

# **ECOTREKKING: A VIABLE DEVELOPMENT ALTERNATIVE FOR THE KOKODA TRACK?**

by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of  
**Bachelor of Management (Honours) in Tourism**



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## **DECLARATION**

I certify that this thesis has not already been submitted for any degree and is not being submitted as part of candidature for any other degree.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me and that any help that I received in preparing this thesis, and all sources used, have been acknowledged in this thesis.

Signature of Candidate

*S. Grabowski*

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## **ABSTRACT**

Tourism as an industry in the 20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> Century has primarily been an international money-making industry which has attracted many governments of less developed countries as a fast mechanism for development. This has often involved a trade-off between the pursuit of economic wealth and support for the social, cultural and natural environments. The negative impacts of mass tourism in these economies are countless and well documented, especially as many of these countries are still trying to deal with impacts caused during colonial occupancy. Consequently, alternative tourism has been presented as a way to manage tourism development which is economically, social and ecologically sustainable. One manifestation of this trend is community-based tourism, which aims to be inclusive of the host communities as they plan for tourism and considers the socio cultural and natural resources and desires of tourists in a more equitable manner.

The aim of this thesis is to determine how ecotrekking as a form of community-based tourism can provide a foundation for development for remote rural communities in developing countries. It was conceptually determined that if the needs of the community matched those of the tourists, then a sustainable ecotrekking industry can evolve. To explore this issue contextually, a case study of the Kokoda Track (KT) in Papua New Guinea is presented based around three research questions:

1. What role can market segmentation play in sustainable tourism development in remote rural communities?
2. What outcomes do the Kokoda Track communities envisage for the future of tourism on the Kokoda Track?
3. Do Kokoda tourists meet the outcomes envisaged by the community?

A review of the literature found that market segmentation is a tool used in destination planning to assess visitor characteristics and match these to resource capabilities. It was employed in this study to determine the characteristics and needs of Kokoda tourists through a questionnaire survey distributed to trekkers via the tour operators. It was found that the Kokoda tourist is a university educated, middle-aged man who visits the KT for adventure and historical reasons. They have higher-order needs of personal development and knowledge and value the authenticity of the experience.

The second research question was approached using secondary data analysis. Notes from Participatory Rural Appraisal workshops with community leaders in 2004 and 2005 were reinterpreted. The key themes to emerge were that the communities have a great need for basic facilities (education, transportation, telecommunications, medical infrastructure and water supplies) and they see tourism as an economic means to develop those facilities. They would like to build more guesthouses and provide food for tourists to increase revenue however, they are unsure of the extent to which this will be supported by trekkers.

A comparative analysis of the findings from research questions 1 and 2 was employed to address the third research question. The quantitative needs of the tourist market segment were matched to the qualitative expectations of the communities. It was found that the current Kokoda tourist is in favour of many of the outcomes that the Kokoda communities envisage. These include the provision of locally made food and guesthouses.

Further to this, the empirical results from the questionnaire found that ecotourists and cultural tourists are the tourist types that need to be targeted by operators. They indicated a strong match with the desires and needs of the Kokoda communities. For example, they indicated that the KT can cater for a much smaller number of trekkers than the other three pre-determined tourist types (adventure, organised and historic tourists). Additionally, the natural and cultural environments are more important to these tourist types inferring that the protection of these resources is of primary importance.

Consequently, it was established that ecotrekking can play an important role in development in less developed countries, if the right market segment is targeted to meet the needs of the community. Generally this can then ensure a slower rate of development, which allows the communities to adjust to the changes that occur at both a socio-cultural level and also in the infrastructure within their communities. In the longer term it also allows them to see how tourism can provide long term benefits not offered in extractive industries such as forestry and mining.



## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

AT – Alternative tourism

CBE – Community-based ecotourism

CBT – Community-based tourism

CMT – Conventional mass tourism

HDI – Human development index

KT – Kokoda Track

KTA – The Kokoda Track Special Purpose Authority

KTF – Kokoda Track Foundation

LDC – Less developed country

NGO – Non-government organisation

UNDP – United Nations Development Programme

WWF – World Wide Fund for Nature

## CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION & BACKGROUND

The economic benefits of tourism are often incentive enough for developing and developed economies to consider tourism as a primary income generator (Sreekumar & Parayil, 2002). In these cases the tourism industry is presented as an important development agent and an ideal economic alternative to more traditional but ecologically destructive primary and secondary sectors. This is evident in many developing economies, which are disadvantaged by lack of infrastructure, location, and economic status. Tourism is sought as an opportunity to move beyond cycles of poverty toward a better life and a sustainable means to stimulate developing economies (Brohman, 1996; Scheyvens, 2002b).

The effects of large scale tourism development can also be devastating where the needs of the community are often ignored. One solution to this trend is a group of studies called “alternative tourism development” (Britton & Clarke, 1987; Cohen, 1987; Deroi, 1981, 1988; Holden, 1984:21; Mieczkowski, 1995; Pearce, 1980, 1992; Smith & Eadington, 1992). Within this alternative tourism framework this thesis will focus on Community-Based Tourism<sup>1</sup> and its role in empowering local communities and rendering development that is more participatory, self-reliant and process orientated.

