestic and international tourists. This in turn could diversify the industry and thus lead to greater economic resilience. By contrast, these activities do not existed to any significant extent in Alkhoms. Diversification into more primary tourism products require diverse skills and competencies that can be gained through HR development. These required skills could encourage local people to learn and improve their competencies in order to gain jobs and improve their lifestyle, which in turn improve the resiliency of tourism community. Thus, diversification is unlikely to promote resilience with poorly skilled employees and poor HR development.

Libya's tourism plan (2009-2025, Vol.2: 115-117) emphasises the importance of integrating tourism into educational curricula in the early educational stages in order to promote community awareness and engagement in tourism development. This could help build local community capacity to be more creative in relation to tourism products and production processes at low cost, especially during times of crisis. The community could also then have the capacity to exert greater control over resources and sustain tourism development (Thompson, 2001). However, the plan does not provide a time framework for the related implementation processes and for monitoring progress.

8.2.4 The Implications of Tourist Product Concentration and Diversification in Relation to Inherent Economic Resilience

According to Ioannides (2006), a decline in tourist arrivals in Mediterranean coastal resorts has been associated with the problem of quality deterioration linked with mass tourism consumption and resort capacities being exceeded. The low quality resulting from the concentration of development on one tourism product has caused dissatisfaction for tourists, which in turn has enabled new competitors, such as Asia, to attract a considerable part of the traditional European market by offering them more flexible, customised attractions. This means that a destination, which offers one heavily used tourism product, such as a beach resort, could experience quality deterioration over time, leading to a decline in tourist flows.

Figures 6.15 and 6.16 showed that arrivals of inbound tourists to Libya had steadily grown and peaked in 2006 due to the country's improving image for international tourists (Khalifa, 2010), and also due to a new tourism product, watching the Solar Eclipse from Libya's desert in 2006, where the event encouraged tour operators to organise special eclipse tours combined with visiting cultural attractions (Ham, 2006). Thus, diversification into new tourist products boosted the inflow of tourists. However, tourism is not isolated from external influences, which may have very significant long term impacts on economic resilience. For example, in 2007 there was a sharp decline in tourist arrivals happened due to a crisis in the wake of Gaddafi's decision not to allow foreigners to enter the country without travel documents translated into Arabic, and then a crisis due to deteriorating political relationships between Switzerland and Libya. These factors which are external to tourism could not be avoided, reflecting the vulnerability of the tourism sector, but they do not reflect the adaptability of the tourism products themselves. But the continuing decline

in tourist numbers after the demise of these crises may indicate the low resilience of Libya's tourism products.

However, inherent economic resilience is tightly connected to the level of tourist satisfaction, with the latter essential to increase tourists expenditures, and to sustain their loyalty either by repeat visits or by recommendations to others to visit, such as by their reviews on websites and by recommendations to their friends (Gruber, 2012). Satisfaction may well be associated with the range of offerings in a destination, the linkages between these products, and whether these add value and reduce the costs of supply. Thus, tourists' satisfaction is essential for economic resilience. In addition, the rate of economic leakages is important for the robustness of tourist destinations and for their ability to revive after a crisis. High economic leakages can result from a lack of diversification into sophisticated products that attract high spending tourists, or from deficiencies in human resources. These two important issues are discussed next.

8.2.4.1 Tourist Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction

As the tourist satisfaction and loyalty can reflect many issues regarding the product quality, flexibility and adaptability of tourism offerings, which are strongly related to the long term destination economic resilience. Thus, measuring tourists' satisfaction is necessary for effective tourism product planning and development (Bramwell, 1998: 35), and such assessments are also important for adapting tourism products in order to maintain growth and economic resilience (Tyrrell and Johnston, 2007; Mahon, Becken and Rennie, 2013).

However, neither the public nor private sectors in Libya's tourism industry have applied systematic tourism market research to measure tourist satisfaction. Oppermann and Chon (1997) noted that most developing countries lack strategic planning and management of tourism. Thus most tourism product development has taken place in arbitrary fashion. Decisions have tended also to be based on short term economic returns rather than long term sustainable development. The head of the General Tourism Board's information department stated that *"There is still a lack of data about arrivals, sales, etc. There is no data base yet, and no specialist organisation to provide market research about tourists' satisfaction. Such research needs experts and funds, which are not available yet. Some hotels and tour operators are collecting data about tourist satisfaction arbitrarily"* (Government actor 6). Also, the LTMP (2009-2025: Vol. 1:163) points out that the tourism

development plan 1999-2018 had designed many of the questionnaires needed to collect information on tourism sector activities and on their impacts as well as data on tourists and their levels of satisfaction, with this intended to provide a solid database. Unfortunately, there had been no use of these tools and no database so far has been built. The lack of this essential market research and other data raises questions about the extent to which Libya's tourism products, and products in the case study areas, match tourist expectations and encourage them to spend more and recommend others to visit. This is important when it is known that Libyan tourism greatly depends on word of mouth recommendations (LTMP, Vol. 1:128).

Tourists' satisfaction is a complex notion influenced by many factors related to the product and to the tourist profile. Thus, product price, cleanliness, meaningful experience, food quality, security and safety, attraction brand and overall image etc. all influence tourist satisfaction. In this context, an officer from Leptis Magna's local tourism authority stated that *"Most tourists coming to Leptis Magna are cultural tourists. The beauty of the place satisfies them, despite the low service quality and lack of entertainment. Also, the safety and low prices are satisfying for tourists"* (Government official 11). This suggests that Alkhoms still depends on the iconic image of the Leptis Magna site, which works as compensation for the low service quality for tourists. It is the iconic image which underpins its inherent economic resilience, but this needs more support from improvements in quality and from diversifying into more products to attract more varied tourist markets and to sustain its inherent resilience.

Destination economic resilience is also likely to be enhanced by supplying quality supplementary tourism products that satisfy tourists. Craggs and Schofield (2010) argue that, while the quality of primary tourism products, the environment and accessibility are important for tourist satisfaction, the supplementary tourism products are also influential for the quality of the tourists' experience and thus in destination competitiveness. Thus, destinations that have deficient supplementary services and products are more likely to suffer from reduced inherent economic resilience. First time tourists might be astonished by the beauty of the Leptis Magna site, but the lack of quality services and supplementary products could influence tourists' decisions to select elsewhere to visit for subsequent trips, leading to reduced resilience. A growing issue here is that international tourists tend to review their experiences on websites such as "tripadvisor" and "Lonely Planet Travel Blog", and any tourist dissatisfaction with their visits to Leptis Magna noted on the

websites is likely to deter future tourists. A General Tourism Board respondent noted about Libya's heritage sites that the *"Attractions are stunning and clearly satisfy the inbound visitors, I mean here the ruins and heritage places. And tourists complain about the poor services and poor accommodation, and not about the quality and uniqueness of the attractions"* (Government official 2). Thus, supplementary products and services are often just as important for tourist satisfaction and for long term inherent economic resilience.

Tourism products located in close proximity to each other may be particularly satisfying for tourists and this could be important for inherent economic resilience. Libya has many potential tourism attractions and products scattered over a huge area. Tourists may prefer sites in close proximity, but they also enjoy travel when it is a key part of the experience, such as through crossing areas of sand dunes using camel caravans or 4WD vehicles as a part of a desert adventure, or crossing the country's borders by motor bikes. By contrast, travelling on crowded roads for long hours combined with lack of en-route quality services and attractions is likely to lead to tourist dissatisfaction. According to a local authority interviewee, *"The spread of heritage attractions over a vast area is not a problem in desert tourism because travelling between them is part of the adventure, but it is a problem in the coastal areas. Tourists still lose a significant part of their holiday while travelling on roads where no en-route attractions are found. The lack of good accommodation in Alkhoms is forcing people to go back to Tripoli, and that means 3-4 hours in the bus"* (Public sector actor 4). A blog reviewer also explained how *"I learned the art of sleeping in vehicles. The skill stays with me to this day....For this reason I find it very difficult to tell you how long it took to get to Qasr Al Haj, or how far it was from Tripoli, other than '50 pages of quite a good book and a long snooze'. Apparently it's about 230 km"* (Koshkha, 2010).

Thus, in Libya it will be important to develop attractions that are geographically close to each other and to diversify into more offerings through connecting the cultural and natural products, especially in the coastal region, instead of packaging remote products in one package. This is likely to avoid frustration and dissatisfaction and the clustering and conglomeration of businesses can promote economic resilience through their inter-linkages. The plans to develop beach tourism along the extensive coastal area stretching between Alkhoms and Tripoli were shown in Figures 7.3 and 7.4. These new coastal products could be linked with the areas' cultural products, and that could lead to improved tourist satisfaction, further economic growth, and improved economic resilience.

The intensive policing of Libya's international tourists had also reduced the flexibility of tourist packages, and that had reduced tourist satisfaction and the industry's long term economic resilience. In Libya the tour operators offer fixed tour packages where tourists cannot change elements of the package, while there are also tailor-made packages where tourists contact a chosen tour operator to arrange and develop the tour package content. Once the tailor-made package has been agreed between the tourist and tour operator the package is paid for and it becomes semi-fixed. The tour operator then informs the Libyan immigration office about the purchased travel route in order to obtain a specific code, and that code is put into the invitation letter sent by the tour operator to the tourist in order for them to gain a tourist entry visa. Once the route is decided and the tourist enters the country, the tourism police department will be informed by the tour operator about the route of the trip, and then a policeman joins the group for the whole trip from entering to exiting the country. Any changes in the travel route or any extensions will need prior permission from the tourism police department, and that often involves long procedures and the applications are usually refused. A blog reviewer explained her experience:

"I made an appointment because I wanted to go to an old village outside Tripoli in the mountains. I get there and assumed it is only a question of whether or not I will pay the price of a daytrip tomorrow. But it is not so. When I get there I am told - well you cannot expect to come here and be able to go somewhere else tomorrow. To actually go outside Tripoli the company would have to get permits and contact the tourist police in advance - this would take minimum 3 days. I am amazed - 3 days to organize a simple daytrip for an independent traveller - this is for me is a clear indication that the system in Libya is really messed up and should be changed for the better" (tj1777, 2008).

Tourists will inevitably be dissatisfied when they are forced to gain invitation letters from a tour operator in order to be able to apply for tourist entry visas, and also required to rent local guides even if they are engaged in tailor-made tours, a feature which also might reduce the authenticity of the adventure and individual experience. These requirements also mean that product diversification policies will not succeed fully in attracting more independent tourists, since more adaptable products are unavailable and because the tourist packages are marketed as a collection of attractions rather than on a customised basis. This approach harms tourist satisfaction, leading to fewer intentions to revisit and fewer recommendations to others, and an overall reduced economic resilience.

8.2.4.2 Economic Leakages

Minimising economic leakages in parallel with progressing tourism development should be a core objective to support destination economic resilience. The tourism sector is still fairly new in Libya, and therefore the country, including the case study areas, lack expertise and cadres in the field of tourism. This includes inadequate expertise and insufficient staff in sectors such as aviation, hospitality, tourism education and training, and hospitality education and training. This has resulted in part from the country's reliance on the oil sector and the government's lack of interest in the tourism sector. Thus, economic leakages often happen through employing foreign experts and foreign skilled staff in the tourism and related sectors. In addition, Libya often imports its food, furniture, construction materials, transport equipment, and many other products needed by the tourism sector, thus leading to further economic leakages. Imports are often high for the international hotel chains, international airlines, and international tour operators operating in Libya. Internal local economies in the country also suffer economic leakages, and these intra-regional leakages may well be higher in regions where there is a shortage in tourism infrastructure or only a narrow range of tourism products resulting in low multiplier effects in these specific places such as in Alkhoms.

However, economic leakages from the tourism sector cannot be prevented completely, especially in a developing country like Libya, which is fairly new to the tourism industry and which lacks the expertise and personnel required for planning, managing, operating and marketing the tourism products competitively and globally. But reducing the rate of these leakages is important and this might be accomplished through privatisation programmes and human resource development policies in order to ensure that tourism projects are owned and run by local communities. Briassoulis (2003) argues that to increase destination economic resilience, locally controlled assets should be oriented towards long-run development. Also economic leakages in the tourism sector should be seen as a strategic issue that should not be ignored in planning long term developments.

The financial leakages from the Libyan tourism sector over the past 14 years are shown in Table 8.11. This indicates that such financial leakages are increasing in absolute terms as the tourism sector has become more developed, but that the proportion of these leakages as a proportion of total revenues has been fairly constant at around 30% of total revenues from the tourism industry.

Table 8-11: The Revenue Contribution and Financial Leakages from the Libyan Tourism Sector in GDP in Millions in Libyan Dinars (1.0 LYD = \$0.83)

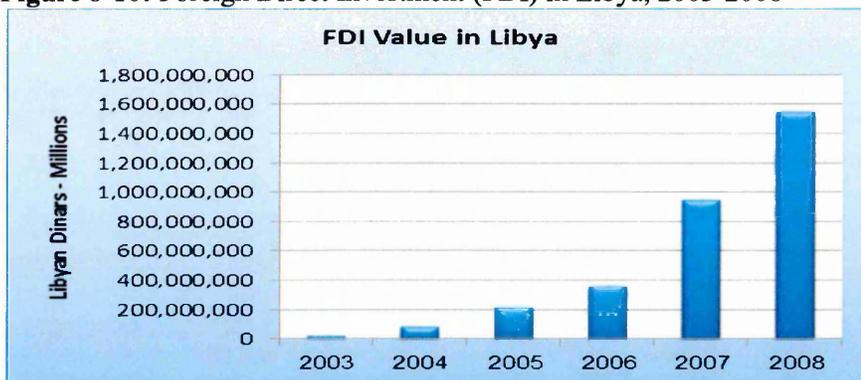
Year	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Total receipts	131	146	165	185	210	242	282	334	396	473	554	642	619	697
Financial leakages	39	44	50	56	63	72	85	100	119	142	166	193	185	209
Net revenue	91.6	102.5	115.7	129.8	146.9	169.1	197.3	233.6	277.4	331	387.8	449.3	433.3	487.7
Average of Leakages	0.297	0.301	0.303	0.303	0.3	0.298	0.301	0.299	0.301	0.300	0.299	0.301	0.298	0.299

Source: Adapted from LTMP (2009-2025, Vol.1: 161)

The inability to reduce the rate of these leakages might be linked to different issues, such as the reliance on foreign investment due to the weaknesses of local investors, the lack of a local skilled workforce, and the imports of goods and services. In addition, the inability to reduce the rate of economic leakages may indicate the industry’s low level of economic resilience at a national scale, but it is not possible to say whether this applies at the scale of the two case study areas. The tourism planners concluded that other channels for financial leakages from the tourism sector were: leakages from foreign currency transactions, from import taxes and revenue taxes, from consultation and advisory services, and from implementation and facilitation services.

The capability to attract more foreign direct investment (FDI) helps to boost economic growth in countries (Golub, 2003), and that might help to improve the tourism sector’s capacity to establish projects that will increase its economic resilience. In the wake of the lifting international sanctions, Libya has sought FDI for different sectors of the economy, particularly for the oil industry and for services (Naama, Haven-Tang and Jones, 2008). The FDI in different sectors surged between 2003 and 2008, as shown in Figure 8.10.

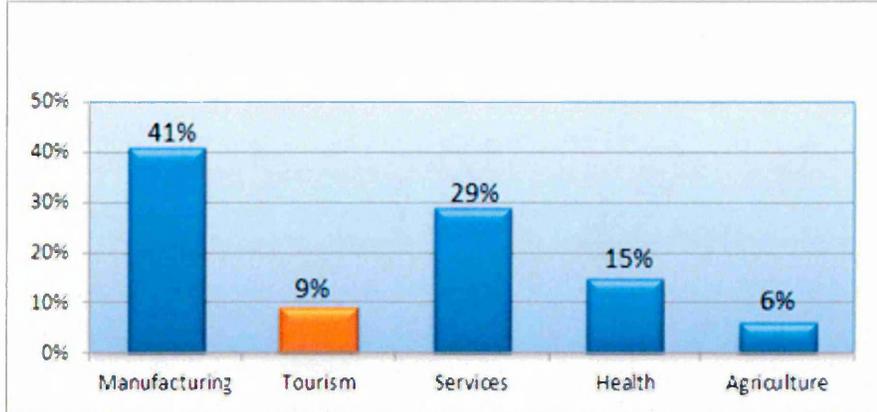
Figure 8-10: Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in Libya, 2003-2008



Source: Compiled by the Author from Libyan Information Authority

Although the tourism industry is supposed to be a major sector in creating new jobs and improving the economy, the tourism sector in Libya gained only 9% of total FDI in 2009, as shown in Figure 8.11.

Figure 8-11: Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) by sector in Libya, 2009

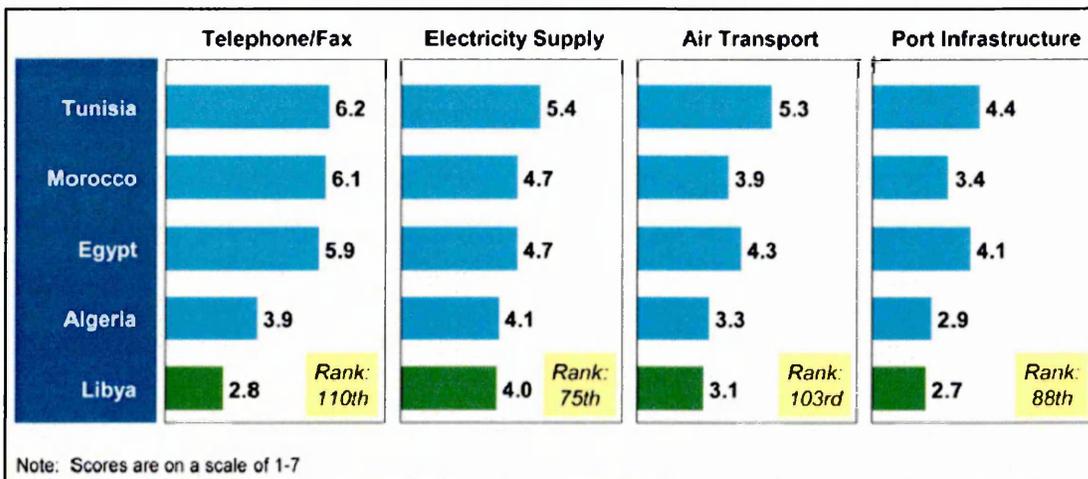


Source: Libyan Investment Board: <http://www.investinlibya.ly/PDF/FDI.pdf>

The attracted FDI has been focused on developing luxury hotels and tourist villages, particularly in Tripoli. Thus, FDI appears not to have been a major factor in improving tourist destinations and in diversifying the sources of funding for tourism, and potentially in improving economic resilience. As Colijn (2010: 4) notes, "Foreign investment is almost fully directed towards the oil and gas sector and does not add too much to the broader economy's strength". However, Tripoli has enjoyed more FDI investment than Alkhoms, especially in the hotel sector and in developing more tourism products, and that means that Tripoli probably has more flexibility and capacity to withstand adverse forces of change, and thus this may add to its economic resilience.

The major deficiencies in Libya's basic infrastructure, such as in health, housing, transportation and communications, have encouraged the government to seek to remedy the deficiencies, especially when this infrastructure is crucial for the business environment. Porter and Yergin (2006: 63) stated that "Libya's overall physical infrastructure is poor, with Libya ranking very low on all metrics of physical infrastructure quality". Indeed, Figure 8.12 shows that Libya ranked at the bottom of a table on the quality of basic infrastructure among neighbouring countries, and this is likely to impact negatively on its tourism adaptability and competitiveness.

Figure 8-12: The Quality of Basic Infrastructure in Libya and its Neighbouring Countries, 2005-2006



Source: Adapted from Porter and Yergin (2005: 36)

The state has sought to attract FDI into its oil and oil related industries in order to secure more hard currency to enable it to fund improvements in the country’s basic infrastructure sectors, and this should help businesses to emerge and grow.

Most FDI in the tourism sector has gone into developing 5-star hotels, quality beach resorts, and international shopping malls, developed by international companies. Due to the lack of qualified local people the associated new businesses are mostly managed by highly qualified and well paid foreign managers, who tend to import foods and materials from abroad, and their businesses often import many goods, and this adds to the tourism sector’s leakages. By contrast, most local tourism investments have been focused on developing SMEs, such as budget class hotels, local beach resorts, desert camps and tour operating agencies. There is a need for more government encouragement for local investments in major tourism projects in order to reduce the economic leakages incurred through foreign investors.

Changing the local people’s often negative attitudes to jobs in the tourism sector is also important to reduce economic leakages. Education and training programmes for local people can be used to help to change community attitudes toward tourism jobs and to train them in this work, and this can help to reduce the economic leakages resulting from using foreign low skilled labour. According to the Tourism Master Plan (2009-2025: Vol.1: 104), the number of local employees in the hotel sector in 2008 reached 4,533, or 68%, out of 6,700 employees, while 2,147, or 32%, of employees are foreigners. The number of employees in restaurants and cafés was 42,500, with only 30% being local employees. In

fact there is a large number of graduates from specialized institutes who are qualified in food production and hospitality, but most of them refuse to work in these areas. A key issue here is that tourism and hospitality employment has a poor image in Libya's culture, so that jobs as waiters, chefs and cleaners are not sought by Libyans, who consider them to be low class jobs (Naama, Haven-Tang and Jones, 2008). Hence, many hotels, restaurants and cafés employ employees from neighbour countries in these jobs.

Another problem for the tourism sector is that Libyan culture restricts Libyan women's employment in tourist guiding, hotel services, spas, and music festivals. The culture considers the mixing of males and females, and some types of activities such as involvement in dance festivals, as contradicting their Muslim religion. Tourism is also popularly associated with alcohol, drugs and sexual relationships outside of marriage, which are considered as major sins in Muslim countries, and Libya is not an exception (Jones, 2010). Libyans are very religious and conservative, with the majority of the population being Sunni Muslims (CIA, 2012). The consequence is that very few Libyan women work in most tourism jobs, and the few who do are usually found in Tripoli as a result of its urbanisation and modernisation. In Alkhoms Libyan women are not yet engaged in tourism jobs. Therefore, foreign females are employed to perform these jobs. However, Libyan women are more engaged in some sectors, notably education, medicine, and the media, but in general social attitudes still widely impede women's participation in the labour market and in business and politics (African Economic Outlook, 2009). Therefore, the influence of local culture on employment is a key influence on the financial leakages from Libya's tourism industry, and probably also on the industry's inherent economic resilience.