This introductory chapter will begin by examining the key concepts and outlining the problem associated with developing tourism in less developed countries. The study will then move beyond a theoretical framework via the application of a case study on the Kokoda Track in Papua New Guinea and present the issue of whether ecotrekking as a form of community-based tourism, can provide a foundation for development for remote rural communities in developing countries.

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<sup>1</sup> In 1988, Deroi coined the term ‘Alternative Community-Based Tourism’ (AT/CBT) which he defined as ‘ a privately offered set of hospitality services (and features), extended to visitors, by individuals, families, or a local community [primarily] to establish direct personal/cultural intercommunication and understanding between host and guest’ (1988:89). These services specifically have to be locally owned and operated. Since then, numerous case studies in developing countries have looked at the benefits of developing Community-Based Tourism including Godde (1999), Kontogeorgopoulos (2005), Scheyvens (1999; 2002b), Timothy (2002) and Wearing and McDonald (2002).

## 1.1 The Study – Conceptual Considerations

For the last decade tourism has been presented as the World's largest industry (Doan, 2000; Neto, 2003; Wahab, 1997). The challenge for planners and marketers has been to provide new and interesting tourism products for consumers. This has involved promoting a range of previously unexplored destinations and attractions in less developed countries (LDCs) to satisfy a market segment that is more adventurous and environmentally conscientious (Wight, 2001). For those stakeholders in tourism that perceive some form of moral obligation to LDCs, this poses an ethical dilemma (Lea, 1993). That is, sustainable tourism development in LDCs usually involves a trade-off between social and environmental protection and short term economic gain. The dilemma then is how to balance the economic returns within the carrying capacity<sup>2</sup> of the destination in order to provide sustainable tourism that fits within that ethical framework. This thesis uses the alternative tourism rubric to satisfy that uncertainty and focuses particularly on Community-Based Tourism (CBT) in attempting to align the expectations of LDC communities with market segments that may assist them in achieving those expectations.

For the purpose of this study, “less developed countries” (LDCs) will be used to denote those countries that are at the low to medium end of the Human Development Index (HDI) and have a “Human and income poverty: developing countries” (HPI-1) ranking (UNDP 2006; 2002). These both take into account indicators such as “long and healthy life”, “knowledge”, and “decent standard of living”. The United Nations and several authors describe these countries as making up the “Third World” while other common terms are “the East” and “the South”. These terms do not take into account that these nations are in a process of change, rather they assume a fixed economic or social state. Occasionally these terms will appear throughout the thesis in the form of direct quotes but will be recognised as LDC.

LDCs are characterised by chronic underemployment, exploitation and vicious cycles of poverty (Basu, 1997). They have received aid and development loans from the World Bank and are on an inevitable course towards development and modernisation although this is

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<sup>2</sup> Carrying capacity has been defined by Mathieson & Wall as ‘the maximum number of people who can use a site without an unacceptable alteration in the physical environment and without an unacceptable decline in the quality of the experience gained by the visitor’ (1982:21). Four types of carrying capacity have been identified; economic, psychological, environmental and social (O’Rielly 1986 cited in Holden, 2000).

largely seen as a capitalist ideal (Mowforth & Munt, 2003) and rebuffed by commentators examining the “myth of development” (see for example de Rivero, 2001). Some authors equate LDC’s state of development with their history of colonial rule which introduced a power relationship between the superior coloniser and inferior exploited LDC (Sofield, 2003). This has led to a theory of dependency defined by Dos Santos (1973:76 cited in Sofield, 2003:50) as:

‘a conditioning situation in which the economies of one group of countries are conditioned by the development and expansion of others. A relationship of interdependence between two or more economies becomes a dependent relationship when some countries can expand through self-impulsion while others, being in a dependent position, can only expand as a reflection of the expansion of the dominant countries, which may have positive or negative effects on their immediate development.’

This relationship is evident in small LDCs like Fiji (Britton, 1983) which is dependent on foreign investment for tourism infrastructure. The key attractions of these LDCs are unique cultures and natural environments. Initially, intrepid travellers have explored these destinations, their actions producing a flow-on effect to all tourists. This has created a need for more modern, Western facilities and general infrastructure to accommodate these tourists, often provided by foreign multinational organisations. Although tourism potentially brings a positive economic result, the onset of large scale tourism has generated many negative impacts in LDCs (explored in Chapter 2). For example a drift can begin to occur between the local community, often not given access to the new facilities, and tourists who generally prefer to stay in their tourism enclaves (Lea, 1993; Teo, 1994). Consequently, a new form of tourism which is more sustainable and is seen to reduce impacts caused by conventional mass tourism (CMT) development is becoming popular.

Alternative tourism (AT) is the antithesis of CMT. It can be cultural or nature-based (Mieczkowski, 1995), and it is generally small-scale and low-impact. AT is also referred to as New Tourism (Mowforth & Munt, 1998; 2003), Ecotourism (Cater, 1993; Wearing & Neil, 1999; Weaver, 2001), and Nature-based Tourism (Orams, 1996; Valentine, 1992); all are commonly linked by sustainability.

The idea of sustainable tourism was born from the 1980s concept of sustainable development, or development that ‘meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs’ (WCED1987:43). This paradigm challenged traditional development theory which was economically driven with the intention of transforming ‘subsistence economies to industrialized Western models’ (Sofield, 2003:4). In contrast, sustainable tourism is seen to be more participatory, empowering communities to plan for long term, low-impact tourism ventures (Wearing & McDonald, 2002). Many authors see sustainable forms of tourism as the panacea for LDCs (see for example Mair & Reid, 2007) generating economic returns while also sustaining the socio-cultural and natural environments. Others are sceptical suggesting that they will have a greater negative impact on local communities (see for example Butler, 1990; Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Nash, 1996; Wheeller, 1991). This debate will be presented in Chapter 2 and a conclusion will be made as to the viability of these forms of tourism in LDCs.

Ecotrekking is one form of sustainable tourism which is popular in LDCs with pristine mountain environments. Ecotrekking is not a black & white concept. The interactions are complex and are dependent on the destinations in which it is performed. As it has never been defined in the literature, this thesis will define ecotrekking to be walking or hiking in mountain regions as a form of ecotourism<sup>3</sup>. This has been studied in Nepal (Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002; Wearing, van der Duim & Schweinsberg, 2007) and Thailand (Cohen, 1989; Dearden, 1988; Dearden & Harron, 1994). Generally this form of ecotourism is low impact but the motivations behind ecotrekking may encompass other types of tourism like adventure tourism, mountain tourism, heritage tourism and cultural tourism. For this reason, ecotourists are not a homogenous group but differ in the activities they undertake, their motivations for travel and the destinations they visit (Wight, 2001). A plethora of market segment research has been undertaken to study ecotourists in both Western nations and LDCs (Ballantine & Eagles, 1994; Blamey & Braithwaite, 1997; Eagles, 1992; Hvenegaard, 2002; Kerstetter, Hou & Lin, 2004; Tao, Eagles & Smith, 2004a; Tao, Eagles & Smith, 2004b; Wight, 1996a; 2001). These will be discussed in Chapter 2.

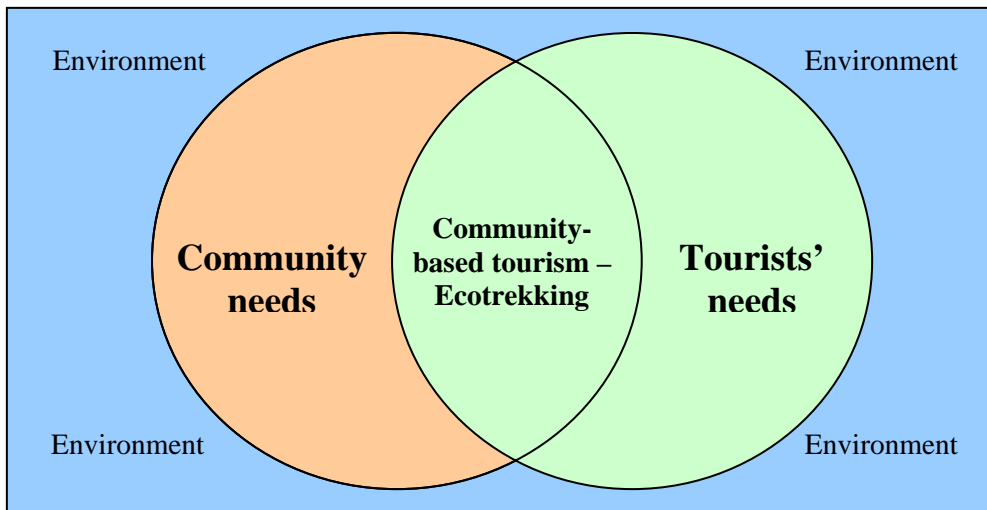
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<sup>3</sup> Ecotourism is a popular type of AT and is a rapidly increasing sector of the tourism industry (see for example Neto, 2003). However the term is highly ambiguous and debated in the literature. Wearing and Neil (1999) note that ecotourism should include travel to relatively undisturbed areas, be nature-based, conservation-led and educative.

One of the major problems with the introduction of tourism to remote rural communities is the mismatch of needs between the community and the tourist (Wight, 1993). Often the community tries to meet the perceived needs of the tourist (Wood, 1998) while the tourism industry is interested in tourism that will achieve the highest income return for them. It has been argued that tourism development should reflect the needs and desires of local people (Inskip, 1994; Mair & Reid, 2007; Simmons, 1994; Wearing & McDonald, 2002) through a participatory approach, creating a partnership between communities and the tourism industry. On the contrary, some authors have turned to a marketing approach to achieve sustainable tourism through a needs-based assessment of tourists and what they can do for the community (Gunn & Var, 2002; Silverberg, Backman & Backman, 1996; Wight, 1993). Liu states that this approach will result in sustainable tourism development where 'demand management, in terms of finding enough tourists to fill capacities, is often more critical than resource management since tourist demand usually fluctuates more frequently and abruptly than tourist resources' (2003:463). This thesis will explore one avenue that can achieve a balance between demand and supply. It will use a market segmentation approach to understand the tourist and their needs.