The limited ability of local tour operators to penetrate international markets is another influence on the significant economic leakages from Libya's tourism industry. Fixed tour packages dominate Libya's inbound tourism sector as these packages are relatively cheaper and more available than independent tours. International tour operators in developed countries are rarely beaten by local tour operators in developing countries due to the difficulty for local operators to penetrate international markets, and their lack of facilities and knowledge about how to deal with online transactions and travel insurance. Many of Libya's leading local tour operators are involved in joint venture contracts with international tour operators in order to reduce these problems and to improve their economic performance. Consequently, the major part of the Libyan travel arrangements are

made by tour operators located abroad so that relatively few benefits are gained by local tour operators. This seems likely to reduce the local tour operators' long term resilience, as they lack key skills and know-how and depend on overseas operators. A government interviewee commented that *"Most of the tourists come in groups on fixed programmes, and most of them purchase their full package holidays from well-known companies, some of which are partners with local agencies"* (Government official 5).

In addition, the lack of diversified products in the fixed packages has limited the tourists' expenditures. Although the majority of international tourists visiting Libya are quite highly educated people who usually have high incomes that exceed \$25,000 a year, they spend only 80 to 100 Dollars a day (LTMP, 2009-2025: Vol. 1: 9) due to lack of diversity of tourism products. An international tourist who was interviewed explained that *"We spent time in Tripoli at the beginning and at the end of our trip. On the last couple of days we re-visited Leptis Magna and the museum in Tripoli – so, no, there weren't enough different things to do on our last two days"* (International tourist 6). An interviewee from the tourism authority in Alkhoms complained that *"a tourist coming to visit Leptis pays only for the local guide, entry tickets, shopping, lunch in Jarra restaurant, and for transportation, totalling 60-70LYD (\$35-30). This amount can be less if they are group of tourists. There is nothing else there to pay for. Therefore, tourism does not contribute much for Alkhoms. We need to develop more attractions and more quality hotels in order to benefit from tourism"* (Government official 11).

The lack of variety particularly of special interest attractions that usually attract higher spending tourists, as well as the limited availability of activity-based tourism products, means that many inbound tourists spend less money than they are used to because there is little to spend money on. In Alkhoms inbound tourists are only offered visits to Leptis Magna archaeology site and similar attractions such as the museum and Villa Celine. This compares poorly with Tripoli where tourists can enjoy several attractions, such as heritage, business, shopping, and the local culture of teahouses and restaurants. The shortage of attractions and tourism-related activities in Alkhoms means it receives much less tourism multiplier and employment effects than Tripoli. Therefore, destinations that have fewer attractions and are marketed in fixed package holidays are likely to experience more financial leakages.

The fragmentation between tourist attractions in Alkhoms due to the separation between the two adjacent major attractions of the Leptis Magna site and the beach resorts has been encouraged by them being marketed individually rather than as a location cluster. This too has encouraged the tour operators to ignore the beach resorts, especially those of low quality, thus lowering the multiplier effect and a leakage of tourist expenditures. Therefore, marketing a destination as a bundle of attractions can be critical to reducing economic leakages and sustaining destination attractiveness.

8.3 Conclusion

Tourist destination inherent economic resilience is a very complex issue resulting from the interaction of several factors. Some of these factors are strongly associated with the product inherent characteristics, while others stem from the linkages and arrangements between tourist products within the destination. The linkages and arrangements may strengthen the attractiveness and competitiveness of the tourism products, potentially resulting in an improved flexibility and adaptability to attract more tourists in normal times and a resilience to stand against factors of decline at times of crisis. In addition, many external factors, which are indirectly related to the tourism products, can influence destination inherent economic resilience. Thus, economic resilience is not rigid and it does not occur in a vacuum. It is on a scale that can be built upon and improved.

The findings show that, despite the differences between the two case studies, both experience problems of inherent economic resilience due to difficulties around branding, product image and uniqueness, and accessibility. The comparison between the two cases, however, shows that Tripoli has experienced better economic resilience and better competitiveness, primarily due to the availability of more tourism products that are close to each other and also due to the quality of supporting products and urbanisation effects that have made visiting Tripoli a more comfortable and diverse experience. In contrast, Alkhoms is less economically resilient due to the concentration on the Leptis Magna site as the main and only primary product to attract international tourists. Although the Leptis Magna site itself has a strong iconic standing which gives it strong inherent resilience, it suffers considerably from a low quality of service combined with lack of quality accommodation and lack of alternative tourist products in and around the site, which in turn have degraded its adaptability.

Tripoli enjoys a degree of tourism product diversification, both vertically and horizontally. At the time of the research the city was economically more resilient than ever before. The city's tourism sector had grown and its economic performance had been boosted once the general business environment had improved. Nevertheless, progress towards economic resilience in the tourism sector in the two case study areas had been very slow and fluctuating because the various factors affecting it did not all work in harmony and some were working against tourism development. This means that all the many factors affecting tourism's inherent economic resilience need to be considered in tourism and in general planning in the country. There is also a requirement to unify the vision and the goals and the coordinating and collaborative efforts of the various actors relevant to Libya's tourism development.

Chapter 9 : Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

This research has critically examined the patterns of relationships between concentrated and diversified primary tourism products and also whether the products and relationships between them promote economic resilience, assessing these for two case study areas in Libya: Tripoli and Alkhoms. Frameworks were also developed and applied to accomplish the study's aim and specific objectives related to primary tourism products and destination economic resilience. This chapter considers the study's main findings and overall contribution, and in particular it discusses the frameworks in relation to the key empirical findings, and it also assesses their practical value and contributions to theoretical knowledge. First, the study's aim and objectives are revisited here.

9.1.1 Overall Aim of the Study

The study has examined tourism product issues in tourist destinations. It investigated for tourist destinations their primary tourism products, the concentration or diversification of the products, the linkages between the products and attractions, and the implications of these relationships for the economic resilience of destinations. These issues were explored in the specific contexts of Tripoli and Alkhoms, two neighbouring but rather different tourist destinations in Libya.

9.1.1.1 More Specific Objectives of the Study

The study's more specific objectives were:

1. To critically review literature on primary tourism products, linkages between products in tourist destinations, tourism product diversification strategies in destinations, and the economic resilience of destinations. These reviews were the focus of Chapter Two.
2. To develop a general framework to examine the relationships between primary tourism products in destinations, product concentration and diversification patterns in destinations, and whether the patterns of concentration and diversification of products promote destination economic resilience. This framework was developed early in Chapter Three.

3. To develop two more specific frameworks within the overall general framework. The first specific framework concerns the patterns of concentration and diversification of primary tourism products in a destination in relation to the intensity of their use as either alternative or mass tourism products. The second specific framework relates to how the relationships between primary tourism products, and also other related issues, affect the inherent economic resilience of tourist destinations. These two frameworks were developed in the second half of Chapter Three.
4. To empirically evaluate the value of the general framework and the two more specific frameworks through their practical application to two case study destinations in Libya: Tripoli and Alkhoms (which includes the historic remains of the Roman city of Leptis Magna). This was the purpose of the study's three main results Chapters 6, 7, and 8, and it is further considered in this chapter.
5. To assess the scope, scale and other characteristics of the primary tourism products, the relationships between the products, the government plans for the products, and the effects of these product features and of other features on tourist destination inherent economic resilience for the specific cases of Tripoli and Alkhoms. There is evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of these issues and of their implications for tourism development in the two destinations. This objective was the focus of the three main results chapters, and the issues are examined again in this final chapter.

The study objectives required the identification of two case study tourist destinations in Libya – Tripoli and Alkhoms – and the field work and study findings relate to the specific circumstances during Gaddafi's regime. The differences in the development of primary tourism products and in their patterns of use between the two cases were found to be useful to explore the different relationships between concentrated and diversified tourism products and also to assess their differing influence on the inherent economic resilience of tourist destinations. The research adopted a qualitative approach, using face-to-face and observational techniques for collecting much of the primary data. The study was informed by a combination of interpretivist and critical realist approaches, with this focused on interpreting the attitudes of different actors about the tourism product development issues and on reaching critical assessments of these issues. The study examined the attitudes of actors on the industry's supply side – specifically actors in central government, local tourism authorities, and private sector tourism businesses – and of demand side actors –

specifically both domestic and international tourists. The sample of actors was selected using a combination of purposeful, snowball and more random sampling techniques on the supply side, while a more random sampling technique was applied in recruiting the international and domestic tourists to be interviewed.

This conclusion chapter is divided into three sections. The first briefly reviews the development of the study's frameworks, which were exhaustively presented in Chapter Three. The second section briefly explains the study's key findings and the practical policy implications for tourism in Libya and other places, based on the practical application of the frameworks in the two case study areas. This includes drawing out what the frameworks did well and establishing where the frameworks needed elaboration or adjustment. As discussed in Chapter Six, for example, it was found that in both case study areas at the time of the fieldwork there were very few examples of "diversified mass tourism products" that were more customized, such as through the diversification of mass tourism into marinas and water sport tourism. But these types of products might be developed in the future after the development of more mature stages of beach tourism. The chapter's third section discusses what has been learned from the process of developing and applying the frameworks. Consideration is given to the study's strengths and limitations, and also to potential future research directions. Finally, the chapter makes a number of recommendations for tourism planners concerning the development of tourism products in destinations and on resilience strategies in tourism development.

9.2 Key Findings from the Development of the Study's Frameworks

This section evaluates the frameworks used in the study, concerning the relationships between the diversified primary tourism products and the patterns of supply and demand, and the influence of these relationships on destination economic resilience. This aspect of the study addresses the Objectives 2, 3, 4, and 5, concerning the development of frameworks and their application and conformance to the real world as demonstrated in the research findings. The discussion here reflects on the development of the frameworks as described in Chapter Three, and then it briefly explains their applicability to primary tourism product concentration and diversification in the two study case areas. The findings and their implications are presented here in accordance with the themes within the frameworks.

9.2.1 The Theoretical Purposes and Potential Applications of the Frameworks

In Chapter Three, three theoretical frameworks were developed and discussed in order to meet Objectives 2 and 3. The frameworks take into account theories and ideas that were critically examined in the review of literature, and these frameworks were developed based on the literature and the researcher's own views about the research problem. Miles and Huberman (1994) assert that the assumptions, concepts, beliefs and theories that inform the researcher's perspective around a specific problem are the key to designing and developing a framework. The frameworks were developed to guide the inquiry processes and to identify data relevant to the research problem and issues, with the intention to increase the body of knowledge in the study field. The frameworks facilitated the selection of methodology, the development of the themes of inquiry, the organization of the results chapters, and the overall structuring of the thesis. Thus, together with the primary findings, they are an important contribution of this study to the research field.

The first framework developed in this study was the general framework, presented in Figure 3.1. This was developed deductively based on the existing literature reviewed in Chapter Two. The development of tourism products led the researcher to consider the crucial role of primary tourism products in drawing tourists to a specific destination (Mill and Morrison, 2006), and also to think about the patterns of development and how these diversified tourism products are consumed, what combinations and linkages might exist among them, and also how these linkages influence the overall economic resilience of a destination.

It was recognized that diversification of tourism products can be important to increasing the activities and infrastructure, and thus the tourism capacity of a destination (Agarwal, 2002), and that can also enhance the destination's capability to receive more types of tourists. Diversification can also entail restructuring to develop more sustainable and environmentally friendly products in consideration of the damage done to the environment by some conventional mass tourism products, such as coastal beach tourism. Further, low quality forms of mass tourism have sometimes failed to achieve long-term economic benefits for local people (Spilanis and Vayanni, 2004). Diversification can also be a means of improving a destination's competitiveness and reducing seasonality effects (Dwyer and Kim, 2003; Lopez and Garcia, 2006). In these sorts of ways, diversification can be important in strengthening the resilience of the destination.

Diversification is also linked to the patterns of use and the activities engaged in by the tourists during their holidays; for instance, whether they are special interest tourists seeking alternative products (niche products), such as agro-tourism, scuba diving and business tourism, or else general leisure tourists pursuing mass tourism activities, such as relaxing on beach or shopping. Concentration, on the other hand, is simply about developing one or just a very few tourism products that will appeal to general interest/leisure tourists or specialist interest tourists. Therefore, both diversified and concentrated tourism products can take the form of alternative and/or mass products, depending on the types of tourists and their patterns of use of these products.

The economic and marketing implications of these types of developments are directly linked to tourist demand and tourist satisfaction. The variety and types of activities offered to tourists during their holidays are crucial because tourists' selections and satisfaction levels are influenced by opportunities to engage in social interaction (Armario, 2008). Devesa, Laguna and Palacios, (2010) argue that diversification of tourism products, such as into rural tourism, can be crucial in this respect. Also, demand can be increased through diversification into higher quality products and services that match tourists' needs and expectations (Sharpley, 2002). Hence, an understanding of market demand and tourist satisfaction is essential for explaining the influence of diversification on a destination's economic resilience.

Strategic planning for product diversification and resilience is also an important component in the general framework since the development of tourism products and the level of control over the intensity of consumption are based on the vision and interest of the decision makers. Thus, planning, whether deliberate or circumstantial, is essential in determining the forms of development needed to maintain a destination's competitiveness and resilience in terms of resisting the forces of decline.

All of these elements were important to the development of the general framework for considering the character of the primary tourism products in a destination and whether the concentration or diversification promotes destination inherent economic resilience. This framework was centrally focused on primary tourism product development in terms of concentration and diversification. This topic is still a new area for research, which is surprising given the importance attributed to it by practitioners and researchers.

The concepts in the general framework, presented in Figure 3.1, were deliberately designed to be broad, flexible, interactive and applicable to a wide range of contexts and conditions. Thus, the general framework consists of five main broad themes: diversification and concentration, which is the study's central focus, alternative and mass products, tourist demand and tourist satisfaction, planning and strategies of diversification and resilience, and destination inherent economic resilience. These themes are shown as mutually interconnected to represent how that they reciprocally influence each other.

The second framework, presented in Figure 3.2, is the associated framework focused specifically on scenarios of primary tourism product development, based around patterns of concentration and diversification. Box 1 relates to the concepts of tourism product concentration and diversification presented in the general framework. Box 2 concerns patterns of use for tourism products in terms of alternative and mass products, borrowing ideas of rejuvenation from the life cycle model developed by Butler (1980) and the ideas of sustainability behind the "Broad Context Model for Destination Development Scenarios" developed by Weaver (2000). Both frameworks contributed to the thematic, theoretical and conceptual basis for the second framework.

The second framework attempts to understand the realities of tourism product development over time through considering them in relation to ideas in Weaver's propositions. Weaver's model (2000) focuses on the intensity of tourist use and of tourism development, quality control regulations, and the consequences for sustainable development in destinations. But quality control measures may not be necessary for development in general because in many cases tourism products are developed by the private sector and they are not always subject to regulations and quality control measures. Also, such measures are not the focus of the present study, which is focused instead on product concentration and diversification. Aspects of his model are relevant, however, to the second framework used in this study. For example, Weaver's model proposes customization as a means of developing sustainable mass tourism, which might not be possible without diversifying the tourism products in a destination to satisfy a wider range of tastes. This study also proposes an approach of mass diversification through customization that offers a wide range of primary tourism products. Thus, theoretically the Weaver model does touch on issues of concentration and diversification in relation to the development of alternative and mass tourism products.

The framework in the present study contains four distinctive scenarios for primary tourism product development, with Weaver also offering four scenarios, although the conceptual basis differs. The first situation concentrates on the alternative tourism product for the niche tourist market, offering one or just a very few tourism products in a destination for special interest tourists. The second scenario involves the concentration of tourism products for the mass market, whereby a destination such as a coastal resort experiences mass consumption of one or just a very few tourism products. The third scenario is based on diversified alternative tourism products, offering a wide range of products for consumption by small numbers of tourists, often specialist interest tourists. The fourth situation is that of diversified mass tourism products, with large numbers of tourism products for consumption by large tourist volumes.

The framework considers the temporal evolution of tourist destinations based on their tourism product characteristics. The development of tourism often starts with concentrated alternative tourism products and the direction of subsequent development can be affected by the implementation of development strategies and tourist flow control measures. The movement of a destination from one situation to another, whether towards more concentration or diversification of its products, depends on the development of its primary tourism products and also on the types of products involved, that is whether they cater for special interest tourists or mass tourists. The framework also recognizes that diversification depends not only on the number of primary tourism products, but also on the ways these products are linked and packaged. These are the key concepts behind the development of the second framework. Both the general framework and this associated framework were central to the analysis of the two study cases, and hence to understanding the relationships between diversified tourism products and their influence on destination inherent economic resilience.

The third framework, presented in Figure 3.3, was also deductively developed based on theoretical concepts and thinking derived from the relevant literature on the inherent economic resilience of tourist destinations. The focus was on inherent resilience that is the factors that affect the ability of a tourist destination to respond to change under normal conditions. This can be investigated by looking at the internal and external factors that influence a destination's ability to overcome these challenges and to continue functioning. Due to time and funding problems, it was not possible to consider in more depth the

concept of adaptive resilience, which refers to the ability to resist and function again during and after facing major crises.

This generic framework of tourist destination inherent economic resilience was deliberately simple and broadly drawn to have wide, generic relevance in many situations. Subsequently, it was refined at the start of the results Chapter Eight based on the specific sub-categories of the generic framework that were found to be particularly important in the two case study areas. The more detailed framework, reflecting the sub-categories found to be important in the Libyan case study areas, was then used to structure the discussion of the results in Chapter Eight. Thus, the organization of the chapter was based on theories, concepts and ideas deductively drawn from the literature and also on the more important issues within the generic categories based on the empirical findings. The overall aim of the third framework is to understand the relationships between the concentration and diversification of tourism products and destination inherent economic resilience. Thus, the third framework to some extent drew together the findings of the first two frameworks.

The theoretical and conceptual basis of the third framework has four dimensions. The first dimension is the inherent and attained characteristics or attributes of the tourism products, which are the qualities that tourism products have or acquire to resist decline. These attributes are often understood in the field as the comparative advantages that tourism products attain. Comparative advantages are based on resource endowments (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). Hassan (2000) contends that destination management should examine the unique comparative advantages of products or destinations that have long-term appeal for tourists. These tourism product features can include abundance, accessibility, affordability, uniqueness, and iconic products. The second dimension in the framework is the interrelationships and linkages of the tourism products that allow these products to be combined in an advantageous way. Tourism product interrelationships and linkages include developing quality and unique experiences, synergy for competitiveness and resilience, spatial and thematic clusters for tourist products, and diversification into new sophisticated tourist products. The spatial and thematic linkages can be arranged and managed by various industry actors, such as tour operators, planners, and destination managers, on the basis of their complementarity and compatibility. The interrelationships and linkages are associated with synergies based on cooperation, collaboration, and clustering approaches applied between tourism products. They are often related to attempts to improve performance and to gain a competitive advantage over rivals through

diversification. This diversification is not possible in situations of product concentration, whether on an alternative or a mass tourism product. Kang *et al.* (2011) assert that a degree of diversification can improve a firm's performance. Tourism product diversification can be very important for achieving competitive price advantage (Cooper, 2012).

The third dimension consists of the exogenous variables that affect destination economic resilience, reflecting the character of tourism as a diffuse but interlinked economic sector in wider society, and one that requires multidisciplinary or interdisciplinary study (Mowforth and Munt, 1998). These variables are external to the tourism sector, but they significantly influence the development, flexibility and competitiveness of tourist destinations (Fadillah, *et al.*, 2012; Sönmez, 1998), and subsequently affect their overall adaptability and economic resilience. These variables include the government role, community participation and involvement, reliable infrastructure, SME's role, diversification into new markets, and human resource development. These variables are relevant for this research, and were included in the study here, but their influence extends beyond the tourism sector. These were the variables within the third dimension in the framework found to be important in the two case study areas, and their relative importance, and influence of other variables, will vary between local contexts.

The fourth dimension is the implications of tourist product diversification and concentration for inherent economic resilience. This includes tourist satisfaction and loyalty, and economic leakages. The fourth dimension is slightly different in character from the other three dimensions as it considers the consequences resulting from the influence of the other three dimensions, and it can also be used as an indicator to measure the scale of the inherent economic resilience in a destination.

The three frameworks are strongly interrelated because they were developed closely in relation to one another, starting with the overall framework and then following sequentially with the other two frameworks, providing the study with continuity and consistency. They are very closely connected with the research findings as the categories and linkages they highlight were examined in the specific themes and questions covered in the survey interviews. The three results chapters are also organized sequentially on the basis of the frameworks, covering the three key general concepts: the primary tourism products, the concentration and diversification of primary tourism products, and tourist destination inherent economic resilience. Each chapter includes the themes and findings relevant to the

five broad components of the general framework. The consistency of the overall study was accomplished through the interrelation and continuing use of ideas from the academic literature, the frameworks, the methodology and the findings, and it is this overall integration and consistency of focus that constitutes a major aspect of the study's theoretical and empirical contribution to knowledge. The next sections briefly review the key findings from the application of the three frameworks.

9.3 Review of Key Findings from the Application of the Frameworks

The five elements of the general framework, shown in Figure 3.1, provided the basis for fulfilling the objectives of this research. These five elements bind together the supply and demand sides and are perhaps the key elements in terms of influencing the relationships between the diversified primary tourism products, which in turn influence a tourist destination's inherent economic resilience. The application of the frameworks in the case study areas was intended to meet the Objective 4. The research findings revealed that tourism product development towards more concentration or more diversification has significant implications regarding the ability of the tourist destination to adapt to the changes and to secure economic viability in the longer term.

9.3.1 Findings on the Attributes of Primary Tourism Products

The primary tourism product is a key element of the frameworks. These products represent the pull factor for tourists and they are a major focus for product diversification and also for the inherent resilience of destinations. Yet it was also found to be very difficult to understand how the primary tourism products work without understanding the supplementary tourism products influence on the performance of the primary products. The supplementary products are the secondary and conditional elements in the typology developed by Jansen-Verbeke (1986). Therefore, it was found in practice to be important to include the supplementary tourism products in the analysis in order to gain a clear picture about the most important attributes of tourism products.

The attributes of the tourism products were discussed in Chapter Six, especially in section 6.2, and in section 8.2.1 in Chapter Eight. Many of the tourism product features in the case study areas were quite weak and there was shown to be a need for improvements in order to reduce risks in any diversification strategy, and also to enhance the inherent capacity that is important to sustain inherent economic resilience.