Market segment studies have aided in the planning and management of tourism areas from an industry perspective (Blamey & Braithwaite, 1997; Kerstetter et al., 2004; Sung, 2000; Wight, 1996a; 1996b). The results are used as a tool to advocate for low-impact tourism in remote and protected areas or for industry to improve the tourist experience based on satisfaction levels. The importance of these studies to CBT is less obvious. The primary aim of CBT is to foster understanding between host and guest (Dernoi, 1988). Consequently segmentation studies can be used to understand tourists and to match their needs to those of the community in a way that creates sustainable tourism. This conceptual relationship is depicted in figure 1.1.

**Figure 1.1 – Concept map: Matching community and tourist needs**



### ***1.1.1 Thesis Statement***

As LDCs look to incorporate tourism in long-term development plans and initiatives, it is important to discover the extent to which these plans will be sustainable in terms of the destination communities and the market segments that they desire to attract. Therefore, this thesis will investigate:

***How can ecotrekking as a form of community-based tourism provide a foundation for development for remote rural communities in developing countries?***

The Kokoda Track in Papua New Guinea will be used as a case study of an attraction in a LDC as it is a remote destination that attracts trekkers to its high quality natural environments, distinct culture and war history. It is the latter that has made the KT famous however, since 1992 the KT has been closed twice due to disgruntled landowners (KTA, 2006) and more recently it has been recognised that the community needs to be included in decisions made about the future of tourism (KTF, 2004).

### ***1.1.2 Rationale for the Thesis***

Dearden and Harron (1994) discuss the difficulty that Thai hilltribes have in adapting to changing situations in the trekking tourism system. Before KT tourism grows to the extent that trekking in Thailand has, it is important to address the difficulties facing the community. Wearing and McDonald (2002) have explored Non Government

Organisations' (NGO) engagement in tourism within a sustainable development framework using Papua New Guinea (PNG) as an example. Here they discovered the importance of community participation in sustainable decision making. Additionally Eagles (1992) has expounded that alternative tourists are more environmentally conscientious and are willing to give back to the community in which they visit. This thesis will build on this idea and examine how market segments might help achieve the expectations and needs of the community. Brohman recognises this problem as finding 'the correct mixture of market orientation and state intervention, given divergent development conditions in individual countries' (1996:61). This thesis will assess whether CBT and the affiliated activity of ecotrekking within the context of AT has the capacity to deliver this on the KT.

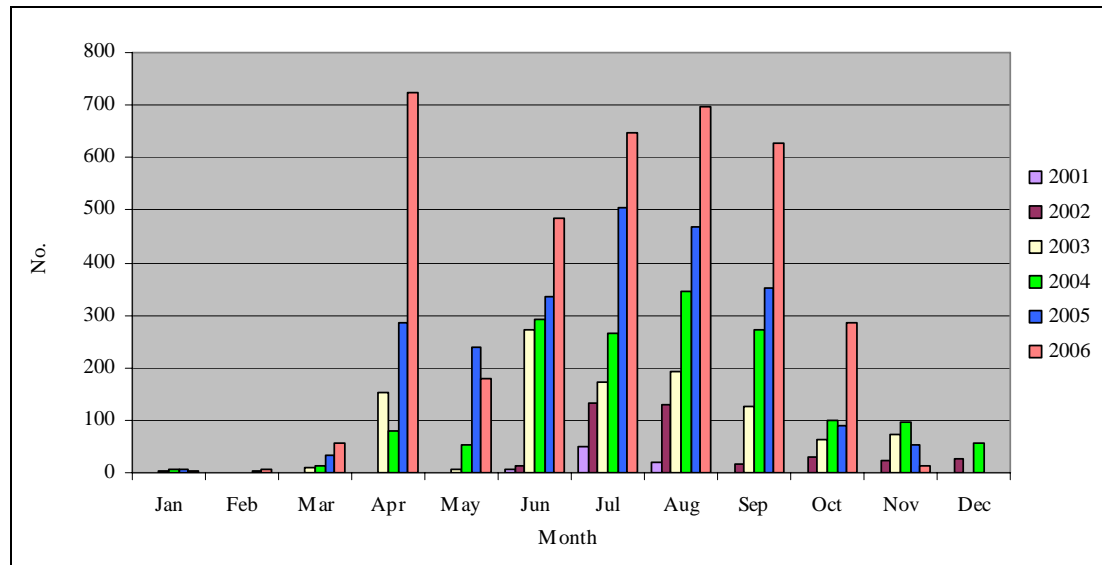
## **1.2 The Case Study**

Currently Papua New Guinea's (PNG) inbound arrivals are estimated to be at 50,000 with only 20,000 accounting for tourism activities (National Statistical Office of Papua New Guinea, 2007). Internal political, economic and social problems have been blamed for the slow increase in tourism (Douglas, 1998) however, PNG's abundance of unspoilt natural environments provides the potential for a huge increase in tourism numbers. Britton (1983) has shown that in an unspoiled natural environment unrestricted tourism development has proven to be damaging to the community and the natural environment in LDCs like Fiji. The increase in tourism numbers will have serious impacts on PNG's fragile natural resources and limited infrastructure, particularly in the relatively inaccessible mountain regions, one of which shelters the Kokoda Track (KT).