9.3.2 Patterns of Development and Use of the Primary Tourism Products

These are key issues in both the first and second frameworks developed in this study, and consideration of these issues addressed objectives 2 and 3. It was found that the tourism products in Tripoli took the form of both alternative and mass tourism products. The mass tourism products are represented by beach tourism, which is found in both case study areas, and shopping tourism, that is a major activity in Tripoli. The beach tourism product was mainly developed by private sector businesses as a seasonal summer product that attracts large numbers of domestic tourists. It was noticeable that most resorts have been established on the sandy areas of the coast and comprise removable infrastructure, such as tents and wooden cottages, and they provide only basic services, such as umbrellas, chairs and some take-away foods. The local culture substantially influences the development and operation of these resorts. There are two different types of resorts that receive different types of visitors. One receives only families and females, while the other receives males. Moreover, dress codes are strictly applied at family beach resorts. Because the beach resorts are of poor quality due to a lack of diversification and allied competition, an increasing number of Libyan people travelled every year to spend their summer holidays at quality beach resorts in neighbouring North African countries. The lack of government intervention, including weaknesses in quality control, has led to huge amounts of rubbish being left behind at these resorts at the end of the season.

Shopping is another mass tourism product that is consumed by domestic tourists and tourists from Arab nations and this activity is concentrated in Tripoli. The development of international shopping malls and local supermarkets, and continuing use of traditional markets in the Old Medina in Tripoli, has sustained shopping tourism development for domestic tourists and tourists from neighboring Arab countries.

Alternative tourism products represent a form of primary tourism product that is consumed by small numbers of tourists. In Tripoli, diversified alternative tourism products include business tourism, which still is limited to modest numbers but is growing fast due to the opening of Libya's economy to both international and domestic private companies to invest in various manufacturing and service industries, and also due to the emergence of international hotel chains in the city. Cultural and historical tourism products are also important alternative tourism products in Tripoli, attracting both domestic and international tourists, but still in relatively modest numbers. Scuba diving, horse riding, cycling,

sporting, and food tourism are other alternative tourism products in the two study areas, but they are still in very early stages of development since their infrastructure is still weak and needs improvement. In Alkhoms, archaeological tourism dominates and it is considered as the only concentrated alternative tourism product in the case study area. It is consumed mainly by relatively small numbers of international tourists.

9.3.3 Patterns of Relationships between Diversified Tourism Products

The researcher did not begin the study thinking that the relationships between tourism products would be really important in relation to the core focus of the study. But quickly the topic of relationships between tourism products emerged as being very important in practice. This topic was the focus of work by Weidenfeld *et al.* (2010), but this study had a different focus on product diversification that adds a new dimension to the literature in the field. Weidenfeld's work on relationships between tourism products is not related to diversification, but this study is. This meant the study could extend the relevant issues and enrich the discussions. It was found that the attractions developed relationships of compatibility and complementarity based on locational proximities and thematic similarity and dissimilarity and these were critical for their competitiveness and may sustain resilience.

The patterns of relationships between diversified tourism products are key elements in all three frameworks developed in the study, and the examination of this issue relates to the study Objectives 2, 3, 4 and 5. In addition, these issues are also relevant to the concept of the inherent resilience of destinations. Various patterns of relationships were identified among the tourism products in the two case study areas. In Alkhoms, the main primary tourism products are beach tourism and archaeological tourism, but they are completely separate, despite their proximity. One important reason behind this separation is a lack of collaboration between the management of the two products, notably due to the inflexible and hierarchical public sector management that runs the Leptis Magna site. This separation has deepened the seasonality effect due to the peak visiting times for the two attractions being in different seasons. Therefore, the two products are neither compatible nor complementary and there is little exchangeability of tourists.

The similarity between the two archaeology sites of Leptis Magna and Villa Celine, located 12 km west of the Leptis Magna site, has led to some compatibility and linkages

between the two whereby tourists, after visiting Leptis Magna site, are often offered the opportunity to visit Villa Celine on the way back to Tripoli. However, the lack of infrastructure and collaboration has limited the development of linkages between these closely located attractions.

In Tripoli most tourist attractions and products are located in the city centre, so that tourists do not need transportation to visit them. Thus, the spatial proximity between the attractions in Tripoli has increased their compatibility and complementarity. The conglomeration of tourist accommodation and cafés, restaurant and shops and other services close to the city centre allows tourists to walk from one place to another, with flexibility to select where to go and what to see. Moreover, business tourists are able to attend business exhibitions and conferences at Tripoli International Fair and in many hotels that offer conference halls and meeting rooms, and they then can visit the cultural attractions in the city or can travel to visit the famous archaeological site of Leptis Magna. Also, cruise tourists and scuba-diving tourists are offered visits to cultural places in Tripoli and to the Leptis Magna site. The spatial proximity has enabled similar and dissimilar attractions in Tripoli to be linked and mixed together. Thus, compatibility and complementarity linkages between the attractions in Tripoli have allowed it to be more flexible and adaptable to tourists' demands. On the negative side, beach tourism, which is mostly consumed by domestic tourists, is not complemented so much by cultural tourism products because local people are less interested in visiting cultural products, such as museums and archaeology sites, because the range of products available is not appealing to them. In conclusion, the spatial proximity between tourism products and the conglomeration of services in the city centre have helped the emergence of spatial clusters and thematic clusters in Tripoli, but these clusters are still weak due to the lack of know-how on building active partnerships and networks for sharing of knowledge and production costs, which would enable them to compete more successfully.

In addition, the competition between various businesses related to tourism has intensified in terms of offering a better quality of service in hotels, food services in restaurants and cafés, exhibitions and travel agencies, tour operators and retail businesses. Such internal competition has indirectly helped to increase the attractiveness of Tripoli's attractions for both domestic and international tourists.

9.3.4 The Influence of Tourism Product Diversification on the Inherent Economic Resilience of the Two Case Study Areas

The third framework applied to the case study areas is a sub-framework within the overall framework, and its development and application relates to the Objectives 3, 4 and 5. The application of the general framework and its associated frameworks in this study showed that Tripoli has a diversity of tourism products, including cultural attractions (such as museums and historical sites), traditional local lifestyles, beach resorts, diving centres, business tourism, cruise tourism, and sports tourism. The diversification of Tripoli's tourism products, either through creating new tourism products or by connecting existing tourism products, has economically benefited the city. The benefits are apparent in the number of direct and indirect jobs created in terms of the hotel sector, tour operators, tourist guides, travel agencies, rental car companies, cafés and restaurants, retailers and taxis. There has been growth in related businesses and an increase in the number of tourists visiting Tripoli. The diversification of primary tourism products and the development of services in Tripoli have also encouraged tourists to stay longer in Tripoli and to spend more money on the available products and services, making the city more flexible and adaptable to meet a greater range of tourists' needs.

In contrast, Alkhoms has the concentrated alternative tourism product of Leptis Magna and the concentrated mass tourism product of beach tourism. The lack of diversified primary tourism products has clearly restricted the area's economic development. The capacity of the tourism sector to create new jobs has been marginal, and thus economic returns have been very low compared to those achieved by Tripoli. The lack of diversified tourism products combined with the lack of suitable accommodation and services has discouraged tourists from extending their stay and spending more money in the city, leading to very limited economic growth and inflexibility.

Destination inherent economic resilience is broader than economic growth and competitiveness, of course, as it includes the capacity of a destination to face the forces of change in normal times. It is important to recognize that the factors of competitiveness and inherent resilience are quite close to each other, but that the differences between them can be viewed through the potential tensions between them. For example, increased concentration and scale of operations, such as in beach tourism, may increase the productivity and competitiveness of a business but it also could increase the impact of any shocks that could occur any time. In other words, it could decrease resilience. Thus, the

factors that were explored in this research are now considered from a resilience standpoint. According to this understanding of the term, indicators of inherent resilience were explored, such as of tourist satisfaction and loyalty, and of economic leakage, taking into account the recognition that inherent resilience needs to be assessed by examining the strengths and weaknesses of the factors that enable a destination to face normal challenges. There were limits to what was researched here as there were a lack of documented data, but respondents were asked about changes over time and previous historical trends were discussed to understand how tourism in Libya faced the normal forces of change.

In general, international tourists were not very satisfied with the quality of services in either case study area, although visitors to Tripoli were more satisfied with the availability and quality of services than the visitors to Alkhoms. At the same time, tourists were satisfied with the attractiveness and iconic archaeological images of Leptis Magna and satisfied with the appeal of Saraya museum and the traditional image of Old Medina in Tripoli. This may imply that Tripoli is more resilient than Alkhoms due to its tourism product diversification and its infrastructure capacity. By contrast, despite the very iconic and attractive image of the Leptis Magna site, the lack of local tourism product diversification and poor infrastructure together with the poor quality of services have made Alkhoms less resilient and less able to adapt to the increasingly sophisticated tastes of tourists.

For several years there was a high level of economic leakage in Libyan tourism due to the importing of goods and furniture for hotels and the hiring of foreign employees, either top management staff for 5-star hotels or low skilled international employees, mainly from neighboring Arab countries, in hotel services, restaurants and food production. These leakages have important implications in terms of the low economic viability of the tourism sector and its inability to provide strong economic returns for local communities. According to the Tourism Master Plan (2009-2015), the leakages have not been reduced by more than 30% in the years between 1995 and 2009, which is a strong indication of the problems regarding availability of skilled people and other issues. It was found that Human Resources Development programs had not focused on tourism as a whole, but instead had concentrated on certain aspects of hospitality and food production. In addition, economic leakages are linked to the lack of collaboration between local goods producers, represented by SMEs, and the tourism and hospitality sector, even though the emphasis of the tourism

authority has been on encouraging hotels and tourism organizations to purchase local provisions and goods.

9.4 Evaluation of the Frameworks and Empirical Findings

The frameworks in this research were developed to investigate the patterns of primary tourism product development, the patterns of relationships between primary tourism products that might have arisen as a result of product diversification, and whether the emergent relationships and linkages support the destination's tourism products in resisting decline and in bouncing back from normal problems to attract new tourists and make substantial profits for local businesses. It is contended that the frameworks and Libyan findings add to knowledge about the relationships around tourism product diversification and between tourism products and destination inherent economic resilience. The discussion here examines the value of the frameworks and the empirical findings and their potential relevance for researchers examining other tourist destinations.

9.4.1 The Value of the Frameworks for the Research

The frameworks aided exploration of the relationships between tourism products in terms of concentration and diversification and the scale of their use in terms of alternative and mass products, the strategic planning of diversification and resilience, the patterns of demand and level of tourist satisfaction, and inherent economic resilience. The overall framework helped to clarify the relationships between the scale of diversification and the scale of use, and it led to the development of the two associated frameworks to examine the theoretical scenarios of tourism product development and the framework of tourism products and destination inherent economic resilience. Thus, these frameworks were important to understand relationships between these themes and thus to achieve the study's aim and objectives. Since the fieldwork was done in one round, it was not possible to assess the temporal directions of the development of tourism products that are represented by the arrows in the second framework (Figure 3.2). Thus, the second framework needs further research to assess changes over time to see how products and destinations evolve over time between the categories in the framework.

The frameworks were valuable in exploring the character of the inherent resilience of tourist destinations, but their application was less effective in examining the economic resilience of tourist destinations in terms of major temporal change or in terms of the

adaptability of the tourism sector in response to substantial crises. The researcher could not examine in depth the extent to which the diversification of tourism products had sustained the adaptability of tourism in the case study areas in temporal terms. This was partly due to the lack of documented data on trends in Libya's tourism and also due to the study being conducted only at one point in time. Nevertheless, respondents in the interviews did sometimes discuss resilience in temporal terms and in relation to threats and recovery.

The development of the frameworks was particularly valuable, however, because tourism product development, tourism product diversification, and tourism products and inherent economic resilience are key aspects of tourism, but aspects that are relatively under-researched. Conceptual development in these areas is notably under-developed. It is hoped that the frameworks developed in the present study will assist other tourism researchers in applying them in other contexts and in refining the issues and connections they identify. It is also hoped that the frameworks will prompt further debate and research on these topics.

Since the issues related to tourism products, diversification, and resilience are enormously complex, the practical value of the frameworks lies in their clear identification of the key issues, relationships and research themes. This was shown in this study where they enabled the researcher to focus on appropriate research topics and key issues and relationships in the interview questions, and they assisted in evaluating the content of the interviews and the information gathered from a range of other types of sources. The themes in the frameworks were also shown to be useful in dividing the complex and overlapping issues by relatively discrete themes for the three results chapters in the study. The themes were shown to be important in the Libyan case study areas, and it is hoped that the framework will be applied in other types of tourism destination areas because the themes are also likely to be relevant there.

9.4.2 Contribution to the Debate on Tourism Product Development

The frameworks facilitated clarification of the interlinked themes and the implications for primary tourism product development. The findings, for example, suggest that tourism product diversification in the form either of alternative or mass tourism products is much influenced by whether linkages are built between them through their spatial proximity or thematic characteristics. The mixing of products can form new, more flexible and adaptable products to meet a wide range of tastes, thereby becoming more competitive and

resilient. Thus, the frameworks can help to draw attention to the importance of tourism organizations collaborating in exploiting the spatial and thematic features of products to create clusters that facilitate the flow of knowledge and skills. Such clustering can enable them to exploit collaboration and thematic linkages to compete more successfully with other destinations. The practical policy implications can be to encourage destinations to diversify by developing entirely new tourism products and/or by connecting existing products through developing cooperation and partnerships based on spatial and thematic features. By promoting compatibilities and complementarities between diversified tourism products this can encourage flexibility and customization for improved destination resilience.

9.4.3 Contribution of the Second Framework

The second framework adds to current debates regarding the development patterns of tourism products and the relationships that could emerge among them. It sheds light on the possibilities of different patterns or scenarios of primary tourism product development in relation to the intensity of use of the products. Each scenario reflects a different relationship between the products and the ways these products are consumed, which in turn determines a destination's capacity, flexibility, and adaptability. The framework suggests that it is important for planners to consider the crucial role of primary tourism products, their diversification, and their development patterns in terms of alternative and mass products. It indicates the importance of synergy, complementarities and compatibilities between products for the flexibility and adaptability of destinations to meet tourist needs. These synergies may be based on location proximity and/or thematic similarities and dissimilarities and they may promote diversity and flexibility to meet tourist demands. The framework also questions whether tourism planning strategies sustain inherent responses to seasonality problems and changes in tourist demand and tastes.

The application of this framework in Tripoli suggested that tourism development had been strengthened by the modest but growing diversification of the city's tourism products and in particular by the spatial proximity and thematic similarity and dissimilarity between the products. There was scope, however, for far more collaboration and coordination between the existing tourism products, with almost no negotiation and agreements taking place between the managers of tourism products and services about their priorities or about focusing their collective efforts on common priorities. By contrast, the lack of diversified

primary tourism products in Alkhoms has limited the destination's flexibility potentially to adapt to changes, and it has also meant that it suffers substantially from seasonality and low demand. Thus, if tourism providers seek to increase their businesses flexibility in order to attract a wider range of tourists in a destination then they are likely to need to diversify with more tourism products. They may well also need to work together to establish shared priorities about best practices and how to benefit from their spatial proximities and thematic features. These strategies potentially can increase their flexibility and adaptability by offering higher quality products that attract more diverse market segments.

The study demonstrated the potential value of the second framework for decision makers in Libya. It highlights the thematic information that is required to support policy makers in deciding what forms of tourism product development are appropriate to attaining more diverse, flexible, adaptable tourism products and destination development.

One of the key features of the case studies in this study is that they reflect the Gaddafi regime's public sector-driven, top-down organizational system and culture that probably was not especially effective in commercial terms. Use of the frameworks for the two case study areas in Libya indicates that some tourism products developed by the private sector have emerged in Tripoli but they are not especially well connected with other tourism products, and the public sector products like Leptis Magna in Alkhoms have not been significantly invested in by government and the public sector has not been allowed proactively to operate and develop them. The nature of tourism product development in the Gaddafi regime in terms of public sector supremacy has made the tourism sector overall very inflexible and vulnerable. The sector also has real problems because of its very poor planning and strategies.

The frameworks also indicate ways in which tourism potentially might be developed further in Libya, depending of course on what happens politically after the fall of Gaddafi's regime. It can be emphasized here that many of the issues explored in this study will not have changed very substantially despite the political situation having altered dramatically. Most of the findings of this study will still provide the backdrop against which future tourism development will need to take place. In other words, despite the huge changes in Libya since the fieldwork was completed in 2010, this does not negate the practical value of this study for Libya. Very many of the same issues still remain. What has happened in

the country, however, illustrates the potentially critical importance of political and security contexts to attraction and destination development.

9.4.4 The Contribution of the Framework for the Inherent Economic Resilience of Destinations

The third framework concerning destination resilience is considered to be a useful addition to the literature regarding the relationships between primary tourism products, their development patterns, and the inherent economic resilience of destinations. It helped to clarify the importance of the attributes of primary tourism products for inherent comparative advantages, and of the interrelationships and linkages between tourism products for adaptive competitive advantages. It also identified external influences and indicators for measuring inherent economic resilience. The factors affecting destination inherent economic resilience are interlinked and their synergetic relationships can enhance the overall adaptability and resilience of destinations. By contrast, any weaknesses among them might lower the inherent economic resilience of destinations. The findings also suggest that diversification of tourism products does not in its own right achieve resilience as resilience depends on the synergistic interrelationships and linkages of products so that they collectively promote flexibility and adaptability. Such adaptability is important for achieving long-term competitiveness and economic resilience.

Destination managers need to integrate the inherent resilience concepts into their plans for tourism product development in order to secure long term competitiveness and resilience. It is clear that resilience is a wider concept than competitiveness because it focuses on long term strategic goals, while the latter is not necessarily concerned with such wider issues.

Resilience comprises both inherent and adaptive features, with the former relating to the preparedness characteristics that enable the tourist product to function well during normal times, and which help to mitigate the effect of future disasters. The latter refers to response and recovery activities that enable tourist products to resist crises and to rebound back to function (Rose, 2004; Tierney and Bruneau, 2007). The literature on inherent and adaptive resilience suggests that both components must be mutually interlinked to sustain overall destination economic resilience. This study, however, focused more on inherent resilience rather than on the adaptive resilience. The latter requires collecting data from fieldwork at different times in order to assess adaptive resilience in the face of major crises, which was not possible in this study. Thus, this study was mainly cross-sectional and not mainly

focused on temporal dynamics. The key findings insist that low inherent economic resilience in both case study resulted from mismatching and lack of harmony between the four general factors that influence the tourist destination inherent economic resilience, as presented in Figure 3.3. However, the inherent resilience in terms of inherent features and characteristics of some of primary tourism products, such as the iconic features in both Tripoli and Alkhoms, was slightly improved. In general, the poor inherent resilience probably was linked to inflexibility due to a lack of collaboration and badly developed, managed, and marketed attractions. Thus, it is important practically to consider all of these key aspects when promoting the inherent economic resilience through diversification.

9.5 Limitations and Strengths of the Study

This section discusses where it was considered that the approaches used in the study worked particularly well, and the instances where the outcomes of the study did not meet the initial expectations or where there were limitations. Suggestions are also provided for future research directions, based on what has been learnt from the research journey.

9.5.1 The Limitations of the Study

During the process of collecting primary data there were a small number of difficulties. It was not possible, for example, to conduct interviews with female domestic tourists. The researcher had to be very sensitive to local cultural traditions which disapprove of men speaking to females other than relatives or colleagues, even in public places, without gaining permission from their parents or husbands. So, the sample of domestic tourists was limited to males and potentially interesting data that could have reflected the perspectives of an important segment of domestic tourists were excluded. The researcher also had great difficulty in gaining interviews with high ranked people in the public sector, which is quite typical of Arab Muslim developing countries where organizational and local cultures are extremely hierarchical. The only way to access these people was through gaining assistance in contacting them from their relatives and friends. The success of this approach was highly dependent on the degree of influence of the friends who were contacted. Consequently, the researcher failed to gain access to some officials and it also led to additional time and cost implications.

In practice it also proved difficult to interview large numbers of tourists because of the length of the list of interview questions and the limited time available to the tourists. Thus,

at times the researcher tended to focus only on the most crucial questions. To avoid such constraints, it might have been better to have adopted a well-designed, closed-ended, short questionnaire for tourists, focusing on the same themes as the face-to-face interview questions in order to maintain consistency.

There were also difficulties nationally and especially in the case study areas in finding relevant official information and statistics to support the study. This was often because for both case study areas the General Tourism Board (GTB) and local tourism authorities had no systems for measuring and monitoring trends, such as in tourist numbers, tourism revenue, and jobs created by the tourism sector. There was also a notable lack of previous research on Libyan tourism.

There were also issues with sampling and the quality of samples because some employees that occupied key positions in government and public sector tourism organizations were not specialists in tourism and they had little knowledge about the plans for tourism product development in Libya, especially in terms of products consumed by domestic tourists, such as eco-tourism and outdoor activities. This lack of specialism might be due to the fact that some of them were appointed on the basis of political loyalty or clan interests. Thus, sometimes the information they provided was not as valuable as expected, although it does point to the limited tourism expertise and professionalism in the public sector at times in Libya.

9.5.2 Strengths of the Study

Due to the complexity of the topic and the areas of knowledge involved in understanding the related issues, this study brings together various theories and disciplines, and this diversity of perspectives and disciplinary insights is considered to strengthen this study. Moreover, this study could provide valuable assistance for Libya's tourism decision makers by helping them to consider product diversification and linkages and also resilience as crucial factors in planning tourism strategies for ensuring the industry's long term viability and sustainability. In Libya, where tourism is still in the early stages of development, considering product issues and resilience in advance and in strategic ways could help in avoiding mistakes and achieving better controls at lower cost.

In both case study areas the frameworks developed in this research were very useful in evaluating the relationships between primary tourism products and their influence on inherent economic resilience. The themes and key elements in the frameworks are general, which renders them applicable in wider contexts for use by other researchers.

The theoretical, conceptual and methodological approaches used have made this study consistent by interlinking the assumptions, theoretical frameworks and methodology selection and data analysis. The study is also comprehensive and considered to have enhanced validity due to the adoption in triangulation methods in terms of different sources of data and in terms of the diverse sampling of types of respondents and consistent approach to data analysis. The development of theoretical frameworks and choice of the appropriate methodology for collecting and analyzing the data is considered to have yielded valuable findings that achieved the research objectives.

Another merit of this research is that it was conducted just a few months before the fall of the Gaddafi regime, and here the researcher has captured a detailed analysis of tourism development under that distinctive political system. It has revealed aspects of the regime's approaches to the development, marketing, planning, organizing, operating and implementing of tourism as a sector. It has provided valuable insights into the resulting strengths and weaknesses associated with that period of Libya's history.

9.5.3 New Directions of Research

This study has developed frameworks for potential application in all tourist destinations. However, it was applied in a pre-conflict situation and in a socialist, centralized and autocratic governance context. It would be useful to reassess them in Libya or elsewhere in a similar context in order to compare the situation pre- and post-conflict and pre- and post-socialist centralized and autocratic governance systems. It will be useful to compare the situation found in Libya in the current study with whatever system there will be in Libya in perhaps five years from now to see what has happened to tourism product development. Thus, further research post-Gaddafi would be very interesting, particularly in relation to adaptive resilience because the country has undergone a period of profound political, economic, and socio-cultural crises. Just how resilient will the tourism sector have been and how will it be coping with these major changes, in terms both of domestic and

international tourism? This would also allow for further in-depth work on the application of the study's frameworks in relation to both inherent and adaptive economic resilience.

More generally, it might be useful to reassess the frameworks developed in this study by applying them to destinations in other countries that have strong and less strong tourism sectors. This would allow further evaluation of the value of the frameworks and the possibility of amending their details according to varying circumstances.

Also, due to time and funding constraints, this study focused on economic resilience; hence, other researchers could focus on the influence of diversification of primary tourism products on social and environmental resilience to identify similarities and dissimilarities with this study and potentially develop a theory that considers all three dimensions together.

In terms of the study's transferability there are particular common problems facing tourism development in developing nations, although they vary in their prominence from one country to another. These frequent problems include an inadequate and unreliable physical, human, and informational infrastructure. Also, most developing nations have a limited budget capacity for tourism development, and they often lack community participation in decision making and in the benefits from tourism development due to problems in their socio-political, economic and cultural structures (Tosun, 2000). Libya is an extreme case, however, in terms of its political regime and the country's socio-economic and cultural issues. To some extent, it presents a similar case to many developing countries, especially those that largely depend on oil exports and have very vulnerable political environments and economic sectors. Moreover, Libya is also a Muslim developing nation that is similar to many Arab countries in terms of culture, religion, landscape etc. Thus, it can be argued that transferability of this study is possible for those similar contexts, but the study might be less likely to be transferable to Western or developed nations. On the other hand, the general conceptual frameworks developed for the study did not have very specific, context-related factors included in them. Thus, they may have very wide applicability.

9.5.3.1 Possible Extension of the Resilience Research

From reflection on the inherent economic resilience findings in Chapter Eight, it can be argued that a broader resilience assessment framework should be developed that involves the two key stages of pre- and post-crisis. The current study has examined only the

elements of inherent economic resilience, in a situation where it is relatively stable and, as it turned out in Libya subsequently, in a pre-crisis phase. The study was restricted in this way in part because the major part of the study was focused not on assessing economic resilience, but on tourism product diversification, and indeed the discussion of resilience also focused on how product diversification affects economic resilience. There were also time constraints and constraints of access to data in Libya which made it difficult to consider all aspects of resilience. This study, however, did not adopt the longer-term temporal approach required to assess how well Libya's tourism industry adapts to a specific crisis in a post-crisis phase. Of course, it turned out that after the field work for the study was completed Libya underwent a massive political and socio-economic crisis with the overthrow of Gaddafi and features of an internal civil war. This has now provided an opportunity for the present researcher or others to compare the inherent resilience situation explored in this thesis with the situation after this major upheaval and its related substantial disruption to the tourism industry. The focus could also be widened from that of tourism product diversification to overall tourism development.

Thus, in order to facilitate future research which could examine the overall economic resilience of Libya's tourism system the current research is located next as part of a larger potential research process to look at pre- and post-crisis tourism issues in Libya. The current work is seen as extended within a larger study of two stages in a full pre- and post-crisis assessment framework, as shown in Figure 9.1. This framework covers both the inherent (pre-crisis) and adaptive (post-crisis) resilience phases, and it builds from the work on inherent resilience achieved in this present study.

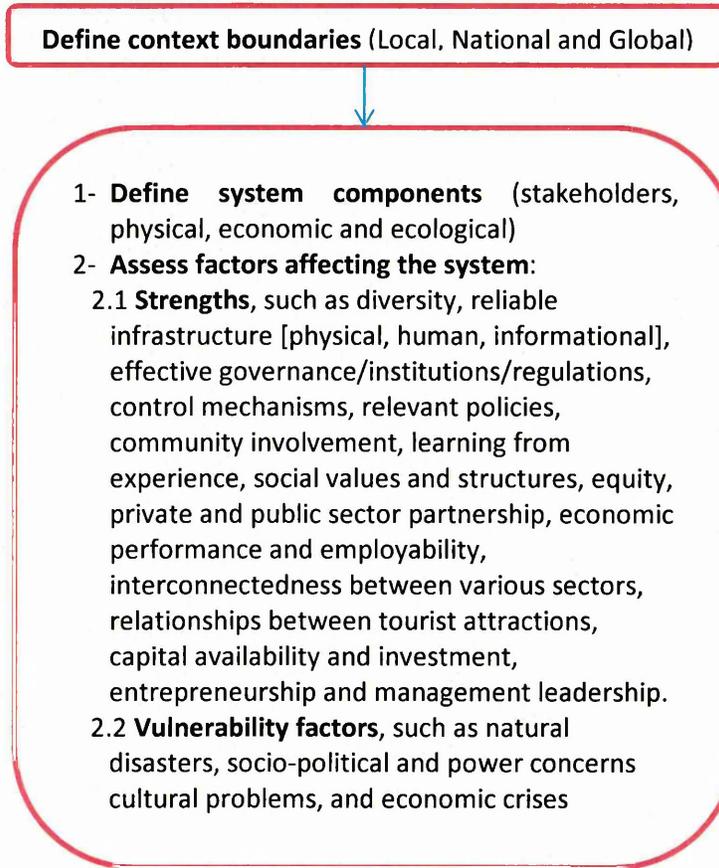
The First Phase of the Assessment

The first stage is the inherent resilience assessment, which is the focus of the current study. This represents an analysis of the varied factors within the tourism system - both internal and external - that influence the system's inherent capacity and capability to face both expected and unexpected challenges. This stage is inevitably rather static, with temporal study more prominent in the next, post-crisis phase which considers how the system has reacted to challenges and the forces of change. The first step of the assessment, the consideration of inherent resilience, provides essential groundwork and it needs to be examined before a crisis happens in order both to enhance and build up the inherent resilience and also before assessing the dynamic, temporal responses to a crisis that has

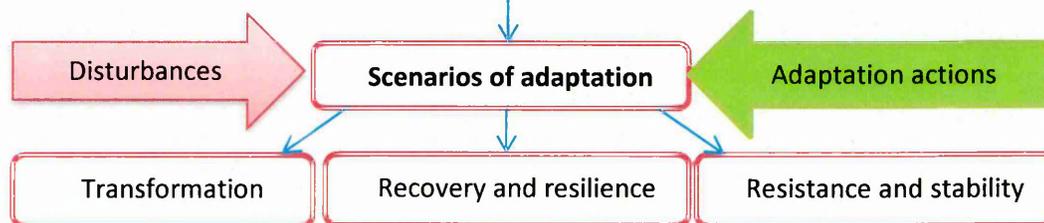
already happened or is still happening. Establishing inherent resilience is necessary for designing in mitigation processes as it helps to establish the inherent weaknesses and strengths of the system.

Figure 9-1: A Pre- and Post-Crisis Resilience Assessment Framework

1- Pre-Crisis Assessment Stage (Inherent resilience)



2- Post-Crisis Assessment Stage (Adaptive resilience)



Source: the author

The pre-crisis elements of a system make up the inherent resilience, and it needs to consider local, national and global levels. This means understanding the resilience of a tourism system in all its complexity, and it requires building linkages between the three geographical levels. This is because the local picture is a reflection of the influence of

broader national and global circumstances, and the three contexts should not be dealt with separately. It is necessary to define the tourism system's components in terms of stakeholders, physical organization, and economic and ecological relationships. The stakeholders include all individuals, groups, and organisations affected by, and affecting, tourism development. It is necessary to assess the participation of stakeholders in tourism planning and on-going management, as well as cooperation and collaboration between the various private and public sector actors. It is also important to assess the attitudes and culture of residents in relation to tourism development in order to understand the inherent cohesion features of the host community and whether the culture of the host people is likely to support or be in conflict with tourism development. On the demand side, it is important to gain in-depth insights about tourists' perspectives, satisfaction and loyalty and about the size of demand and the patterns of tourist behaviour.

The quality and readiness of physical, human and informational infrastructure to serve local people and visitors' needs can add comfort to their experience and strengthen competitiveness. Thus, assessments of the quality and efficiency of the means of transportation and communication, accommodation, skilled employees, ICT and e-marketing are important elements to capture as part of the inherent characteristics that could make tourism systems more vulnerable or more flexible to adapt with change. Effective governance, flexible institutional structures, a cohesive organizational culture, and quality control and regulation systems are further important factors for a vibrant tourism sector where the private sector, NGOs and the public sector can collaborate and share knowledge in working towards common goals. All these factors can be considered as mitigation activities that could sustain the inherent capacity of tourism systems to bounce back into business in the wake of crises. Assessing these elements can broaden the viewpoints on resilience and can link political and administrative notions to the overall idea of inherent resilience.

It is also necessary to assess product and market diversification because both are important parts of risk reduction management. Diversification can offer more jobs, spread risks, and attract more market segments, although it must be noted that this does not apply in all cases. Therefore, diversification needs to be evaluated as a feature of inherent resilience so as to understand the extent to which a destination is flexible and able to offer a broad range of choices to satisfy different tastes in difficult times.

The relationships between tourism products in terms of compatibility and complementarities based on the inherent features of spatial proximities and/or thematic linkages are also important for building synergies that could help destinations to be more competitive. Thus, it is necessary to assess these relationships in order to strengthen the destination's inherent capacities for resilience. This involves also assessing management styles and entrepreneurship, the collaboration and clustering among businesses and the existence of cooperation and partnership between the private and public sectors. The economic performance in terms of tourism's contribution to GDP, employability, business growth, and hotel occupancy are also useful, and there may be statistical information on these issues for the tourism sector.

The above factors can be strengths, but if they are weak then they will increase vulnerability and could reduce the inherent resilience capacities of a place. Destinations can face natural ecological disasters, political crises, economic recessions, and so forth. These hazards need to be assessed as inherent vulnerabilities in order to understand whether the strength factors can challenge the vulnerability factors and enhance resilience.

The Second Phase of the Assessment

The second stage of the pre- and post-crisis resilience framework in Figure 9.1 is the adaptive resilience assessment for how the system functions against change in a temporally dynamic environment. This is the post-crisis part of Figure 9.1.

Tourism can experience various types of disturbances that directly or indirectly affect tourism, resulting in declines in quality, performance and competitiveness. The disturbances can differ in their magnitude. For example, global crises are usually larger in their influence and more difficult to control compared to local or national crises. Some crises affect a particular type of tourism, such as ice melting in Alpine skiing areas due to global warming, while other tourism activities might not be affected by the same problem. Thus, it is quite hard to suggest what adaptation activity fits all crises because crises vary in their type, scale of impact, region or sector, elements involved, and resulting scenarios. And it is quite difficult to make realistic assessments and amendments for adaptation dynamics before a crisis happens. But, of course, different scenarios can be worked out theoretically by researchers and planning teams that can help in developing planning scenarios for an adaptive system and for risk reduction management.

Thus, the framework that is suggested (Figure 9.1) for a system resilience assessment emphasizes the importance of continuity between the two assessment steps- the pre-crisis and post-crisis assessment - or between so-called inherent resilience and adaptive resilience. Yet a pre-crisis assessment of inherent resilience can be accomplished as groundwork separate from a post-crisis assessment. By contrast, a post-crisis assessment is quite hard to complete without knowing the inherent features pre-crisis.

However, three post-crisis scenarios can be expected. The first scenario after the demise of the crisis – of resistance and stability - is the stable state in which the overall capacity enables the destination to resist the decline forces and maintain stability. In the second scenario – of recovery and resilience - the destination can be slightly damaged for a period of time and then the adaptation activities are commenced, such as pricing strategies through partnership between airlines and hotels etc., substitutability between domestic and international tourism, and product and market diversification. Then the system struggles and reorganizes and gradually starts its recovery. In the third situation – of transformation - the destination might not be able to bounce back to the pre-crisis situation and also the actors might find greater opportunity in transformation to a new situation. It should be noticed that the new opportunities often result from taking risks and learning from experience.

Thus, the discussion of inherent resilience in this study offers the groundwork for other researchers to investigate the influence of all aspects of tourism over the longer term on resilience in both case study areas. That would provide a very interesting study given the profound upheavals to Libya's tourism industry in more recent times.

9.5.4 Examples of Lessons Gained from the Study

Diversification into more primary tourism products can sustain economic growth and competitiveness but it will not necessarily guarantee economic resilience for a destination. This is because there are other factors which also influence the destination's resilience. However, many features of relationships between tourism product diversification and destination economic resilience have been demonstrated. The study suggests that tourism planners need to integrate resilience concepts into diversification strategies to ensure long term economic viability. This emphasizes the importance of diversifying products based in part on a market orientation in order to meet the sophisticated needs of contemporary

tourists, but also of consideration of the needs of local communities and of ensuring the support of all stakeholders.

Tourism policies and plans have not been well formulated in terms of promoting tourism development in the two case studies, particularly in the case of Alkhoms. This might partly be due to the differences in power distribution between the central government located in Tripoli and the local municipal authorities in Tripoli and Alkhoms. Tripoli's tourism local authority has benefited from the proximity and ease of daily interaction with the central governmental bodies, while Alkhom's tourism authority does not have this advantage. Thus, decentralization of power and more localization of planning and funding could offer a practical means of advancing tourism development in Libya.

References

- AAS, C. LADKIN, A. and FLETCHER, J. (2005). Stakeholder collaboration and heritage management, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(1): 28–48.
- ABAIID, A. (2010) Conditions of investments in Libya and incentives through using One Stop Shop. [online]. In: *Alarabonline*, Friday 17/12/2010, last accessed 3 July 2012 at: <http://www.alarabonline.org/previouspages/2010/12/17-12/p10.pdf>
- ABUBAKER, A. (2012). Influence of core cultural values on the communication behaviour of staff in Libyan organisation, Newcastle University, UK, [online] last accessed 24 August 2012 at: http://research.ncl.ac.uk/ARECLS/vol4_documents/ABUBAKER.pdf
- ABUBAKER, Naser (2009). The impact of organisational culture on employees motivation: Libyan cases study, PhD, University of Salford, UK.
- ABUHARRIS, A. and RUDDOCK, L. (2005). Land-Use planning and sustainable tourism development in Libya, p 665-674. [online]. Last accessed 12 January 2011 at: http://www.arcom.ac.uk/-docs/proceedings/ar2005-0665-0674_Abuharris_and_Ruddock.pdf
- BLAKE, A. SINCLAIR, M. T. and SORIA, J.A.C. (2006). Tourism productivity: evidence from the United Kingdom, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(4):1099–1120
- AFRICAN BIRD CLUB: Libya, African birding resources. [online] last accessed 12 February 2012 at: <http://www.africanbirdclub.org/countries/Libya/introduction.html>
- AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK (2009). The Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya: country engagement note, [online]. In: *regional development North I (ORNA) report*. January 2009, last accessed 31 July 2012 at: http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Project-and-Operations/LIBYA_COUNTRY_20ENGAGEMENT_20NOTE_01.pdf
- AFRICAN ECONOMIC OUTLOOK (2009). Libya, [online]. last accessed on 13 August 12 at: http://www.africaneconomicoutlook.org/fileadmin/uploads/aeo/Resources/AEO_Libya_Country_Note_ArabicRev.pdf
- AGARWAL, Sheela (1994). The resort cycle revisited: implications for resorts. In COOPER, Chris and LOCKWOOD, (eds.). *Progress in tourism, recreation and hospitality management*, John Wiley and Sons, Chichester, 6(5):194-208.
- Agarwal, S. (2002) Restructuring seaside tourism: The resort lifecycle, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1): 25-55.
- ALAFI, A. and De BRUJIN, E. J. (2010). A Change in the Libyan Economy: Towards A More Market-Oriented Economy. [online]. In: *management of change conference 2010 (CREP), Lueneburg 26th – 27th of November 2009*, last accessed 03 June 2012, at: <http://doc.utwente.nl/76014/1/Abouazoum10change.pdf>
- ALDEBERT, B. DANG, R. J. and LONGHI, C. (2008). Temporary clusters and knowledge creation: the case of tourism, [online]. In: *24th EGOS Colloquium, 10-12 July 2008, VU University Amsterdam, The Netherlands*, last accessed 15 January 2013, at: <http://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/halshs-00365153/>
- ALEJZIAK, W.B. (2012). Tourism in the face of 21st century's challenges, Institute of Tourism Academy of Physical Education Cracow, Poland. [online]. Last accessed on 13.11.2012, at: [http://fama2.us.es:8080/turismo/turismonet1/economia del turismo/politica turistica/tourism in the face of 21 century challenges.pdf](http://fama2.us.es:8080/turismo/turismonet1/economia%20del%20turismo/politica%20turistica/tourism%20in%20the%20face%20of%2021%20century%20challenges.pdf)

AL-FENADI, Y. (2009). Meteorological information and road safety in Libya, Libyan National Meteorological Centre (LNMC). [online]. Last accessed on 12.12.2012, at : http://www.wmo.int/pages/mediacentre/news_members/documents/MeteorologicalinformationandroadsafetyinLibya.pdf

AL-HAMARNEH, Ala and STEINER, C. (2004). Islamic tourism: rethinking the strategies of tourism development in the Arab world after September 11, 2001, *Comparative Studies of South Asia, Africa and the Middle East*, 24(1):175-186.

AL-HASAN, S. JWAILI, M. and THOMAS, B. (2003). Gaining competitive advantage for the Libyan tourism industry through e-marketing. [online] last accessed 2 November 2012, at: http://www.ifitt.org/admin/public/uploads/ENTER_2003_final_version100.pdf

ALI, O. K. HASHIM, N. ROSTAM, K. and JUSOH, H. (2011). Spatial growth of the semi-squatter settlement in Tripoli- Libya, *International Journal of Research & Reviews (IJRRAS)*, 9(3):478-485

ALI-KNIGHT, Jane (2011). The role of niche tourism products in destination development, PhD, *Edinburgh Napier University*.

AL-BADDAWY, A. (2007). Freedom house, countries at the crossroads 2007- Libya. [online]. Last accessed 13 August 2012 at: <http://www.refworld.org/docid/473869275.html>

ALMASALLA for ARAB TOURISM NEWS.[online]. Last accessed on 28 July 2012, at: <http://almasallanews.com/News-87552.html>.

AMBROZ, M. (2008). Attitudes of local residents towards the development of tourism in Slovenia: the case of the Primorska, Dolenjska, Gorenjska and Ljubljana regions, *Anthropological Notebooks*, 14 (1): 63-79.

AMIEL, Y. (1998). The subjective approach to the measurement of income inequality. Discussion Paper No. DARP 38, June 1998, [online]. Last accessed 6 September 2011 at: http://darp.lse.ac.uk/subjective/amiel_1999.pdf

ANDERSON, W. and JUMA, S. (2011). Linkages at tourism destinations: Challenges in Zanzibar, *ARA Journal*, 3(1): 27-40.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL TOURS (2011). Libya: Ancient Cites & Prehistoric Art. [Online]. In: *North and sub-Saharan Africa-an archaeological study tour*, [online]. Last accessed 19 May 2012 at: http://www.archaeologicaltrs.com/af_libya.html

ARAB TOURISM NEWS (2011). Almasalla. [online] at: <http://www.almasalla.travel/>

ARDAHAEY, F. T. (2011). Economic impacts of tourism industry, *International Journal of Business and Management*, 6(8):206-215.

ARMARIO, E. M. (2008). Tourist satisfaction: an analysis of its antecedents. [online]. In: *Asociación Europea de Dirección y Economía de Empresa. International Conference*, Universidad, Sociedad y Mercados Globales, Salvador de Bahía, 2008. p376-382, last accessed on 12.10.2012, at: dialnet.unirioja.es/descarga/articulo/2751774.pdf.

ASADI, R. (2011). Recognition and prioritization of internal and external factors affecting development strategies of Iran tourism, *European Journal of Scientific Research*, 63(1): 150-163.

ASHWORTH, G. (2004). The blue - grey transition: heritage in the reinvention of the tourism resort, *DUBROVNIK*, http://www.thebestinheritage.com/files/pdf/the_blue-grey_transition.pdf

ATELJEVIC, Irena, PRITCHARD, Annette, MORGAN, Nigel (2007). The critical turn in tourism studies: innovative research methods, *Advances in tourism research*, Elsevier, London.

ATTRIDE-STIRLING, J. (2001). Thematic networks: an analytic tool for qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, Sage Publication, 1(3): 385-405.

BADEN, S. (1992). The position of women in Islamic countries: possibilities, constraints and strategies for change. [online]. In: *report prepared for the special programme WID, report No. 4*, Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs (DGIS), Institute of Development Studies, Brighton.

BAGGIO, R. (2011). Collaboration and cooperation in a tourism destination: a network science approach, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(2): 183-189.

BALL, R. M. (1988). Seasonality: a problem for workers in the tourism labour market? *Service Industries Journal*, 8(4): 501-513.

BALOGLU, S., and MANGALOGLU, M. (2001). Tourism destination images of Turkey, Egypt, Greece, and Italy as perceived by US-based tour operators and travel agents. *Tourism Management*, 1: 1-9.

BAKER, D. A. and CROMPTON, J. L. (2000). Quality, satisfaction, and behaviour intentions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(3): 785-804.