Tourist numbers have been steadily increasing on the KT since 2001, especially in the peak dry-season (Figure 1.2). The KT is now at the stage that the current infrastructure and environment cannot support more tourism especially with the lack of financial support (KTF, 2006; Lynn, 2007). This problem is highlighted by community groups along the KT who are bemused by the lack of tourism expenditure that remains in the community (Shymko, 2004) and have consequently closed the KT twice since 1992. Currently an entrance fee is charged to the tour operator who relays this cost to the tourist. Most of this fee ends up with the government and only a small amount is used to maintain the track or the communities that the KT passes through (KTA, 2006).



**Figure 1.2 – Seasonality of trekking permits granted on the Kokoda Track 2001-2006**



Source: KTA (2006)

Since 2004 communities on the KT have realised that the development of trekking on the KT offers a key to a sustainable future for them. Five year plans were drafted for each community group (Appendix 2) after two in-depth workshops with community leaders in 2004 and 2005 run by the Kokoda Track Foundation (KTF). The development of the KT for tourism purposes has drawn the attention of a number of local and international agencies that represent the community’s interests and the interests of others who have not been recognised as operating in the tourism agenda. New agencies have been created such as the KTF and the Kokoda Track Special Purpose Authority (KTA). Together with other agencies such as the World Wildlife Fund for Nature (WWF) and the University of Technology Sydney (UTS), they engage in strategic planning efforts to develop sustainable tourism with the KT communities. In 2006 a comprehensive sustainable ecotrekking strategy for the KT was produced by the KTF<sup>4</sup>. Although communities are receiving support from the NGOs, it is unknown if the plan will be sustainable especially as there is a threat from mining companies to provide quick economic returns<sup>5</sup>.

<sup>4</sup> “Ecotrekking Kokoda: A plan for Sustainable Tourism” (KTF, 2006) began as a strategic plan in 2004 and was completed in 2006.

<sup>5</sup> A two day mining seminar was held in Port Moresby, 29-30 October 2007. Frontier resources announced that landowners on the KT would get 5% interest in the holding company as the mine would be 400m from the KT at its closest point and the KT would be rerouted (Asaeli, 2007; Barreng, 2007).

Current planning initiatives have focused on the needs of the community and more recently the wants of the industry (with the formation of the Kokoda Trekking Operators Association – KTOPA – in March, 2007). Apart from a small survey of trekkers in 2005<sup>6</sup>, consultation with tourists has not occurred at the same level as it has with other stakeholders. There is a lack of information about the needs and types of tourists and how this can be integrated or aligned to the needs of the communities. This is a fundamental requirement for the development of sustainable tourism (Wearing & McDonald, 2002). Therefore, this study aims to discover the “Kokoda Tourist”, demographically and more importantly psychographically, and examine if this type of tourist is able to contribute to the essential elements that the community may desire, resulting in a sustainable tourism industry.

### 1.3 Research Objectives

The aim of this thesis is to determine:

*How can ecotrekking as a form of community-based tourism provide a foundation for development for remote rural communities in developing countries?*

Three specific research questions have been designed to assist in drawing a conclusion for the thesis. These are:

1. What role can market segmentation play in sustainable tourism development in remote rural communities?
2. What outcomes do the Kokoda Track communities envisage for the future of tourism on the Kokoda Track?
3. Do Kokoda tourists meet the outcomes envisaged by the community?

The exploration of these questions will help to examine if ecotrekking, as a consequence of the relationship between the host and guest (depicted in figure 1.1), is a viable development alternative on the KT. It is believed that sustainable tourism development will result if the matching of community and tourist needs is achieved.

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<sup>6</sup> In 2004 the author was commissioned by the KTF to design a survey instrument (appendix 4) to examine trekkers on the KT Between May and November 2005. A small sample of 64 was analysed and became the pilot for this current study. The pilot is discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

## **1.4 Implications of the Study**

It is envisaged that the outcomes of this research will demonstrate a need to better explore the expectations and needs of the destination community, in the planning of any tourism development project in a LDC. Additionally, this thesis will examine the Kokoda tourist. An understanding of their needs whilst on the trek and their motivations for undertaking the trek will give the industry and more importantly, local communities, a benchmark for development. This benchmark can be then matched to the community needs explored by the KTF in 2004. Previous market segmentation studies have failed to see the advantages that understanding tourists can have for community development. Rather they attempt to address issues of carrying capacity based on the fragility of the natural environments (Wall, 1993) or the implications that the segmentation has for marketing initiatives (Silverberg et al., 1996; Zografos & Allcroft, 2007). Although these are important in their own right, they do little to manage the socio-cultural impacts of tourism development.