BAUCHE, J. (2010). The wall of international peace. [online]. In: *Freedom of Association, Assessment Report: Libya, EMHRN 2007-2010*, pp. 51-54. [online]. Last accessed on 22 November 2012, at:
http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/FAssociation/Responses2012/other_contributions/World-EMHRN2010_Annual_Report_on_Free_Association.pdf

BAUM, T. (1998). Taking the exit route: extending the tourism area life cycle model, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1(2): 169-175.

BAUM, T. HAGEN, L. (1999). Responses to seasonality: the experiences of peripheral destinations, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 1(5): 299-312.

BAXTER, P. and JACK, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: study design and implementation for novice researchers, *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4): 544-559.

BECK, Ulrich (2009). *World at Risk*, The English Edition, Polity Press.

BECK, U. (2009). Critical theory of world risk society: a cosmopolitan vision, *Blackwell Publishing Ltd.*, Constellations Volume, 16 (1): 3-22.

BERKES, F. (2007). Understanding uncertainty and reducing vulnerability: Lessons from resilience thinking, *Natural Hazards*, 41(2): 283-95.

BERKES, F. and ROSS, H. (2013). Community resilience: toward an integrated approach, *Society & Natural Resources: An International Journal*, 26(1): 5-20.

BERRY, T. (2006). The predictive potential of the TALC model. In: BUTLER, Richard W. (eds.). *The tourism area lifecycle: conceptual and theoretical issues*, Aspects of Tourism, UK, Channel View Publications, 2:254-279.

BEZWEEK, S. and EGBU, C. (2010). Impact of information technology in facilitating communication and collaboration in Libyan public sector organisations. [online]. In: CIB World Congress 2010, 10-13 May 2010, The Lowry, Salford Quays, United Kingdom. Last

accessed 31 July 2012 at: <http://usir.salford.ac.uk/12835/1/530.pdf>

BHASKAR, Roy (1989). *The possibility of naturalism*, 2nd edition, Brighton, UK, Harvester.

BIANCA, M. (1997). Diversification and synergies: effects on profitability, [online]. In: Discussion Paper E1/17, March 1997, Suntory and Toyota International Centres for Economics and Related Disciplines, London School of Economics and Political Science, London, UK, last accessed 8 January 2013 at: http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/6763/1/Diversification_and_Synergies_Effects_on_Profitability.pdf

BIGGS, D. (2011). Understanding resilience in a vulnerable industry: the case of reef tourism in Australia, *Ecology and Society*, 16(1): 312-330.

BIGGS, Duan (2011). Case study: the resilience of the nature-based tourism system on Australia's Great Barrier Reef. Report prepared for the Australian Government Department of Sustainability, Environment, Water, Population and Communities on behalf of the State of the Environment 2011 Committee. Canberra: DSEWPaC, *Commonwealth of Australia*.

BIZAN, Haitm (2009) *Tourism Marketing in Libya between Reality and Ambitions*, PhD, *University of West-Hungary*, Hungary.

BLAIKIE, Norman (2010). *Designing social research*, 2nd edition, Social Science, UK, Polity Press.

BLANKE, J. and CHIESA, T. (eds.) (2011). The travel and tourism competitiveness report: Focus on moving beyond the downturn. [online]. In: *World Economic Forum*, Geneva, Switzerland. Last accessed 23 November 2012, at: www.weforum.org/ttcr

BLUE SHIELD and IMCuRWG (2011). Mission Report: 2nd Civil-Military Assessment Mission for Libya's Heritage, *Blue Shield International*, pp. 1-11.

BOLAN, P. BOYD, S. and BELL, J. (2009). Displacement theory-probing new ground in film-induced tourism, University of Ulster. [online]. Last accessed 21 December 2012 at: <http://www.shannoncollege.com/wp-content/uploads/2009/12/THRIC-2010-Full-Paper-P.-Bolan.pdf>

BOYCE, C. and NEALE, P. (2006). Conducting in-depth interviews: a guide for designing and conducting in-depth interviews for evaluation input, monitoring and evaluation, *Pathfinder International Tool Series*, 2: 1-16.

BRAMWELL, B. (1998). User satisfaction and product development in urban tourism, *Tourism Management*, 19(1): 35-47.

BRAMWELL, B. (2007). Complexity, interdisciplinarity and growth management: The Case of Maltese Resort Tourism, S. Agarwal, S. and Shaw, G. (Eds.), *Managing coastal tourism resorts: a global perspective*, Channel View, Clevedon, pp. 73-89.

BRAMWELL, B. and LANE, B. (1993). Interpretation and sustainable tourism: the potential and the pitfalls, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1(2): 71-80.

BRAMWELL, B. and LANE, B., (2000). *Collaboration and partnerships in tourism planning*. *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

BRAMWELL, B. and ALLETORP, L. (2001). Attitudes in the Danish tourism industry to the roles of business and government in sustainable tourism, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 3:91-103.

BRAMWELL, B. and LANE, B. (1999). Collaboration and partnerships for sustainable tourism, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 7:179–181.

BRAMWELL, B. and POMFORT, G. (2007). Planning for lake and lake shore tourism: complexity, coordination and adaptation: *Anatolia, An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 18(1): 43-66.

BRAMWELL, Bill and LANE, Bernard (eds.). (2002). *Tourism collaboration and partnerships: politics, practice and sustainability*, Aspects of Tourism series, UK, Channel View Publications.

BRAU, R., SCORCU, A. E., and VICI, L. (2009). Assessing visitor satisfaction with tourism rejuvenation policies: the case of Rimini, Italy. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 52: 25– 42.

BRAUN, V. and CLARKE, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology, *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3 (2): 77-101.

BREDELOUP, S. and PLIEZ, O. (2011). Improving US and EU immigration systems: the Libyan migration corridor, *Italy, European University Institute*, Research Report, 14(3). [online]. Last accessed 3 October 2012 at: <http://cadmus.eui.eu/bitstream/handle/1814/16213/EU-USImmigrationSystems2011-03.pdf?sequence=1>

BRIASSOULIS, H. (2003). Crete: endowed by nature, privileged by geography, threatened by tourism? *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 11(2-3): 97-115.

BRIGUGLIO, L. CORDINA, G. FARRUGIA, N. and VELLA, S. (2006). Conceptualising and measuring economic resilience. In: BRIGUGLIO, L. CORDINA, G. and KISANGA, E. J. (eds.). *Building the economic resilience of small states, Malta: Islands and*

BRIGUGLIO, L. CORDINA, G. FARRUGIA, N. and VELLA, S. (2009). Economic vulnerability and resilience: concepts and measurements, *Oxford Development Studies*, 37(3): 229-247.

BRIGUGLIO, L. CORDINA, G. FARRUGIA, N. and VELLA, S. (2011). Conceptualising and measuring economic resilience, pp. 26-49, [online]. Last accessed 2 November 2012 at: <http://epress.anu.edu.au/wp-content/uploads/2011/05/ch0342.pdf>

BROHMAN, J. (1996). New directions in tourism for third world development, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(1): 48-70.

BROTHERTON, B. (2004). Critical success factors in UK corporate hotels, *Service Industries Journal*, 24(3): 19-42.

BRUNORI, G. and ROSSI, A. (2000). Synergy and coherence through collective action: some insights from wine routes in Tuscany, *Sociologia ruralis*, 4(40): 409-423.

BRYMAN, Alan and BELL, Emma (2011). *Business Research Methods*, 3rd edition, Oxford University Press.

BUHALIS, Dimitrios and JUN, Soo Hyun (2011). E-tourism. In: COOPER, Chris (eds.). *Contemporary Tourism Reviews*, Goodfellow Publishers Ltd .

- BUHALIS, D. (1998). Strategic use of information technologies in the tourism industry, *Tourism Management*, 19 (5): 409-421.
- BUHALIS, D. (2001). Tourism in Greece: strategic analysis and challenges, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 4(5):440-480.
- BUHALIS, D. and O'CONNOR, P. (2005). Information communication technology revolutionizing tourism, *Tourism Recreation Research*, 30(3): 7-16.
- BUHALIS, D. EICHHORN, V. MICHPOULOU, E. and MILER, G. (2005). *Accessibility market and stakeholder analysis, One-Stop-Shop for Accessible Tourism in Europe (OSSATE)*, University of Surrey, UK. pp 1-88.
- BUHALIS, Dimitrios (2003). *E-tourism: Information Technology for Strategic Tourism management*. London, Prentice Hall.
- BUSINESS MONITOR INTERNATIONAL, (2011). [online]. In: *North Africa Monitor*. Last accessed 3 March 2013 at: http://store.businessmonitor.com/newsletter/africa_monitor_north_africa
- BUTLER, R.W. (2011). Tourism area life cycle. [online]. In: COOPER, Chris (eds.). *Contemporary Tourism Reviews*, Goodfellow Publishers Ltd
- BUTLER, R.W. (1980). The concept of the tourist area life cycle of evolution: implications for the management of resources, *Canadian Geographer* 14:,5-12.
- CARALLI, R. A. ALLEN, J. H. CURTIS, P. D. WHITE, D. W. and YOUNG, L. R. (2010). CERT Resilience management model, [online]. In: *Process areas, generic goals and practices, and glossary (CERT-RMM v1.0)*. Software Engineering Institute, Carnegie Mellon University. Last accessed 3 September 2012 at: <http://www.cert.org/resilience/rmm.html>
- CARTER, R.W. and BRAMLEY, R. (2010). Defining heritage values and significance for improved resource management: An application to Australian tourism, *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 8(3):175-199.
- CETINKAYA, A. S. (2009). Destination competitiveness through the use of information and communication technologies. [online]. In: *European and Mediterranean Conference on Information Systems, July 13-14, Crowne Plaza Hotel, Izmir, Turkey*, last accessed 11 November 2012 at: <http://www.iseing.org/emcis/CDROMProceedingsRefereedPapers/Proceedings/PresentingPapers/C43/C43.pdf>
- CHAIBOONSRI, C. CHAITIP, P. KOVÁCS, S. and BALOGH, P. (2008). A structural equation model: Greece's tourism demand for tourist destination, Agroiinform Publishing House, Budapest, pp. 75-83.
- CHAPMAN, A. and SPEAKE, J. (2011). Regeneration in a mass-tourism resort: the changing fortunes of Bugibba, Malta, *Tourism Management*, 32(3): 482-491.
- CHIDIAC, C. (2012). Libya's hospitality sector. *Hospitality News ME*, 83: 10-11, August 2012. [online]. Last accessed on 21 November 2012, at: <http://www.protocollb.com/admin/newsletter/Libya.pdf>
- CHOO, H. and JAMAL, T. (2009). Tourism on organic farms in South Korea: a new form of ecotourism? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(4) 431-454.

CHRISTOU, L. (2012). Is it possible to combine mass tourism with alternative forms of tourism: the case of Spain, Greece, Slovenia and Croatia, *Journal of Business Administration*, Arkansas Tech. University, 11(1).

CIA The world fact book (2012). Libya, [online]. Last accessed 2 March 2012 at: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ly.html>

CIA World Fact Book, (2004). Libya, [online]. Last accessed 2 March 2013 at: http://en.wikisource.org/wiki/CIA_World_Fact_Book_2004/Libya

CLARKE, A. (2006). Qualitative interviewing: encountering ethical issues and challenges. *Nurse Researcher*. 13(4): 19-29.

CLERIDES, S. and PASHOURTIDOU, N. (2007). Tourism in Cyprus: recent trends and lessons from the tourist satisfaction survey, *Cyprus Economic Policy Review*, 1(2):51-72.

COHEN, E. (2008). The changing faces of contemporary tourism, *Springer Science and Business Media, Society*, 45(4): 330-333.

COLIJN, Leendert. (2005). Country report: Libya. [online]. In: *Library of Congress – Federal Research Division*. Last accessed 26 July 2012, at: <http://lcweb2.loc.gov/frd/cs/profiles/Libya.pdf>

COLIJN, Leendert (2010). Country report: Libya, country risk research, p.1-7, Rabobank Nedreland.

COMMUNICAID GROUP Ltd. (2009). Doing business in Libya: Libyan social and business culture, [online] last accessed 21 August 2012 at: <http://www.communicaid.com/access/pdf/library/culture/doing-business-in/Doing Business in Libya.pdf>

CONTI, G. and PERELLI, C. (2011). Traditional mass tourism destinations: the decline of Fordist tourism facing the rise of vocational diversification: governance and sustainability in new tourism trends, *Planum*.

COOPER, Chris (2002). Sustainability and tourism visions. [online]. In: VII Congreso Internacional del CLAD sobre la Reforma del Estado y de la Administración Pública, Lisboa, Portugal, 8-11 October, last accessed 2 November 2012, at: <http://unpan1.un.org/intrdoc/groups/public/documents/CLAD/clad0044548.pdf>

COOPER, C. (2004). Alternative tourism as a strategy for sustainable livelihood diversification: the case of Jalcomulco, Veracruz. [online]. In: Sustainable cities program, University of Southern California Los Angeles, CA, USA, last accessed 13 November 2012 at: http://www-scf.usc.edu/~ccooper/Alternative_Tourism.pdf

COOPER, C. (2012). Key policy challenges and needs in support of alternative tourism development in Bulgaria, pp. 47-62. [online]. Last accessed 3 November 2012 at: <http://www.oecd.org/cfe/tourism/40239644.pdf>

CRAGGS, R. and SCHOFIELD, P. (2010). The Quays in Salford: an analysis of visitor perceptions, satisfaction and behavioural intention, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(6): 583-599.

CRESWELL, John W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: choosing among five traditions*. London, Sage Publications.

- CRESWELL, John W. (2003). *Research design. Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- CROUCH, Geoffrey. I. (2007). *Modelling destination competitiveness: a survey and analysis of the impact of competitiveness attributes*, Australia, CRC for Sustainable Tourism, Pty Ltd.
- CROUCH, G. I. (2011). Destination competitiveness: An analysis of determinant attributes, *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(1): 27-45
- CROUCH, G.I. and J.R.B. RITCHIE (1995). Destination competitiveness and the role of the tourism enterprise, proceedings of the fourth annual World Business Congress, July 13-16, Istanbul, Turkey, 43-48.
- CROWDEN, Simpson LLP (2008). Tripoli-Libya, pp. 1-17. [online]. Last accessed on 15 December 2012 at: http://www.simpsoncrowden.com/files/jobs/Libya_Guide.pdf
- CSAPO, Janos and REMENYIK, Bulcsu (2011). Active tourism. In: GABOR, Michalkó (eds.). *Design and development of touristic products*, University of Pécs.
- DABOUR, N. (2003). Problems and perspectives of sustainable tourism development in the OIC countries: ecotourism, *Journal of Economic Cooperation*, 24(1): 25-62.
- DA CUNHA, S. K. and DA CUNHA, J. C. (2005). Tourism cluster competitiveness and sustainability, proposal for a systemic model to measure the impact of tourism on local development, *BAR*, 2(2): 47-62.
- DANIS, Omer Molood (2006). *The development of the tourism industry in Libya*, PhD, The University of Huddersfield.
- DAVIDSON, Rob. (1994). *Business travel*, London, Pitman Publishing.
- DAWLEY, S. PIKE, A. and TOMANEY, J. (2010). Towards the resilient region?: policy activism and peripheral region development. [online]. In: *SERC Discussion Papers, SERCDP0053. Spatial Economics Research Centre (SERC), London School of Economics and Political Science, London, UK*. Last accessed 16 November 2012 at: <http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/33523/1/sercdp0053.pdf>
- DE ARAUJO, L. M. and BRAMWELL, B. (1999). Stakeholder assessment and collaborative tourism planning: the case of Brazil's Costa Dourada project, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 357-378.
- DE JONG, Carmen (2008). Resource conflicts in mountains: sources and solutions. [online]. In: *Mountain Forum Bulletin January 2008, The Mountain Institute, University of Savoy, Le Bourget du Lac, France*. Last accessed 1 September 2012 at: <http://lib.icimod.org/record/12797/files/1082.pdf>
- DE VAUS, David. (2001). *Research Design in Social Research*, London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- DE SAUSMAREZ, N. (2007). Crisis management, tourism and sustainability: The role of indicators, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15(6): 700-714.
- DEEMING, H. (2013). Clarifying resilience, *Natural Hazards Observer*, XXXVII(4): 1-24.
- DECROP, Alian (2004). Trustworthiness in qualitative tourism research. In: Jenny PHILLIMORE, Jenny and GOODSON, Lisa (eds.). *Qualitative research in tourism: ontologies, epistemologies and methodologies*, London, Psychology Press, Routledge, pp.156-169.

DENZIN, Norman. K. and LINCOLN, Yvonna. S. (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research*, Sage Publications.

DERNOI, L. A. (1981). Alternative Tourism: Toward as New Style in North-South Relations, *International Journal of Tourism Management*, 2(4): 253-264.

DEVESA, M. LAGUNA, M. and PALACIOS, A. (2010). The Role of Motivation in Visitor Satisfaction: Empirical Evidence in Rural Tourism, *Tourism Management*, 31: 547-552.

DIEKE, Peter. U. C. (2001). Human resources in tourism development: African perspectives. In: David Harrison (ed.). *Tourism and the less developed world: Issues and case studies*. CAB International, pp. 61-75.

DIN, K. H. (1989). Islam and tourism: patterns, issues, and options, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16: 542-563.

DIRGHA, J. G. MOADDEL, M. THORNTON, A. WILLIAMS, N. E. and YOUNG-DeMARCO L. C. (2011). Nepali Migrants to the Gulf Cooperation Council Countries: Values, Behaviors, and Plans. [online]. In: *Center for International and Regional Studies, Migrant Labor in the Gulf, Working Group Summary Report*. Last accessed 11 October 2012 at: <http://www12.georgetown.edu/sfs/qatar/cirs/MigrantLaborSummaryReport.pdf>

DRITSAKIS, N. (2008). Seasonal analysis of tourist revenues: an empirical research for Greece. *Tourismos: an International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, 3(2): 57-70.

DODDS, R. and BUTLER, R (2010). Barriers to implementing sustainable tourism policy in mass tourism destinations, *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, 5(1): 35-53.

DODMAN, D. AYERS, J. and HUQ, S. (2009). *Building resilience*, Chapter 5, State of the world into a warming world report, World Watch Organisation. Pp. 151-168.

DONKIN, M. (2005). Libya's tourist treasures, [online]. In: *BBC News*, 23 July 2005. Last accessed 28 July 2012 at: http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/programmes/from_our_own_correspondent/4708179.stm

DOSWELL, Roger (1997). *How effective management makes the difference*, ButterworthHeinemann, Oxford

DRAGHICI, C. C. PEPTENATU, D. PINTILII, R. D. PEPTENATU, A. and STOIAN, D. (2010). The role of infrastructure in generating multiplying effects for tourism development. Case study the influence area of the city Ramnicu Valcea. *The Annals of Valahia University of Targoviste, Geographical Series*, 10: 125-136.

DREDGE, D. (1999). Destination place planning and design, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4): 772-791.

DU PLESSIS, M. L. VAN DER MERWE, P. and SAAYMAN, M. (2012). Environmental factors affecting tourists' experience in South African national parks, *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(8): 2911-2918.

DUVAL, R. and VOGEL, L. (2008). Economic resilience to shocks: the role of structural policies, *OECD Journal: Economic Studies*, 2008(1): 201-238.

DWYER, L. and FORSYTH, P. (1994). Foreign tourism investment: motivation and impact, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3):512-537.

- DWYER, L. and KIM, C. (2003). Destination competitiveness: determinants and indicators, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6(5): 369-414.
- DWYER, L. FORSYTH, P. and RAO, P. (2000). The price competitiveness of travel and tourism: a comparison of 19 destinations, *Tourism Management*, 21 (1): 9-22.
- DWYER, Larry FORSYTH, Peter and DWYER, Wayne (2010). *Tourism Economics and Policies*, Aspects of Tourism Texts, USA, Channel View Publications.
- DYBEDAL, Peter (1998). *Theme parks as flagship attractions in peripheral areas*. Copenhagen, Denmark. Unit of Tourism Research at Research Centre of Bornholm,
- ELAZAZI, M. A. M. (2011). A framework to protect urban districts from the traffic noise in Alkhoms city-Libya, Assiut University, *Bull. Environ. Res.* 14(2): 1-13. (Article in Arabic)
- ELENA S. E. (2007). The impact of tourism on the sociocultural structure of Cyprus, *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, 2(1):145-162.
- ELMERGEB PEOPLE'S COMMITTEE FOR TOURISM (2003). *Oyoon of Elmergeb*, Published by Alkhoms Press. Libya.
- ELO, S. and KYNGAS, H. (2007). The qualitative content analysis process, *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 62(1): 107-115.
- EL-TANTAWI, Attia. M. (2005). *Climate change in Libya and desertification of Jifara plain: using geographical information system and remote sensing techniques*, PhD, Johannes Gutenberg-Universität.
- ELZAWI, A. and WADE, S. (2012). Barriers to ICT adoption in quality of engineering research in Libya: how to bridge the digital divide? [online]. In: *computing and Engineering Researchers' Conference, March 2012, University of Huddersfield Repository, University of Huddersfield*. Last accessed 30 November 2012 at: http://eprints.hud.ac.uk/13458/2/A_Elzawi_Paper.pdf
- ENRIGHT, M. J. and NEWTON, J. (2005). Determinants of tourism destination competitiveness in Asia Pacific: comprehensiveness and universality, *Journal of Travel Research*, 43: 339-350.
- ENRIGHT, M. J. and ROBERTS, B. H. (2001). Regional clustering in Australia, *Australian Journal of Management*, 26, Special Issue, 65-86.
- ETTER, J. F. and PERNEGER, T.V. (2000). Snowball sampling by mail: application to a survey of smokers in the general population, *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 29:43-48.
- EUROMONITOR INTERNATIONAL (2011). Country report: travel and tourism in Libya, January 2011. [online]. Last accessed 2 April 2012 at: <http://www.euromonitor.com/travel-and-tourism-in-libya/report>
- EWEN, Michael, GIBSON, Laila HALL, Michael C. LYNCH, Paul MITCHELL, Richard MORRISON, Alison and SCHREIBER, Chrissy (eds.). (2007) *Micro-clusters and networks: the growth of tourism*, Elsevier Science & Technology Books.
- FADILLAH, A. DEWI, T. G. and HARDJANTO, A. (2012). Analysis of Alternative Strategy in Coastal Tourism Development in Aceh Besar: Indonesia after Tsunami Disaster, *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 2(3):206-212.
- FARRELL, B. H. and TWINING-WARD, L. (2004). Reconceptualizing tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(2): 274-295.

FARSARI, Y. BUTLER, R. and PRASTACOS, P. (2007). Sustainable tourism policy for Mediterranean destinations: issues and interrelationships. *International Journal Tourism Policy*, 1 (1): 58-78.

FAULKNER, Bill (2002). *Rejuvenating a maturing tourist destination: the case of the Gold Coast, Gold Coast tourism visioning project*, Common Ground Publishing Pty Ltd.

FERNANDEZ-MORALES, A. (2003). Decomposing seasonal concentration, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(4): 942-956.

FERREIRA, J. and ESTEVAO, C. (2009). Regional Competitiveness of tourism cluster: A conceptual model proposal, *Munich Personal RePEc Archive (MPRA), Paper No. 14853, 25 April 2009*, University of Beira Interior, pp. 1-19.

FIELDING, D. and SHORTLAND, A. (2010). How do tourists react to political violence? An empirical analysis of tourism in Egypt, *Discussion Papers 1022, Deutsches Institut für Wirtschaftsforschung (DIW)*, Berlin.

FINN, Mick, ELLIOTT-WHITE, Martin and WALTON, Mike (2000). *Tourism and leisure research methods: data collection, analysis and interpretation*, UK, Pearson Education Limited.

FOLKE, C. (2006). Resilience: the emergence of a perspective for social–ecological systems analyses, *Global Environmental Change*, 16: 253-267.

FONTANA, Andrea and FREY, James (1994). Interviewing: the art of science. In: DENZIN, Norman and LINCOLN, Yvonna S. (eds.) *The handbook of qualitative research*. USA, Sage Publications Ltd, pp. 361-376.

FOSTER, K. A. (2007). A case study approach to understanding regional resilience, Working Paper 2007-08, Macarthur Foundation Research Network on Building Resilient Regions, *Institute for Urban and Regional Development, University of California, Berkeley*.

FRANCO, M. and ESTEVAO, C. (2010). The role of tourism public-private partnerships in regional development: a conceptual model proposal, *Cadernos EBAPE. BR*, 8(4):600-612.

FRIEDLI, L. (2009). Mental health, resilience and inequalities. [online]. In: *World Health Organization: Europe report*, pp. 1-55, last accessed 3 December 2012 at: http://www.euro.who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0012/100821/E92227.pdf

FRONTIER (2012). Hotels and tourism in Libya: the Libya report. [online]. In: *Middle East and Africa Research and Advisory*, last accessed 30 July 2012 at: <http://www.arabianreach.com/libya/presentations/Alex%20Warren%20Dubai%20hotels%20presentation.pdf>

FUENTES, A. RAMSKOGLER, P. and SILGONER, M.A. (2011). The Swiss economy's resilience to crisis and its lessons for Austria. [online]. In: *Monetary policy and the economy. WIFO*, 2: pp. 67-86, last accessed 16 January 2013, at: http://www.oenb.at/en/img/mop_2011_q2_analyse04_fuentes_tcm16-235937.pdf

FYALL, Alan and GARROD, Brian (eds.). (2005). *Tourism marketing: a collaborative approach*, Aspects of Tourism Series, US, Channel View Publications.

GARAY, L. and CANOVES, G. (2011). Life cycles, stages and tourism history the Catalonia (Spain) experience, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(2): 651–671.

- GARROD, B. (2003). Local Participation in the Planning and Management of Ecotourism: A Revised Model Approach, *Journal of Ecotourism*, 2(1): 33-63.
- GARTNER, William. C. (1996). *Tourism development: principles, processes, and policies*, New York, Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- GARTNER, W.C. (1989). Tourism image: Attribute measurement of state tourism products using multidimensional scaling techniques, *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(2): 16-20.
- GHEBLAWI, G. (2012). Libyan re-independence and reclaiming the revolution. [online]. In: *Heinrich Böll Stiftung, The Green Political Foundation*, pp.188-191. Last accessed 4 June 2012 at: http://www.lb.boell.org/downloads/Perspectives_02-27_Ghazi_Gheblawi.pdf
- GHIMIRE, S. and UPRETI, B. R. (2011). Community participation for environment-friendly tourism: the avenue for local peace, *The Journal of Tourism and Peace Research*, 2(1): 55-69.
- GIBSON, C. and HARDMAN, D. (1998). Regenerating urban heritage for tourism, *Managing Leisure*, 3(1): 37-54.
- GIBSON, H. KAPLANIDOU, K. and KANG, S. (2012). Small-scale event sport tourism: a case study in sustainable tourism, *Sport Management Review*, 15(2): 160-170.
- GILBERT, N. (2001). Research, theory and methods, pp. 21-40. [online]. Last accessed on 17 September 2012 at: http://www.corwin.com/upm-data/18483_03_Gilbert_Researching_Ch_02_WATERMARKED.pdf
- GILBERT, N. (2012). Research, theory and methods, pp. 1-31. [online] last accessed on 17 September 2012 at: <http://epubs.surrey.ac.uk/1586/1/fulltext.pdf>
- GILLEN, Julia and PETERSEN, Alan (2007). Discourse Analysis. In: SOMEKH, Bridget and LEWIN, Cathy (eds.). *Research methods in the social sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA/London: Sage Publications, pp. 146-152.
- GOLLUB, J. HOSIER, A. and WOO, G. (2004). Using cluster-based economic strategy to minimize tourism leakages, [online] last accessed 22 September 2012 at: http://www3.dogus.edu.tr/memek/DersNotlari/TOUR_229/TOUR_229-2004_fall/tourism_leakages1.pdf
- GOLUB, S. S. (2003). Measures of restrictions on inward foreign direct investment for OECD countries, [online]. In: *OECD Economic Studies No. 36:85-116*, last accessed 13 November 2012 at: <http://www.oecd.org/eco/productivityandlongtermgrowth/33638671.pdf>
- GOODLAND, R. (2008). How Libya could become environmentally sustainable, *Libyan studies*, 39:145-160.
- GOULDING, P. J. BAUM, T. G. and MORRISON, A. J. (2004). Seasonal trading and lifestyle motivation: experiences of small tourism businesses in Scotland, *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, 5(2/3/4): 209-238.
- GRONROOS, Christian (2000). *Service management and marketing, a customer relationship management approach*, John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- GUION, L. DIEHL, D. and McDONALD, D. (2011). Triangulation: establishing the validity of qualitative studies, [online]. In: *University of Florida, IFAS Extention*, pp. 1-3, last accessed 3 October 2012 at: <https://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/pdffiles/FY/FY39400.pdf>

- GUNN, C. A. (1972). Local resistance to tourists and tourism development. [online]. In: *Paper presented at the National Recreation Workshop, Kellogg Centre, Michigan State University, July 18, 1972*, last accessed 21 September 2012 at: <http://rpts.tamu.edu/files/2011/08/CAG-0177.pdf>
- GUNN, C.A. (1989). Tourism planning fundamentals, *S.A. Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*, 12(1): 109-118.
- GUTERSLOH, B. S. (2012). BTI-Libya country report. [online]. In: *BTI-project*, last accessed 19 November 2012 at: http://www.bti-project.de/fileadmin/Inhalte/reports/2012/pdf/BTI_2012_Libya.pdf
- HALIM, H. S. (2011). Improving coastal tourism business competitiveness: using ecotourism's concept to explore to potential of coastal tourism business Pandeglang and Serang Districts. Banten. West-Java. Indonesia, *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2, *Special Issue*, 87-90.
- HALL, Michael C. and BOYD, Stephen (2005). Nature-based tourism in peripheral areas. In: HALL, Michael and BOYD, Stephan (eds.). *Nature-based tourism in peripheral areas: development or disaster?* Aspects of Tourism, US, Channel View Publications. pp. 264-273.
- HALL, Michael C. and MITCHELL, R. (2001). Wine and food tourism. In: Douglas, DOUGLAS, Norman. DOUGLAS, Ngaire and DERRETT, Ros (eds.). *Special interest tourism: context and cases*, Australia, John Wiley & Sons, pp. 307-329.
- HAM, Anthony (2006). *Libyan eclipse 2006: highlights pack*, Lonely Planet Publication.
- HANCOCK, B. (2002). An introduction to qualitative research, [online]. In: *Trent Focus Group Trent Focus for Research and Development in Primary Health Care, University of Nottingham*, last accessed 23 November 2012 at: http://faculty.cbu.ca/pmacintyre/course_pages/MBA603/MBA603_files/IntroQualitativeResearch.pdf
- HANDMER, J. and CHOONG, W. (2006). Disaster resilience through local economic activity in Phuket, *The Australian Journal of Emergency Management*, 21(4):8-15.
- HANDMER, J.W. (1995). Managing vulnerability in Sydney: planning or providence? *GeoJournal*, 37(3): 355-368.
- HARDING, L. and STEPHAN, C. (2012). Chris Stevens, US ambassador to Libya, killed in Benghazi attack, *The Guardian, Wednesday 12 September*, [online], last accessed 01December2012 at: <http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2012/sep/12/chris-stevens-us-ambassador-libya-killed>
- HARRIS, Rob GRIFFIN, Tony and WILLIAMS, Peter (2002). *Sustainable tourism: a global perspective*, Oxford, Butterworth Heinemann, Elsevier.
- HARRISON, David (2001). Less developed countries and tourism: the overall pattern, In: David Harrison (ed.). *Tourism and the less developed world: Issues and case studies*. CAB International, pp. 1-22.
- HASHIM, N. H. MURPHY, J. and HASHIM, N. M. (2007). Islam and online imagery on Malaysian tourist destination websites, *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 12:1082-1102.
- HASSAN, S. S. (2000). Determinants of Market Competitiveness in an Environmentally Sustainable Tourism Industry, *Journal of Travel Research*, 38 (3): 239-245.

- HENDERSON, J. C. (2010). Sharia-compliant hotels, *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10(3):246-54.
- HIGHAM, J. and LUCK, M. (2002). Urban ecotourism: a contradiction in terms? *Journal of Ecotourism*, 1(1):36-51.
- HILL, Edward W. WAIL, Howard and WOLMAN, Harold (2008). Exploring regional economic resilience. [online]. In: *paper work 2008-04, Institute of Urban and Regional Development, MacArthur Foundation Network on Building Resilience Regions, Berkeley IURD. University of California*, last accessed 19 August 2011 at: <http://www.iurd.berkeley.edu/publications/wp/2008-04.pdf>
- HOFSTEDE, Greet. (2001). *Culture's consequences: comparing value, behaviours, institutions and organisations across nations*, USA, Sage Publications.
- HOLDEN, Andrew (2008). *Environment and tourism*, 2nd edition, Routledge, UK, Taylor and Francis Group.
- HOLDEN, M. T. and LYNCH, P. (2004). Choosing the appropriate methodology: understanding research philosophy, (RIKON Group). *The Marketing Review*, 4: 397- 409.
- HOLLADAY, Patrick Joseph. (2011). *An integrated approach to assessing the resilience and sustainability of community-based tourism development in the Commonwealth of Dominica*, Ph.D, Clemson University.
- HOLLADAY, P. J. and PPWELL, R. B. (2013). Resident perceptions of social–ecological resilience and the sustainability of community-based tourism development in the Commonwealth of Dominica, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1-24.
- HOLLING, C. S. (1973). Resilience and Stability of Ecological Systems, *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, 4: 1-23.
- HONGNA, L. and LIANG, Z. (2011). Experience economy from the perspective of the tourism product development and innovative ways. [online]. In: *International Conference on Product Innovation Management, 16-17 July 2011, IEEE, pp. 298-292*. Last accessed 3 March 2012 at: <http://ieeexplore.ieee.org.lcproxy.shu.ac.uk/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5983657>
- HOVINEN, G. R. (2002). Revisiting the destination lifecycle model, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1): 209–230.
- HSIEH, A.T. and CHANG, J. (2006). Shopping and tourist night markets in Taiwan, *Tourism Management*, 27: 138-145.
- HSIEH, H.F. and SHANNON, S.E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis, *Qualitative Health Research*, 15(9):1277-1288.
- HUDMAN, Lloyd and JACKSON, Richard (2003). *Geography of travel and tourism*, 4th edition, US, Thomson, Delmar Learning.
- HUMMELS, D. RAPOPORT, D. and YI, K. M. (1998). Vertical specialization and the changing nature of world trade, *FRBNY Economic Policy Review*, 79-99.
- HUNT, J. D. (1975). Image as a factor in tourism development, *Journal of Travel Research*. 13(3): 1-7.

HUNT, M.A. and CROMPTON, J. L. (2008). Investigating attraction compatibility in an East Texas city, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10: 237-246.

HUYBERS, T. BENNETT, J. (2003). Inter-firm cooperation at nature-based tourism destinations, *Journal of Socio-Economics*, 32: 571-587.

IBM (2009). Business resilience: The best defence is a good offense, develop a best practices strategy using a tiered approach. [online]. In: *IBM business continuity and resiliency services, USA, IBM Global Service*, last accessed 21.03.2013 at: http://www.ibm.com/smarterplanet/global/files/us_en_us_security_resiliency_buw03008usen.pdf

IOANNIDES, Dimitri (2006). Re-engineering established products and destinations. In: BUHALIS, D. and COSTA, C. (eds). *Tourism business frontiers: Customers, products, and industry*. Elsevier, Amsterdam, pp. 77-84.

IOANNIDES, Dimitri and DEBBAGE, Keith (eds) (1998). Neo-Fordism and flexible specialization in the travel industry: Dissecting the polyglot, in *The economic geography of the tourist industry: A supply-side analysis*. London and New York: Routledge, pp. 99-122.

IORDACHE, C. CIOCHINA, I. and ASANDEI, M. (2010). Clusters – tourism activity increase competitiveness support, *Theoretical and Applied Economics*, XVII, 5(546): 99-112.

IRVINE, W. and ANDERSON, A. (2006). The vulnerability of peripheral tourism: the rapid disenchantment of peripheral attraction. In: MULLER, D. and JANSON, B. (eds.). *Tourism in peripheries: perspectives from the far north and south*. Wallingford, CABI. pp. 109-123.

IVANOVIC, Milena (2008). *Cultural tourism*, South Africa, Juta and Company, Ltd.

IVANOVIC, S. KATIC, A. and MIKINAC, K. (2010). Cluster as a model of sustainable competitiveness of small and medium entrepreneurship in the tourist market, *UTMS Journal of Economics*, 1(2): 45-54.

IWERSEN-SIOLTSIDIS and IWERSEN (1996). Tourism and developing countries, *Intereconomics*, 31(6): 301-306.

JANG, S. S. (2004). Mitigating tourism seasonality, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4): 819-836.

JANSEN-VERBEKE, M. (1986). Inner-city tourism: resources, tourists and promoters, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 13(1), 79-100.

JEFFERIES, B. (2011). Critical realism – an empirical realist critique. [online]. In, *Manchester Metropolitan University Business School, Working Paper 11-01*, last accessed 24 August 2013 at: <http://www.ribm.mmu.ac.uk/wps/papers/11-03.pdf>

JENNINGS, Gayle (2001). *Tourism research*. Australia: John Wiley and Sons.

JENKIN, H. (2010). The impact of social networking mediums on the decision making process of tourists: a case study of Stray Ltd and Spaceships New Zealand Ltd, MSc, *The University of Waikato*. New Zealand.

JENTLESON, B. W. and WHYTOCK, C. A. (2006). Who “Won” Libya? The force-diplomacy debate and its implications for theory and policy, *International Security*, 30(3): 47-86.

JOHNSON, E. and HEINRICH, F. (2012). Corruption trends in the Middle East and North Africa Region (2007-2011). [online]. In: *U4 Expert Answer, Anti-Corruption Resource Centre and*

Transparency International, last accessed 7 July 2012
at:<http://www.u4.no/publications/corruption-trends-in-the-middle-east-and-north-africa-region-2007-2011/>

JOHNSON, K.E. (2008). Comparing and contrasting quantitative and qualitative research methods. [online]. last accessed 29 August 2012 at:
<http://kevin.thecuttingedge.com/education/nova/arc8920/ExtraCredit.pdf>

JONES, Eleri. (2010). Arab politics and tourism: political change and tourism in the Great Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriyah. In: BUTLER, Richard and SUNTIKUL, Wantanee. (eds.). *Tourism and political change*, Goodfellow Publishers Limited.

JWAILI, Mokhtar. THOMAS, Brychan. and JONES, Eleri Ellis (2005). Small and medium-sized Libyan tourism enterprises and the national tourism development plan for Libya. In: JONES, Eleri and HAVEN-TANG, Claire (eds.). *Tourism SME's, service quality and destination competitiveness*, UK, CAB International, pp. 313-323.

JWAILI, M. A. and AL-HASAN, S. (2004). The competitiveness of SMEs in the Libyan tourism industry, *International Journal of Applied Entrepreneurship*, 1(2): 23-31.

KALESAR, M. I. (2010). Developing Arab-Islamic tourism in the Middle East: an economic benefit or a cultural seclusion? *International Politics*, 3(V): 105-136.

KANG, K.H. LEE, S. and YANG, H. (2011). The Effects of Product Diversification on Firm Performance and Complementarities between Products: A Study of US Casinos, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30:409-421.

KARCHER, K. (1994). Re-engineering the package holiday business, *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism*, 10: 221-234.

KATZ, C. M. FOX, A. M. and WHITE, M. D. (2011). Assessing the relationship between immigration status and drug use, *Justice Quarterly*. 28(4): 541-575.

KELLER, Peter (2005). *Innovation in tourism: creating customer value*, Vol. 47, Aiest, St. Gallen.

KETTANI, H. (2010). World Muslim population. [online]. In: *Proceedings of the 8th Hawaii International Conference on Arts and Humanities, Honolulu, Hawaii*. Last accessed 5 September 2013 at: http://www.ohio.edu/orgs/muslimst/downloads/World_Muslim_Population_2010.pdf

KHALIFA, Akram Esa Omar (2010). *Destination Libya: developing Libya as an internationally-competitive tourism destination*, PhD, University of Wales Institute.

KIM, Y. (2011). The pilot study in qualitative inquiry: identifying issues and learning lessons for culturally competent research, *Qualitative Social Work*, 10(2):190-206.

KLEIN, R.J.T., SCHIPPER, E.L. and DESSAI, S. (2005). Integrating mitigation and adaptation into climate and development policy: three research questions. *Environmental Science Policy*, 8: 579-588.

KOENIG-LEWIS, N. and BISCHOFF, E. E. (2005). Seasonality research: the state of the art, *The International Journal of Tourism Research*, 7(4,5): 201 – 219.

KONTOGEOURGOPOULOS, N. (2004) Ecotourism and mass tourism in southern Thailand: spatial interdependence, structural connections, and staged authenticity, *Kluwer Academic Publishers, Geo. Journal*, 61: 1-11.

- KONTOGEOURGOPOULOS, N. (2009). The temporal relationship between mass tourism and alternative tourism in southern Thailand, *Tourism Review International*, 13:1-16.
- KOTLER, Philip (2001). *A framework for marketing management*, New Jersey, USA, Prentice-Hall.
- KOZAK, M and RIMMINGTON, M. (1999). Measuring tourist destination competitiveness: conceptual considerations and empirical findings, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 18: 273-283.
- KRIEMADIS, T. and THEAKOU, E. (2007). Strategic planning models, strategic management, public and non-profit sport organizations, *Sport Management International Journal (SMIJ)*, 3(2):27-37.
- KUMAR, Ranjit (2005). *Research methodology: a step-by-step for guide for beginners*. 2nd edition. London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- LANQUAR, Robert (2011). Tourism in the Med 11 countries. [online]. In: *Mediterranean Prospects, WP.5, Economic integration, trade, investment and sectoral analyses, MEDPRO, report No. 1/July*, last accessed 17 December 2012 at: www.medpro-foresight.eu
- LAW, Christopher M. (2002). *Urban tourism: the visitor economy and the growth of large cities*, 2nd edition, London, Cengage Learning EMEA, Continuum.
- LEE, C. BERGIN-SEERS, S. GALLOWAY, G. O'MAHONY, B. and McMURRAY, A. (2008). *Seasonality in the tourism industry: impacts and strategies*, CRC for Sustainable Tourism Pty Ltd.
- LEE, Y.I. CHANG, C.H. and CHEN, Y.S. (2011) The influence of novelty, flexibility, and synergy of package tours on tourist satisfaction: an analysis of structural equation modeling (SEM), *Journal of Quality and Quantity*, Springer, 1-14.
- LEEDY, Paul and ORMROD, Jeanne (2010). *Practical research: planning and design*, 9th edition, USA, Pearson, Education Inc.
- LEIPER, N. (1990). Tourist attraction systems. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(2): 367-384.
- LEJARRAJA, I. and WALKENHORST, P. (2007). *Diversification by deepening linkages with tourism, March 2007, pp. 1-41*. [online], last accessed 14 November 2012 at: http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTEXPCOMNET/Resources/Lejarraja,_Diversification_by_Deepening_Linkages_with_Tourism.pdf
- LEW, Alan (2001). Tourism development in China: the dilemma of bureaucratic decentralization and economic liberalization. In. David Harrison (ed.). *Tourism and the less developed world: Issues and case studies*. CAB International, pp. 109-120.
- LEW, A. and McKERCHER, B. (2006). Modelling tourist movements: a local destination analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(2): 403-423.
- LIBYAN BANK of DEVELOPMENT. [online] last accessed 12 November 2012 at: <http://ldb.com.ly/pages.aspx?pg=57>
- LIBYAN STATISTICS BOOK (2009). General Authority of Information Publications, Tripoli-Libya.

LIBYAN STATISTICS BOOK (2006). General Authority of Information Publications, Tripoli-Libya

LICKORISH, Leonard JEFFERSON, A. BODLENDER, Jonathan. and JENKINS, C.L. (1991). *Developing tourism destinations: policies and perspectives*, UK, Longman Group UK Limited.

LOPEZ, E.P. and GARCIA, F.J.C. (2006) Agro tourism, sustainable tourism and ultra-peripheral areas: the case of Canary Islands, *PASOS, Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, 4 (1): 85-97.

LIBYAN CENSUS BOOK (2006). General Authority of Information, Tripoli-Libya.

LIBYAN TOURISM MASTER PLAN (LTMP) (1999-2018). General Tourism Board, Tripoli-Libya.

LIBYAN TOURISM MASTER PLAN (LTMP) (2009-2025). General Tourism Board, Tripoli-Libya.