## **1.5 Outline of Chapters**

This thesis is organised into six chapters. The remaining five chapters present the literature review, methodology, case study, findings of the quantitative instrument, and discussion and conclusion.

Chapter 2 will be divided into two parts. The first will provide a contextual background on tourism development in LDCs, the impacts that are caused and the resultant discourse on sustainable tourism development. Secondly, alternative forms of tourism and tourist types that have arisen will be reviewed to assist in answering the first research question of this thesis, that is: What role can market segmentation play in sustainable tourism development in remote rural communities?

Chapter 3 outlines the methodological rationale for employing the multiple approaches to address the research questions. These are a secondary data analysis of prior Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)<sup>7</sup> workshops employed by the KTF to understand the communities' needs and expectations; a quantitative market segmentation approach via the application of

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<sup>7</sup> Wearing and McDonald describe the principles of PRA and participatory research as having 'an emphasis on planning with – rather than planning for – in the search for ways to build a community's capabilities to respond to changes as well as to generate change themselves' (2002:202).

a questionnaire survey to KT trekkers and; a qualitative comparative analysis of the results of the first two methods.

The Kokoda Track, briefly introduced in section 1.2, is the case study that will be used to explore the thesis question. The aim of Chapter 4 will be to provide the history of tourism in PNG and the KT to answer the second research question: What outcomes do the Kokoda Track communities envisage for the future of tourism on the Kokoda Track? This will be achieved through a secondary analysis of the community workshops and exploration of newspaper articles detailing recent mining initiatives.

The aim of Chapter 5 is to present the collective results of the market segment questionnaire. The Kokoda Tourist will be profiled by demographics, psychographics, and respondent-based measures. These results will be discussed in context with prior market segment studies.

Chapter 6 will comparatively discuss the key findings from Chapters 4 and 5 to match the needs of the community with those of the trekkers. Concluding remarks will be made about the validity of the thesis question and implications for future research.

## **CHAPTER II. LITERATURE REVIEW**

The issue of “sustainable tourism” is hotly contested in tourism literature (Hughes, 1995; Wight, 1993). Proponents of the field argue that alternative, small-scale tourism in the form of ecotourism, is more beneficial to communities and creates less impact (Bramwell & Lane, 1993; Timothy & White, 1999). On the contrary, some see the impacts from ecotourism to be equal and some cases worse than the mass tourism that preceded it (Butcher, 2006; Butler, 1990; Wheeler, 1991). The purpose of this chapter is threefold: Firstly it will outline this debate with particular attention to the ethics involved in sustainable tourism development in LDCs. Secondly, a background of the types of tourism considered to be less harmful to the natural and socio-cultural environments will be discussed. Thirdly, current research into the respective tourism market segments will be presented to address the first research objective: What role can market segmentation play in sustainable tourism development in remote rural communities?

## 2.1 Tourism Development

The tourism industry is one of the world's greatest generators of income (Doan, 2000; Neto, 2003; Wahab, 1997). Tourism has become such a popular development phenomenon that authors compare it to neo-colonialism and Western exploitation (Hall & Tucker, 2004; Macleod, 2004; Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Nash, 1996). It gives countries the opportunity to develop economically from revenue generated by inbound foreign travellers. Consequently tourism has become an alternative source of economic growth for many nations (Macleod, 2004; Mbaiwa, 2005; Sreekumar & Parayil, 2002), outweighing traditional industries like agriculture and fishing. Governments perceive the economic benefit of tourism to be so great that their policies are aimed at continuing to stimulate this growth (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004; Neto, 2003; Wearing & Neil, 1999).

The tourism industry is an important source of employment (Neto, 2003:215). Governments have the opportunity to introduce tourism programs which benefit local communities economically, thereby increasing the standard of living of their people. The creation or modernisation of infrastructure and the need for people to service tourists creates a need for employment of locals. The community then benefits from the extra infrastructure needed to support tourism 'such as airports, roads, water and sewerage facilities, telecommunications and other public utilities' (Neto, 2003:215). Locals also have the opportunity to utilise the infrastructure which improves the efficiency of the production of other goods and services.

Although seen to be an economic saviour providing jobs and an increase in GDP, tourism can have disastrous economic effects on nations, especially in LDCs. Here, tourism relies heavily on foreign investment creating an excessive foreign dependency (Brohman, 1996; Timothy & Ioannides, 2002). With most of the investment coming from Western multinational companies, the revenue gained will flow back to these companies creating a huge economic leakage (Smith, 1989; Wearing & Neil, 1999). Additionally, the change in composition of the working population from traditional industries like fishing and agriculture to service-based tourism and hospitality industries, severely disturbs the community and its cultural identity (Macleod, 2004).

### ***2.1.1 Sustainable Tourism Development***

The last 30 years has seen the growth of a new type of tourism which is small in scale, independent and self-sustaining – entirely the opposite to the mass packaged tours made popular in the 20<sup>th</sup> Century. Hunter & Green note that ‘tourists are becoming more discerning, seeking activities, arrangements and experiences which depend, crucially, on a high-quality physical and cultural environment’ (1995:7). Additionally, Sofield (1991) points out that the prospect of encountering different cultures attracts tourists to different destinations. This tourism has been given many names; responsible tourism (Wheeller, 1991), ecotourism (Wearing & Neil, 1999), new tourism (Mowforth & Munt, 2003) and alternative tourism (Mieczkowski, 1995) to name a few. They all share a common interest in ensuring minimal impact and “sustainability”.