LUE, C. C. CROMPTON J. L. and STEWART W. P. (1996). Evidence of cumulative attraction in multi destination recreational trip decisions, *Journal of Travel Research*, 35: 41-49.

LUMSDON, Les (1997). *Tourism marketing*, International Thomson Business Press

MACK, Natasha WOODSONG, Cynthia MacQUEEN, Kathleen GUEST, Greg and NAMEY, Emily (2005). *Qualitative research methods: a data collector's field guide*, USA, Family Health International (FHI).

MacMANUS, R. (1997). Heritage and tourism in Ireland - an unholy alliance? *Irish Geography*, 30(2): 90-98.

MAGUIRE, B. and CARTWRIGHT, S. (2008). Assessing a community's capacity to manage change: A resilience approach to social assessment, *Social Sciences Program-Bureau of Rural Sciences, Australian Government, Canberra, Commonwealth of Australia*, pp. 1-27.

MAHON, R. BECKEN and RENNIE, S. (2013). Evaluating the business case for investment in the resilience of the tourism sector of small island developing states. [online]. In: *Background paper prepared for the Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction, UNISDR and GAR, Geneva, Switzerland*, last accessed 12 March 2013 at: <http://www.preventionweb.net/english/hyogo/gar/2013/en/bgdocs/Mahon%20et.al.%202012.pdf>

MAITAH, M. ZEDAN, K. and SHIBANI, B. (2012). Factors affecting the usage level of financial analysis by credit officers in the credit decision in Libyan commercial banks, *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(10, Special Issue): 106-113.

MAITLAND, robert (2007). Culture, city users and the creation of new tourism areas in in cities. In: SMITH, Melanie, K. (eds.). *Tourism, culture and regeneration*, UK, CAB International, pp. 25-35.

MANGION, M. L. DURBARRY, R. and SINCLAIR, M. T. (2005). Tourism competitiveness: price and quality, *Tourism Economics*, 11 (1): 45-68.

MANNELL, R. C. and ISO-AHOLA S. E. (1987). Psychological nature of leisure and tourism experience, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14: 314 - 331.

MANYENA, S. B. (2006). The concept of resilience revisited, *Disasters*, 30: 434-450.

- MANYENA, B. O'BRIEN, G. O'KEEFE, P. and ROSE, J. (2011). Disaster resilience: a bounce back or bounce forward ability? *Local Environment, The International Journal of Justice and Sustainability*, 16 (5):417- 424.
- MARSHALL, Catherine. and ROSSMAN, Gretchen, B. (1999). *Designing qualitative research*, 3rd edition, London, Sage Publications.
- MARSHALL, M. N. (1996). Sampling for Qualitative Research, *Family Practice, Oxford University Press*, 13(6):522-525.
- MARTIN, R. (2012). Regional Economic Resilience, Hysteresis and Recessionary Shocks, *Journal of Economic Geography*, 12: 1-32.
- MASOUD, Najeb (2009). *Libya's economic reform programme and the case for a stock market*, PhD, University of Huddersfield.
- MATHISON, S. (1988). Why triangulation? *American Educational Research Association, Educational Researcher*, 17(2): 13-17.
- MATTES, H. (2004). Challenges to security governance in the Middle East: the Libyan case, [online]. In: *Security sector governance and reform in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), Switzerland, 12-13 July 2004, Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF), Conference Paper, 1-31*. Last accessed on 04 June 2012, at: www.dcaf.ch/content/download/.../ev_geneva_04071113_Mattes.pdf
- MAXWELL, Joseph (2008). *Designing a qualitative study*, pp. 214-253. [online], last accessed 08 November 2012 at: www.corwin.com/upm-data/23772_Ch7.pdf
- MEYER, R. K. (2007). An evangelical analysis of the critical realism and corollary hermeneutics of Bernard Lonergan with application for evangelical hermeneutics, PhD, *Faculty of South-eastern of Baptist Technological Seminary*, US.
- McASLAN, A. (2010). The concept of resilience: understanding its origins: meaning and utility. *Adelaide, Australia: Torrens Resilience Institute*.
- McCARTY, M. E. Clifton, R. K. and Collard, R. R. (1999). Problem solving in infancy: the emergence of an action plan, *Developmental Psychology*, 35(4): 1091-1101.
- McINROY, Neil and LONGLANDS, Sarah (2010). Productive local economies: creating resilient places, [online]. In: KEDWARDS, Jon (eds.). *Ensuring positive local change, Centre for Local Economic Strategies (CLES), Express Networks*, last accessed on 4 January 2013 at: <http://www.cles.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2011/01/Resilience-for-web1.pdf>
- McKERCHER, B. (1993). Some fundamental truths about tourism understanding tourism's social and environmental impacts, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1(1):7-16.
- McKERCHER, B. and LAU, G. (2008). Movement patterns of tourists within a destination, *Tourism Geographies*, 10(3): 355 – 374.
- McKERCHER, Bob. and LEW, Alan (2004). Tourist flows and the spatial distribution of tourists. In: LEW, Alan. A. HALL, Michael C. and WILLIAMS, Allan M. (eds.). *A companion to tourism*, Blackwell Companion to Geography, Australia. Blackwell Publishing Ltd, pp.36 - 48.
- MEGERBI, M. Z. (2003). Structural changes and their impact on the development and implementation of public policies in Libya. [online]. In: *a working paper submitted to the*

conference of the public administration in Libya reality and ambitions, Tripoli 11-12/10/2003, pp. 10. Last accessed on 2 October 2012 at:
http://www.libyaforum.org/archive/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=4670&Itemid=1

MELER, M. MAGAS, D. and HORVAT, D. (2011). SME's role in the tourism industry cluster formation in Croatia, *TMC Academic Journal*, 5(2): 24-33.

MICHALAK, L. and TROCKI, K. (2007). Alcohol and Islam: an overview, contemporary drug problems, *Federal Legal Publications*, 33: 523-562.

MIDDLETON, V.T.C. FYALL, A. MORGAN, M. and RANCHOHOD, A. (2009). *Marketing in travel and tourism*, Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford, UK.

MILES, Matthew and HUBERMAN, Michael (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*, 2nd edition, California, Sage Publications.

MILL, Robert C. and MORRISON, Alastair. M. (2006). *The tourism system*, 5th Edition, Kendall/Hunt Publishing Company.

MILLER, G. RATHOUSE, K. SCARLES, C. HOLMES, K. and TRIBE, J. (2007). *Public understanding of sustainable leisure and tourism: A research report to the department for environment, food and rural affairs by the University of Surrey*, Defra, London.

MOFTAH, A. A. A. SHEIKH ABDULLAH, S. N. H. and HAWEDI, H. S. (2012). E-commerce: a case of online purchasing in Libya, *International Journal of Advanced Research in Computer and Communication Engineering*, 1(3):141-145.

MORARU, A. D. (2011). Development and diversification of services: an approach at tourism services level in Romania, *Annales Universitatis Apulensis Series Oeconomica*, 13(1):127-133.

MORENO, A. and BECKEN, S. (2009). A climate change vulnerability assessment methodology for coastal tourism, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(4): 473-488.

MOTEFF, John. D. (2012). Critical infrastructure resilience: the evolution of policy and programs and issues for Congress. [online]. In: *Congressional Research Service, prepared for members and committees of Congress, 23 August 2012*, last accessed 21 September 2012, at:
<http://www.fas.org/sgp/crs/homesec/R42683.pdf>

MOWFORTH, Martin and MUNT, Ian (1998). *Tourism and Sustainability: New Tourism in the Third World*, London, Routledge.

MULHALL, A. (2003). In the field: notes on observation in qualitative research, *Methodological Issues in Nursing Research, Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 41(3): 306-313.

MUNTASSER, A. M. and BARA, M. F. (2007). Water shortages in Mediterranean. [online]. In: *Water Management and Desertification in the Mediterranean, International Energy Foundation, 2nd session, Tripoli - Libya, pp. 165-174*. Last accessed 10 August 2012 at:
www.cmungo.org/download.php?sezione=cum_docs&id=66

MURPHY, P. PRITCHARD, M. P. SMITH, B. (2000). The destination product and its impact on traveller perceptions, *Tourism Management*, 21: 43-52.

MURPHY, Peter, E. (1985). *Tourism: a community approach*, Methuen, Inc., US, Routledge.

MYERS, Michael D. (2009). *Qualitative research in business and management*. Sage, London.

NAAMA, A. HAVEN-TANG, C. and JONES, E. (2008). Human Resource Development Issues for the Hotel Sector in Libya: a Government Perspective, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10(5): 481-492.

NATIONAL PLANNING COUNCIL (2008). The national strategy for the development and Implementation of SME's 2008-2018. [online], last accessed on 31 July 2012, at: [http://www.nama.ly/nama/includes/FCKeditor/upload/Flash/Final Arabic Phase I SME Development Strategy and Action Pla\(1\).pdf](http://www.nama.ly/nama/includes/FCKeditor/upload/Flash/Final Arabic Phase I SME Development Strategy and Action Pla(1).pdf)

NELSON, F. (2003). Community-based tourism in Northern Tanzania: increasing opportunities, escalating conflicts and an uncertain future. [online]. In: *Association for Tourism and Leisure Education Africa Conference, Community Tourism: Options for the Future, held in Arusha, Tanzania, February 20-22, Tanzania Natural Resource Forum*, last accessed 20 September 2012 at: http://www.tnrf.org/files/E-TNRF_OCCASIONAL_PAPER_No_2_0.pdf

NELSON, F. (2004). The evolution and impacts of community-based ecotourism in northern Tanzania, International Institute for Environment and Development. [online]. In: *Dry land program, International Institute for Environment and Development, Issue Paper No. 131, November 2004, pp. 1- 46*, last accessed 11 October 2012 at: <http://pubs.iied.org/pdfs/9507IIED.pdf>

NELWAMONDO, Tshililo (2009). *Tourism development through strategic planning for non-metropolitan small to medium size accommodation facilities in Limpopo province, South Africa*, PhD, University of Pretoria.

NEUMAN, William L. (2003). *Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches*, 5th edition, Boston, Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.

NEW YORK TIMES (2005). Insider view: Libya, part 2. [online]. In: *Special advertising supplement to the New York Times, Sunday, July 10, 2005*, last accessed 17 December 2012, at: <http://www.summitreports.com/pdfs/libya2.pdf>

NILES, Keron (2010). Resilience amidst rising tides: trade, climate change and competitiveness in the tourism sector in the Caribbean. [online]. In: *ICTSD Programme on Competitiveness and Sustainable Development, Issue Paper No. 9. International Centre for Trade and Sustainable Development, Geneva, Switzerland*, last accessed 19 June 2011 at: <http://ictsd.org/downloads/2011/12/resilience-amidst-rising-tides.pdf>

NORDIN, S. (2003). Tourism clustering and innovation: path to economic growth and development, *European Tourism Research Institute (ETOUR)*, Mid-Sweden University, Sweden, 1-90.

NORMANN, Richard (1991). *Service management: strategy and leadership in service business*. Chisester, John Wiley and Sons.

NORTHERN IRELAND TOURISM BOARD (2009). Northern Ireland food tourism. [Online]. In: *Food Insights, Insights Series*, October 2009. last accessed 23 May 2011 at: www.nitb.com/filehandler.ashx?id=676

NOVELLI, M. SCHMITZ, B. and SPENCER T. (2006). Networks, clusters and innovation in tourism: a UK experience, *Tourism Management*. 27: 1141-1152.

NYAUPANE, G. P. and CHHETRI, N. (2009). Vulnerability to climate change of nature-based tourism in the Nepalese Himalayas, *Tourism Geographies*, 11(1): 95-119.

O'CONNOR, A. ZERGER, A. and ITAMI, B. (2005) Geo-temporal tracking and analysis of tourist movement, *Mathematics and computers in simulation*, 69:135-150.

- OBEIDI, Amal (2001). *Political Culture in Libya*, UK, Curzon Press.
- ODUNGA, P. O. BELSOY, S. J. NTHINGA, R. W. and MAINGI, S. W. (2011). towards tourism product development: diversification and extension. [online]. In: *conference tourism in Kenya*, pp. 1-7. Last accessed 17 September 2012 at: <http://ir.library.ku.ac.ke/ir/bitstream/handle/123456789/1463/Maingi%2c%20S.W.pdf?sequence=1>
- OKAZAKI, E. (2008). A Community-based tourism model: its conception and use, *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 16(5): 511-529.
- OKELLO, M. M. and YERIAN, S. (2009). Tourist satisfaction in relation to attractions and implications for conservation in the protected areas of the northern circuit, Tanzania, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(5): 605-625.
- O'ROURKE, T. D. (2007). Critical infrastructure, interdependencies, and resilience. In: BUGLIARELLO, George (editor). *The bridge, linking engineering and society*, National Academy of Engineering, 37 (1):22-29.
- ORGANIZATION for TRANSPARENCY LIBYA (2007). Analysis of the results of a questionnaire on corruption in the regime's apparatus, state institutions, and people's organizations in Libya. [online]. In: *Libya Human and Political Development Forum March. 2007*. Last accessed 20 October 2012 at: [http://www.libyaforum.org/archive/images/stories/Almuntada5/analysis-corruption in libya.pdf](http://www.libyaforum.org/archive/images/stories/Almuntada5/analysis-corruption%20in%20libya.pdf)
- OLDHAM, G. CREEMERS, G. and REBECK, T. (2000). An economic evaluation of tourism, *Development Southern Africa*, 17(2): 230-248.
- OLSEN, W. (2009). Realist methodology: a review. [online]. In: *Benchmarking in Social Research Methods series*, last accessed 30 August 2012 at: <https://www.escholar.manchester.ac.uk/api/datastream?publicationPid=uk-ac-man-scw:75773&datastreamId=SUPPLEMENTARY-1.PDF>
- OMAR, Abdulmagid A. (2003). *An evaluation of low income housing project in developing countries case study: Tripoli-Libya*, PhD, University of Salford.
- OMERZEL, D. G. (2006). Competitiveness of Slovenia as a tourist destination, *Managing Global Transitions*. 4 (2): 167–189.
- OMRAN, A. KHALIFA ALSADEY, S.M.K. PAKIR, A.K. and RAMLI, M. (2012). Functional competences' as an effective factor for project leaders in the Libyan construction industry, *Annals of the University of Bucharest, the Economic & Administrative*, 5: 185-205.
- ORLIKOWSKI, W. J. and BAROUDI, J. J. (1991) Studying information technology in organizations: Research approaches and assumptions. *Information Systems Research*, 2(1): 1-28.
- OPPERMANN, Martin and CHON, Kye-Sung (1997). *Tourism in Developing Countries*, Tourism and Hospitality Management Series, International Thomson Business Press.
- OTMAN, Waniss and KARLBERG, Erling (2007). *The Libyan economy: Economic diversification and international repositioning*, UK, Springer
- OU, S.M. (2011). Increasing cognitive proximity investments in spatial tourism duopoly, *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(14): 5594-5599.
- OXFORD BUSINESS GROUP (2008). The report: Libya.

OXFOED BUSINESS GROUP (2010). The report: Libya.

PAGE, Stephen, J. and CONNELL, Joanne. (2006). Tourism: a modern synthesis, 2nd edition, UK, Cengage Learning EMEA , Thomson.

PANAKERA, C. WILLSON, G. RYAN, C. and LIU, G. (2011). Considerations for sustainable tourism development in developing countries: perspectives from the South Pacific, *Tourismos, An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, 6(2): 241-242.

PANAPRESS (2003). Libya: banks on tourism to diversify economy. [Online]. In: *Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa, The Norwegian Council for Africa*, last access 20 June 2011, at: <http://www.afrika.no/Detailed/3557.html>

PANSIRI, J. (2005). Pragmatism: a methodological approach to researching strategic alliances in tourism, *Tourism and Hospitality Planning and Development*, 2(3): 191–206.

PAPATHEODOROU, Andreas. (2006). TALC and the spatial implications of competition, In: BUTLER, Richard W. (eds.). *The tourism area lifecycle: conceptual and theoretical issues*, Aspects of Tourism, Vol. 2, Channel View Publications, 2: 67-82.

PARGETER, A. (2010). Reform in Libya: chimera or reality? [online]. In: *Mediterranean Paper Series, October 2010, The German Marshall Fund of the United States (GMF)*, last accessed on 05 June 2012, at: http://www.iai.it/pdf/mediterraneo/GMF-IAI/Mediterranean-paper_08.pdf

PARK, J.Y. CHO, J. and ROSE, A. (2011). Modeling a major source of economic resilience to disasters: recapturing lost production, *Natural Hazards, Springer*, 58 (1):163–182.

PEETERS, P. (2012). A clear path towards sustainable mass tourism? rejoinder to the paper ‘Organic, Incremental and Induced Paths to Sustainable Mass Tourism Convergence’ by David B. Weaver: opinion piece, *Tourism Management*, 33: 1038-1041.

PERRINGS, C. (2006). Resilience and sustainable development, *Environment and Development Economics*, 11: 417–427.

PHILLIMORE, J. and GOODSON, L. (2004). *Qualitative research in tourism: ontologies, epistemologies and methodologies*. London. Routledge.

PIZAM, A. TARLOW, P. and BOOM, J. (1997). Making tourists feel safe: whose responsibility is it? *Journal of Travel Research*, 36(1): 23-28.

PLAYFOOT, Jim (2011). Employer engagement in Libya: challenges and recommendations, Pearson, White Loop Limited. [online]. Last accessed 11 December 2012 at: http://www.whiteloop.com/publications/Employer_E2011092823646.pdf

POMFRET, G. (2006). Mountaineering adventure tourists: a conceptual framework for research, *Tourism Management*. 27: 113–123.

POON, A . (1989). Competitive strategies for Caribbean tourism: the new vs. the old, *Caribbean Affairs*, 2 (2): 73-91.

POON, A. (1994). The "new tourism" revolution, *Tourism Management*, 15 (2): 91- 92.

POON, A. (2010). Best practice destination management: lessons from the leaders, *Trends and Issues in Global Tourism*, 159-171.

PORTER, Julie PINTO, Hugo and CRUZ, Ana (2012). Economic resilience and tourism destinations: eco and cultural responses to turbulence contexts in coastal areas, pp. 1-19. [online]. Last accessed 19 September 2012 at:

http://www.citcem.org/encontro/pdf/new_01/TEXTOJuliePorterHugoPintoAnaCruz.pdf

PORTER, M. (1998). Clusters and the new economics of competition, *Harvard Business Review*, 76(6): 77-90.

PORTER, M. (2000). Location, competition and economic development: local clusters in a global economy, *Economic Development Quarterly*, 14 (1): 7-20.

PORTER, Michael E. and YERGIN, D. (2006). National economic strategy: an assessment of the competitiveness of the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya , The General Planning Council of Libya. [online]. In: *Monitor Group, Cambridge Energy Research Associates CERA, UK*. Last accessed 13 August 2012 at: http://www.isc.hbs.edu/pdf/2006-0127_Libya_NES_report.pdf

PRIDEAUX, B. (2002). Creating rural heritage visitor attractions—the Queensland heritage trails project, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 4(4): 213-223.

PUNCH, Keith (2005). *Introduction to social research: quantitative and qualitative approaches*, 2nd edition, London, Sage Publication Ltd.

QUINLAN, Christina (2011). *Business research methods*, UK, Cengage Learning.

QUINN, J. B. and HILMER, F. G. (1994). Strategic outsourcing, *Sloan Management Review*, 43-55.

RAZALLI, M. R. ABDULLAH, S. and HASSAN, M. G. (2012). Developing a model for Islamic hotels: evaluating opportunities and challenges, [online]. In: *International Conference on Knowledge, Culture and Society (ICKCS 2012), Jeju Island, South Korea. 29-30 June 2012*, last accessed 16 November 2012 at: <http://www.ipedr.com/vol42/018-ICKCS2012-K10008.pdf>

REMENYI, Dan WILLIAMS, Brian MONEY, Arthur and SWATZ, Ethne (2005). *Doing research in business and management*, SAGE Publications.

RICHARDS, G. and WILSON, J. (2006). Developing creativity in tourist experiences: A solution to the serial reproduction of culture? *Tourism Management*, 27: 1209 –1223.

RICHARDSON, R. B. WITKOWSKI, K. (2010). Economic vulnerability to climate change for tourism-dependent nations, *Tourism Analysis*, 15(3): 315-330.

RITCHIE, Brent (2009). *Crisis and disaster management for tourism*, Bristol, UK, Channel View Publications.

RITCHIE, Brent W. and ADAIR, Daryl (2004). *Sport tourism: interrelationships, impacts and issues*, Aspects of Tourism, US, Channel View Publications.

RITCHIE, J. R. B. and CROUCH, G. I. (2000). The competitive destination: a sustainability perspective. *Tourism Management*, 21(1): 1-7.

RITCHIE, Brent and CROUCH, Geoffrey (2003). *The competitive destination: A sustainable tourism perspective*. Cambridge: CABI Publishing.

RITCHIE, Jane. LEWIS, Jane. and GILLIAN, Elam (2003). Designing and selecting samples. In: RITCHIE, Jane and LEWIS, Jane (eds.). *Qualitative research practice: a guide for social science students and researchers*, London, Sage Publications Ltd, pp. 77-108.

ROBINSON, L. and JR VIE, J.K. (2008). Post-disaster community tourism recovery: the tsunami and Arugam Bay, Sri Lanka. *32(4)*: 631-645.

ROSE, A. (2004). Defining and measuring economic resilience to disasters, *Disaster Prevention and Management*, *13(4)*: 307-314.

ROSE, A. (2007). Economic resilience to natural and man-made disasters: Multidisciplinary origins and contextual dimensions, *Environmental Hazards*, *7(4)*: 383–398.

ROSENFELD, S. (1997). Bringing business clusters into the mainstream of economic development, *European Planning Studies*, *5(1)*: 3-23.

ROSENTHAL, Elisabeth (2007). Libya unveils bold ecotourism project. [online]. In: *The New York Times: Africa, Published: Monday, 10 September 2007*, last accessed 29 November 2012 at: <http://www.nytimes.com/2007/09/10/world/africa/10iht-libya.4.7452387.html?pagewanted=all&r=0>

ROSS, M. (2001). Does oil hinder democracy? *World Politics*, *53*: 325-361.

ROTICH, D. NTHIGA, R. BOR, T. and KOGOLA, B. (2012). Product diversification for sustainable tourism development: exploring the strengths and challenges of Kisumu region, Kenya, *European Journal of Business and Social Sciences*, *1(9)*: 108-117.