In 1987 an awareness of sustainability was brought to the forefront of tourism issues in the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) report *Our Common Future* (1987). Since then Redclift (1992) and Liu (2003) have recognised that defining sustainable development and sustainable tourism has been problematic and is entirely dependent on one’s disciplinary background, whether economic or sociological. Sustainable tourism defined by Bramwell and Lane (1993:2) encompasses both the need for economic and socio-cultural sustainability. They note that it is:

‘...an approach which involves working for the long-term viability and quality of both national and human resources. It is not anti-growth, but it acknowledges that there are limits to growth. Those limits will vary considerably from place to place, and according to management practices. It recognises that for many areas tourism was, is and will be an important form of development. It seeks to ensure that tourism developments are sustainable in the long term and wherever possible help in turn to sustain areas in which they operate. And, for good measure, sustainable tourism also aims to increase visitor satisfaction.’

Some authors acknowledge that sustainable tourism development has the potential to minimise negative impacts caused by conventional mass tourism (CMT) (Holden, 2003; Macleod, 2004; Wearing & Neil, 1999). CMT has been criticised for damaging society through the commodification of culture (Harrison, 1992; Mathieson & Wall, 1982). The culture of the destination is exposed to tourists through the display of religious and tribal

rituals or the selling of traditional arts and crafts through an increased interaction between locals and tourists. MacCannell (1973) has proposed that these cultural displays have the potential to become staged and lose their meaning for host populations.

Additionally, Valentine (1992) suggests that local communities begin to resent tourists who in many cases are more affluent than the local people. They have different religious and cultural backgrounds and portray a lack of respect for the local culture wearing offensive clothing or entering restricted religious sites. Young people in local communities begin to follow these displays, which is noted in the literature as the “demonstration effect” (Harrison, 1992; Macleod, 2004; Teo, 1994). This results in greater social problems such as crime, drugs and prostitution (Holden, 2000).

Macleod (2004) however, argues against the theory of cultural homogenisation. He concludes that the influx of many different cultural groups to an isolated community can increase awareness of diversity and the host community can ‘become increasingly aware of their individuality and group identity’ (2004:218). Lea (1993), found this to be the case in Bali where the Balinese have proved resilient in the face of CMT due to strong nationalism, religion and other social movements within society; this however is a rare case. In contrast the people of Goa, India have recognised the damage that CMT can do, erecting signs in airports that read ‘Our limited resources cannot be sacrificed to meet your lustful luxury demands’ (Lea, 1993:709).

Holden (2003) suggests that sustainable tourism is more compatible with the natural environment than the CMT that preceded it. Vegetation, animal habitats, and prime agricultural land made way for new infrastructure through deforestation which harmed the ecosystem and landscape. Neto (2003) recognises that impacts from tourism on the natural environment have a cyclic effect, in that years later these outcomes will then impact on tourism through effects like global warming.

Mowforth and Munt (2003) caution that sustainable tourism is not always an development appropriate solution. Sustainability is “socially and politically constructed’ and reflects the interests and values of those involved’ (Mowforth & Munt, 2003:18). Because the idea of sustainable tourism differs for different cultures, so too will development initiatives. Additionally Mowforth and Munt (2003) present the view that sustainability has become a



catchphrase for the middle classes in the First World to signify a new form of guilt free consumerism, which is merely a trendy alternative to mass consumption. Harrison (2004:21) questions whether it is achievable in the “real world”:

‘Tourism can indeed bring many benefits to Pacific islands, but sustainable tourism development needs to be carefully planned, efficiently organised and implemented, and consistently monitored. If this does not occur, the benefits may be short-lived and the price may be high.’

Tourism’s impacts that have been discussed are not only products of CMT. An emerging trend in the literature is that CMT can in fact be just as sustainable as small-scale, alternative forms of tourism like ecotourism and backpacker tourism (Butler, 1990; Cater, 1993; Macleod, 2004; Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Wheeler, 1991). Brandon (1993:134) has argued that ‘ecotourism has led to numerous problems rather than provide the substantial benefits that may have been intended’. The reason behind this is that the level of communication and contact between tourists and the host community is much greater (Cater, 1993; Macleod, 2004). If sustainability is about preservation of both the natural and cultural environments, then these authors would contend that CMT is comparable if not less harmful than alternative tourism. Despite these claims, we have seen a shift in the way we do tourism, especially in LDCs, to more responsible forms of tourism (Fennell, 2006; Holden, 2003; Hughes, 1995; Lea, 1993). Particularly as they are arguably sustainable and equitable tools that LDCs can use to ‘escape the confines of ‘underdevelopment’ (Mowforth & Munt, 2003: i).

### ***2.1.2 Development Theory and Inequality***

Mowforth and Munt (2003) note that the increasing popularity of alternative types of tourism have not resulted from the impacts of CMT but have occurred as a “natural” continuation of the historical inequalities between the First and Third World countries’ (2003:91). The debate on Tourism’s impacts has shifted from a Western foundation to being predominantly about sustainability in LDCs. The literature has seen an increase in research into tourism development in the Third World (Brohman, 1996; Cater, 1993; Doan, 2000; Harrison, 1992; Lea, 1988; Mowforth & Munt, 2003) and on small islands (Apostolopoulos & Gayle, 2002; Briguglio, Archer, Jafari & Wall, 1996; Britton & Clarke, 1987; Harrison, 2004; Macleod, 2002; Macleod, 2004; Sofield, 1991). It has been argued

that the impacts from tourism are more profound in LDCs as governments are keen to promote tourism and economic growth (Harrison, 1992) and it may be the case that it is easier to study these impacts on less developed areas that feel the effects to a greater extent.

Tourism in LDCs has become increasingly popular because of the high quality, unspoiled, natural environments found there (Cater, 1993; Place, 1995). Britton (1983) has argued that due to their low economic position, many LDCs are influenced in their decision about the direction of tourism that reinforces the dependency on and vulnerability to developed nations. Due to the lack of power and wealth, many decisions governing their future development are made elsewhere by other countries and multinational corporations (Wilkinson, 1997). Therefore, it appears that the impacts from tourism experienced by indigenous inhabitants in LDCs are more evident and harsher those in the developed world. This is supported by Wahab (1997) who notes that the impacts are due to lack of democracy and coordination, and their basic needs of money, food and shelter (short-term needs) conflict and override the needs of the environment and sustained culture (long-term needs).

To explore the issue of developing sustainable tourism in LDCs it is necessary to explore the concept of “development”. Van Doorn (1989) found that many authors define it to be the positive change of economic status attributed to Gross National Product (GNP), income per capita and employment, whereas others link it to the increase in social well being. Sofield (2003) has traced the history of governments in many nations around the world and their use of tourism as a tool for economic development. Since World War Two development has been viewed as a desired objective for many LDCs as they aspire to progress towards the economic standards found in the most advanced societies in the West (Sofield, 2003). Labelled “development theory”, the concept refers to the transformation of society via economic means and is applied by economists, sociologists, and anthropologists. LDCs in particular have been undergoing significant change in the last sixty years, trying to break free from the legacy of colonialism, a process that is unfamiliar to their counterparts in the West.

Different economic, social and cultural ideologies have been imposed upon LDCs throughout history. Mowforth and Munt (1998) and Nash (1996) present the idea that modern tourism is just an extension of - or advanced form of - post-colonialism which

means, similar if not worse impacts will come from modern tourism at a time when previous (colonial) impacts have not yet been resolved. The idea that tourism is a modern form of colonialism and a modern Western phenomenon (Wearing, 2001b) helps to resolve the argument presented by authors like Jenkins (1997) and Wahab (1997): that it is difficult to separate the impacts from tourism from the impacts of modernisation.

Development has traditionally been based on a Western model of what Hettne (1995) has described as the “modernization imperative”. Mowforth and Munt (2003) argue that LDCs have been forced to catch up with the West. Tourism is seen as a vehicle for this change but Sharpley (2002) argues that sustainable tourism can in fact be a barrier to development in LDCs. de Soto goes further to argue that LDCs are held back from developing ‘not because international globalization is failing but because developing... nations have been unable to ‘globalize’ capital within their own countries’ (2000:219). In a way, what has been witnessed is a rapid need for LDCs to cater to the needs of the Western tourist with ethics and values that are vastly different to their own.

‘In effect, environmentalism, modernisation theory and underdevelopment theory have converged. Much of what is now debated under the overall title of ‘globalisation’ theory is, in fact, a reworking of much older but still relevant concerns. It was therefore inevitable that questions would be raised about how far tourism—an increasingly popular *tool* for development—should or could be ‘sustainable’ or (less often) how it fitted into more comprehensive programmes of sustainable development, especially in less developed countries’ (Harrison, 2004:11-12).

### ***2.1.3 Tourism Ethics***

Holden (2003) and Lea (1993) suggest there has been a paradigm shift amongst tourists to more responsible forms of tourism. Tourists now live by a “conservation ethic” and are more concerned with the importance of the natural environment and fragility of cultures in LDCs (Mowforth & Munt, 2003). This ethic is still based on an anthropocentric worldview where the decline of natural resources will affect tourism and thus what it can do for the economy and society. A change in the way we view the environment to a more ecocentric view would mean that ‘tourism development would be restricted and the likelihood of denial of access to the areas of nature for tourism increased’ (Holden,

2003:105). This is seen as a real problem for LDCs by authors like Wheeler (1991) and Butcher (2006) who view the onset of alternative tourism as a step backward. Both argue that ecotourism/responsible tourism cannot be sustainable in developing countries which have relied on any form of tourism development, as the pace of development is much slower with smaller returns. Campbell (1999:536) supports this problem in LDCs because:

‘...it is perhaps unreasonable to expect that