ROWLEY, J. (2002). Using case studies in research. *Management Research News*, *25(1)*:16-27.

RUHANEN, L. (2004). Strategic planning for local tourism destinations: an analysis of tourism plans, *Tourism and Hospitality Planning and Development*, *1 3*: 239-253.

RUIZ-BALLESTEROS, E. (2011). Social-ecological resilience and community-based tourism: An approach from Agua Blanca, Ecuador, *Tourism Management*, *32(3)*:655-666.

RUSSO, Paola (2004). Welfare in the Mediterranean countries: Great Arab Poplar Socialist Libyan, [online]. In: *Centre for Administrative Innovation in the Euro-Mediterranean Region (C.A.I.MED)*. last accessed 29 November 2012 at: <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/CAIMED/UNPAN019179.pdf>

RUSSO, A. P. and VAN DER BORG, J. (2002). Case study: Planning considerations for cultural tourism: a case study of four European cities, *Tourism Management*. *23*. 631–637.

SAFFORD, S. (2004). Why the garden club couldn't save Youngstown: Civic infrastructure and mobilization in economic crises. [online]. In: *MIT Industrial Performance Center Working Paper Series, 04-004*. Last accessed January 2013 at: <http://web.mit.edu/ipc/publications/pdf/04-002.pdf>

SAHIDA, W. AB RAHMAN, S. AWANG, K. and MAN, Y.C. (2011). The implementation of Shariah compliance concept hotel: De Palma hotel Ampang, Malaysia, [online]. In: *2nd International Conference on Humanities, Historical and Social Sciences IPEDR vol.17, pp138-142, IACSIT Press, Singapore*, last accessed 12 November 2012, at: <http://www.ipedr.com/vol17/25-CHSS 2011-H10005.pdf>

SAIDI, N. SCACCIAVILLANI, F. and ALI, F. (2010). Forecasting tourism in Dubai. [online]. In: Economic Note No. 8. *Dubai International Financial Centre*, pp. 1-26. Last accessed 23 March 2013 at: nassersaidi.com/wp-content/uploads/2012/06/Economic-Note-8.pdf

- SEKARAN, Uma (2000). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*, New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- SALE, J. E. M. LOHFELD, L. H. and BRAZIL, B. (2002). Revisiting the quantitative-qualitative debate: implications for mixed-methods research, *Quality & Quantity*, 36: 43–53.
- SALEM, Huda Fathi (2004). *Development of rural areas and societies in Libya*, PhD, Szent Istvan University.
- SALVADO, J. (2011). Travel experience ecosystem model: building travel agencies' business resilience in Portugal, *European Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Recreation*, 2(1):95-116.
- SAUBERT, Hannes (2005). *Partnering versus mergers and acquisitions: theory and an exploratory case study in the tourism industry*. Alle Rechte Vorbehalten, Deutscher Universitätsverlag, DUV.
- SAUNDERS, Mark. LEWIS, Philip. and THORNHILL, Adrian. (2009). *Research methods for business students*, 5th edition, UK, Pearson Education.
- SCHOUTEN, M. Van Der HEIDE, M. and HEIJMAN, W. (2009). Resilience of social-ecological systems in European rural areas: theory and prospects, [online]. In: *Paper prepared for presentation at the 113th EAAE Seminar "The Role of Knowledge, Innovation and Human Capital in Multifunctional Agriculture and Territorial Rural Development"*, Belgrade, Republic of Serbia, December 9-11, last accessed 3 November 2012 at: [http://ageconsearch.umn.edu/bitstream/57343/2/Schouten Marleen cover.pdf](http://ageconsearch.umn.edu/bitstream/57343/2/Schouten%20Marleen%20cover.pdf)
- SCHMALLEGGER, D. and CARSON, D. (2008). Blogs in tourism: Changing approaches to information exchange, *Journal of vacation marketing*, 14, 99-110.
- SCHWARTZ, D. (1989). Visual ethnography: using photography in qualitative research, *Qualitative Sociology, Human science press*, 12(2):119-154.
- SCHWARTZ, J.B. (2007). Dealing with a "Rogue State": the Libya Precedent, *The American Journal of International Law*, 101:553-580.
- SCOTT, D. and McBOYLE, G. (2007). Climate change adaptation in the ski industry. *Mitigation and Adaptation Strategies for Global Change*, 12(8): 1411-1431.
- SCOTT, D. AMELUNG, B. BEKEN, S. CERON, J-P. DUBOIS, G. GOSSLING, S. PEETERS, P. SIMPSON, M. (2008). Climate change and tourism: responding to global challenges. Technical report. Madrid, United Nations World Tourism Organization; Paris: United Nations Environment Program; Geneva: World Meteorological Organization, pp. 23-250.
- SCOTT, Noel (2011). Tourism policy: a strategic review. In: COOPER, Chris (eds.). *contemporary tourism reviews*, Good fellow Publishers Ltd.
- SEETANAH, B. JUWAHEER, T. D. LAMPORT, M. J. ROJID, S. SANNASSE, R. V. and SUBADAR, A. U. (2011). Does infrastructure matter in tourism development? *University of Mauritius Research Journal*, 17: 89-108.
- SHAKYA, Martina (2009). *Risk, Vulnerability and Tourism in Developing Countries: The Case of Nepal*, No. 56, Logos Verlag Berlin GmbH, Bochum Studies in International Development.
- SHARPLEY, R. (2009). Tourism and development challenges in the least developed countries: the case of the Gambia, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 12(4): 337-358.

SHARPLEY, Richard (2002). The consumption of tourism. In: SHARPLEY, Richard (eds.) *Tourism and Development: Concept and Issues*. Clevedon, Buffalo, Toronto and Sydney: Channel View.

SHARPLEY, Richard and TELFER, David J. (2002). *Tourism and development: concepts and issues*, Aspects of Tourism, USA, Channel View Publications.

SHARPLEY, Richard. (2004). Tourism, modernisation and development on the island of Cyprus: challenges and policy responses. In: BRAMWELL, Bill (eds.). *Coastal mass tourism: diversification and sustainable development in southern Europe*, UK, Channel View Publications, pp. 321-340.

SHENTON, A.K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects, *Education for Information, IOS Press, 22*: 63-75.

SHURLAND, D. and DE JONG, P. (2008). Disaster risk management for coastal tourism destinations responding to climate change: A practical guide for decision makers, UNEP Manuals on Sustainable Tourism, UNEP. [online]. Last accessed on 10 July 2011 at: <http://www.unep.fr/shared/publications/pdf/DITx1048xPA-DisasterRiskManagementforCoastalTourism.pdf>

SIMÕES, J. M. and FERREIRA, C. C. (2012). Portugal: human mobility and spatial interaction in urban/metropolitan contexts – Lisbon, Eastern Algarve and Funchal, Chapter VII, [online]. Last accessed on 17 March 2013 at: <http://ojs.uniroma1.it/index.php/SECOA/article/download/10119/10003>.

SIMMIE, J. and MARTIN, R. (2010). The economic resilience of regions: towards an evolutionary approach, *Cambridge Journal of Regions, Economy and Society, 3*: 27-43.

SIMMONS, D. G. (1994). Community participation in tourism planning, *Tourism Management, 15*(2): 98-108.

SIMMS, A. (2010). Leptis Magna, Libya: Rome by the sea. [online]. In: *Telegraph: Travel, 29 November 2010*, last accessed 11 December 2012 at: <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/travel/activityandadventure/8167751/Leptis-Magna-Libya-Rome-by-the-sea.html>

SIMPSON, K. (2001). Strategic planning and community involvement as contributors to sustainable tourism development. *Current Issues in Tourism, 4*(1): 3-41.

SINGH, Shalini. (2001). Indian tourism: policy, performance and pitfalls. In. David Harrison (ed.). *Tourism and the less developed world: Issues and case studies*. CAB International, pp. 137-149.

SKANAVIS, C. and SAKELLARI, M. (2011). International tourism, domestic tourism and environmental change: environmental education can find the balance, *TOURISMOS: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism, 6*(1): 233-249.

SLATTERY, P. (2002). Finding the hospitality industry, *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education, 1*(1), 19-28.

SMERAL, E. (2010). Impacts of the world recession and economic crisis on tourism: forecasts and potential risks, *Journal of Travel Research, 49*(31): 31-38.

SMITH, A. (2006). Assessing the contribution of flagship projects to city image change: a quasi-experimental technique, *International Journal of Tourism Research, 8*:391-404.

- SMITH, Andrew (2012). *Events and urban regeneration: the strategic use of events to revitalise cities*, UK, Routledge.
- SMITH, S. L. J. (1994). The tourism product, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3): 582-595.
- SMITH, Valene (2001). *Hosts and guests revisited: tourism issues of the 21st century*, New York, USA, Cognisant Communication Corp.
- SONMEZ, S. F. (1998). Tourism, Terrorism and Political Instability. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(2): 416-448.
- SORUPIA, E. (2005). Rethinking the role of transportation in tourism, *Proceedings of the Eastern Asia Society for Transportation Studies*, 5: 1767-1777.
- SPANOU, E. (2007). The impact of tourism on the sociocultural structure of Cyprus, *Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, 2(1):145-162.
- SPILANIS, Ioannis and VAYANNI, Helen (2004). Sustainable tourism: utopia or necessity? The role of new forms of tourism in the Aegean islands. In: BRAMWELL, Bill (eds.). *coastal mass tourism: diversification and sustainable development in southern Europe*, Aspects of Tourism, UK, Channel View Publications, pp. 269-291.
- STANDEVEN, Joy and DE KNOP, Paul (1999). *Sport tourism*, Champaign, Ill. Human Kinetics
- St JOHN, R. B. (2008). The changing Libyan economy: causes and consequences, *Middle East Journal*, 62(1):75-91.
- STEPHEN, C. (2012). British war graves in Libya desecrated by Islamist militants. [online]. In: *The Guardian, The Observer, Sunday 4 March 12*. Last accessed on 1 December 2012 at: <http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2012/mar/04/libya-war-graves-desecrated>
- STRICKLAND-MUNRO, J. K. ALLISON, H. E. and MOORE, S.A. (2010). Using resilience concepts to investigate the impacts of protected area tourism on communities, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37 (2): 499-519.
- SURUGIU, C. SURUGIU, M. R. FRENT, C. and BREDA, Z. (2011). Effects of climate change on Romanian mountain tourism: are they positive or mostly negative? *European Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Recreation*, 2(1): 42-71.
- SWANSON, K. K. and HORRIDGE, E. P. (2004). A structural model for souvenir consumption: travel activities and tourist demographics, *Journal of Travel Research*, 42: 372-380.
- TEMEHU (2012). <http://www.temehu.com/>
- THE ECONOMIST (2007). Libya. [online]. In: *IFC reports*, last accessed 13 July 2011 at: <http://www.ifcreports.com/pdf/libya.pdf>
- THE TRIPOLI POST (2009). Hussein Shaalami best in regional horse race meet, 18 April 2009. [Online], last accessed 19 May 2011 at: <http://www.tripolipost.com/articledetail.asp?c=3&i=3034>
- THEUMA, Nadia (2004). Tourism, culture and cultural tourism in Malta: the revival Valletta. In: BRAMWELL, Bill (eds.). *Coastal mass tourism: diversification and sustainable development in Southern Europe*, Aspects of Tourism, UK, Channel View Publications, pp. 292-306.

- THITTHONGHAM, T. and WALSH, J. (2011). An analysis of factors influencing the competitiveness of the Thai tourism industry. [online]. In: *International Conference on Business and Economics Research*, IACSIT Press, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 1:138-141, last accessed 7 October 2012 at: <http://www.ipedr.com/vol1/30-B10007.pdf>
- THOMAS, B. JWAILI, M. and AL-HASAN, S. (2003). The role of small firms in Libyan tourism development. [online]. In: *Welsh Enterprise Institute (WEI), working paper series: paper 30, University of Glamorgan Business School, Pontypridd*. Last accessed 18 December 2012 at: http://wei.research.glam.ac.uk/media/files/documents/2006-11-30/wei_working_paper_30.pdf
- THOMPSON, Michelle and PRIDEAUX, Bruce (2009). Developing food and wine segmentation and classifying destinations on the basis of their food and wine sectors. In: CHEN, Joseph S. (eds.). *Advances in hospitality and leisure*, UK, Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Vol. 5, pp 163-183.
- THORNTON, G. (2006). Business tourism sector study: executive summary. [Online]. In: *Fund for Research into Industrial Development Growth and Equity (Fridge), Trade and Industry Chamber, 1-18*. Last accessed 28 May 2011 at: [http://www.saaci.co.za/dti/Business Tourism Executive Summary.pdf](http://www.saaci.co.za/dti/Business_Tourism_Executive_Summary.pdf)
- TIERNEY, K. and BRUNEAU, M. (2007). Conceptualizing and measuring resilience: a key to disaster loss reduction. [online]. In: *All-hazards, preparedness, response, and recovery TR News 250*, pp. 14-17, last accessed 20 August 2012 at: http://onlinepubs.trb.org/onlinepubs/trnews/trnews250_p14-17.pdf
- TIMOTHY, D. J. (1998). Cooperative tourism planning in a developing destination, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 6(1): 52-68.
- TOSUN, C. (2000). Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries. *Tourism Management*, 21(6): 613-633.
- TRIBE, J. (2005). New tourism research, *Tourism Recreation Research*, 30(2), 2005: 5-8.
- TRIBE, J. (1997). The indiscipline of tourism. *Annals of tourism approach*, 24(3): 638-657.
- TRUNFIO, M. PETRUZZELLIS, L. and NIGRO, C. (2006). Tour operators and alternative tourism in Italy: exploiting niche markets to increase international competitiveness, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(5): 426-438.
- TSARTAS, Paris (2004). Tourism Development in Greek Insular and Coastal Areas: Sociocultural Changes and Crucial Policy Issues. In: BRAMWELL, Bill (eds.). *Coastal Mass Tourism, Diversification and Sustainable Development in Southern Europe*, Aspects of Tourism, UK, Channel View Publications, pp. 49-68.
- TSAUR, S.H. Yen, C.H. and Chen, C.L. (2010). Independent Tourist Knowledge and Skills, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(4): 1035-1054.
- TUMI, S. A. OMRAN, A. and PAKIR, A. K. (2009). Causes of delay in construction industry in Libya, [online]. In: *The international conference on economics and administration, University of Bucharest, Romania, ICEA – FAA Bucharest, 14-15th November 2009*, last accessed 4 August 2012 at: http://www.itchannel.ro/faa/265_pdfsam_ICEA_FAA_2009.pdf
- TUPPURAINEN, Anne J. (2010). *Challenges faced by Muslim: an evaluation of the writings of Leila Ahmed, Elizabeth Fernea, Fatima Mernissi and Amina Wadud*. PhD, University of South Africa.

- TURNER, B. L. (2010). Vulnerability and resilience: coalescing or paralleling approaches for sustainability science? *Global Environmental Change*, 24(4): 570-576.
- TWATI, J. M. and GMMACK, J. G. (2006). The impact of organisational culture innovation on the adoption of IS/IT: the case of Libya, *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, 19 (2): 175-191.
- TYRRELL, T. and JOHNSTON, R. (2007). Tourism sustainability, resiliency and dynamics: Towards a more comprehensive perspective, *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 8(1): 14–24.
- UDOVC, A. and PERPAR, A. (2007). Role of rural tourism for development of rural areas, *Journal of Western European of Agriculture*, 8(2): 223-228.
- UN. HABITAT (2007). Libyan sustainable urbanisation [online]. In: *Sustainable urbanisation, the first international seminar, 30 June - 01 July 2007, Tripoli-Libya*, last accessed 10 August 2012 at: <http://www.unhabitat.org/content.asp?cid=4765&catid=211&typeid=11&subMenuId=0>
- UNCTAD (2001). Improving the competitiveness of SME's in developing countries: the role of finance to enhance enterprise development. [online]. In: *United Nations Conference on Trade and Development*, last accessed 3 November 2012 at: http://unctad.org/en/Docs/itetebmisc3_en.pdf
- UNDP (2006). Enhancing national partnership in support of protected areas management in Libya. [online]. In: *project document, Government of Libya, pp. 1-34*, last accessed 5 January 2013 at: <http://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/documents/projects/LBY/00045808/PA%20document.pdf>
- UNWTO (2012). *Tourism highlights*, 2012 edition. [online], last accessed 2 December 2012 at: http://dtxqtq4w60xqpw.cloudfront.net/sites/all/files/docpdf/unwtohighlights12enr_1.pdf
- UYSAL, M. CHEN, J. and WILLIAMS, D. (2000). Increasing state market share through a regional positioning. *Tourism Management*, 21(1): 89-96.
- VAN DE VIJER, F. and TANZER, N.K. (2004). Bias and equivalence in cross-cultural assessment: an overview, *Revue Européenne de Psychologie Appliquée*, 54: 119-135.
- VAN LAVIEREN, H. BURT, J. FEARY, D. A. CAVALCANTE, G. MARGUIS, E. BENEDETTI, L. TRICK, C. KJERFVE, B. and SALE, P.F. (2011). Managing the growing impacts of development on fragile coastal and marine ecosystems: Lessons from the Gulf. [online]. In: *Policy report. United Nation University, Institute for Water, Environment and Health INWEH*, last accessed 13 June 2011 at: http://www.inweh.unu.edu/Coastal/Palm/documents/PolicyReport_LessonsFromTheGulf.pdf
- VEAL, Anthony J. (2006). *Research methods for leisure and tourism: a practical guide*, 3rd edition. UK, Prentice Hall.
- VIGANO, G. (2003). Enogastronomy: a path towards the discovery of the local culture, *M.E.T. Università Bocconi, Milano*. [online], last accessed 24 February 2013 at: <http://www.esade.edu/cedit2003/pdfs/viganogiovanni.pdf>
- WANG, N. (1999). Rethinking authenticity in tourism experience, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(2): 349-370.
- WEAVER, D. (2001b). Ecotourism as mass tourism: contradiction or reality? *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, Sage Publications*, 42(2): 104-112.
- WEAVER, D. B. (1991). Alternative to mass tourism in Dominica. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18 (3):414-432.

- WEAVER, D. B. (2000). A broad context model of destination development scenarios, *Tourism Management*, 21:217-224.
- WEAVER, D.B. (2005). Mass and urban ecotourism: new manifestations of an old concept, *Tourism Recreation Research*, 30: 19–26.
- WEAVER, D. B. (2001). Ecotourism in the context of other tourism types. In: WEAVER, David Weaver (eds.). *The Encyclopedia of Ecotourism*, UK, CAB International, pp. 73-83.
- WEAVER, D. B. (2012). Organic, incremental and induced paths to sustainable mass tourism convergence, *Tourism Management*, 33: 1030-1037.
- WEAVER, David and LAWTON, Laura (2006). *Tourism management*, 3rd edition, Milton, Qld, Wiley Australia tourism series, Australia
- WEIDENFELD, A. WILLIAMS, A. and BUTLER, R. (2010). Clustering and compatibility between tourism attractions, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(1):1-16.
- WEIDENFELD, A. WILLIAMS, A. and BUTLER, R. (2011). Cooperation, competition, knowledge transfer and innovations among visitor attractions and their spatial proximity and product similarity, final report, [online]. In: *University of Exeter*. Last accessed 12 January 2012 at: <https://eric.exeter.ac.uk/repository/handle/10036/3083>
- WIESE, H. (1997). Compatibility, business strategy and market structure - a selective survey, *Homo Oeconomicus*, 14: 283-308.
- WILDE, S. J. and COX, C. (2008). Linking destination competitiveness and destination development: findings from a mature Australian tourism destination, [online]. In: *Proceedings of the travel and tourism research association (TTRA) European chapter conference - competition in tourism: business and destination perspectives, Helsinki, Finland, pp. 467-478*, last accessed 10 January 2013 at: <http://epubs.scu.edu.au/>
- WILKINSON, P. F. (1989). Strategies for tourism microstates, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16(2): 153-177.
- WIMPENNY, P. and GASS, J. (2000). Interviewing in phenomenology and grounded theory: is there a difference? *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 31(6): 1485-1492.
- WONG, J. and LAW, R. (2003). Differences in shopping satisfaction levels: a study of tourists in Hong Kong. *Tourism Management*, 24, 401-410.
- WOOD, M. E. (2002). *Ecotourism: principles, practices and policies for sustainability*, UNEP, United Nation Publication.
- WORLD REPORT (2004). Libya, accessed on 15 July 2011 at: <http://www.worldreport-ind.com/libya/tourism.htm>
- XI, L. and Wei, C. S. (2010). The way to the diversification of Macau's social economy: a study on Macau's cultural tourism development, *International Journal of Trade, Economics and Finance*, 1(2): 131-135.
- YACOU MIS, J. (1980). Tackling seasonality: the case of Sri Lanka, *International Journal of Tourism Management*, 1(2): 84-98.
- YIN, Robert K. (1994). *Case study research: design and methods*, 2nd edition, Canada, Sage.

YIN, Robert K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods*, 3rd edition. Thousand Oaks , CA: Sage.

YOUSEF, Abdulhamid A. (2005). Imported intermediate inputs and economic growth in Libya, pp.1-15. [online]. Last accessed 03 June 2012 at: <http://idec.gr/iier/new/EN/YOUSEF.pdf>

ZAPITA, Sami (2009). Libyan tourism projects on the increase. [online]. *The Tripoli Post*, 10 January 2009, last accessed 19 November 2012 at:
<http://www.tripolipost.com/articledetail.asp?c=2&i=2737>

ZHANG, J. and JENSEN, C. (2007). Comparative advantage: explaining tourism flows, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34 :(1)223–243.

Appendix 1

Consent Form for Interviews

I hereby declare that I am fully aware about all the following:

1. I am willingly taking part in the interview for this research and for the interview to be recorded, and my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time with no obligation.
2. I understand that no-one will have access to the recording beyond the researcher and his supervisors.
3. I understand that any personal statements made in the interview will be confidential, and all comments will be nameless in any reports or papers that are produced as a result of the research.
4. I understand that I will be offered a copy of my interview transcript and provided with the opportunity to take out or amend any part of it that I do not wish to be reported in the findings.
5. I understand that the data from this research will be used for academic purposes only.

Name of Respondent:.....

Signature of Respondent:

Date:

Name of Researcher:.....

Signature of Researcher: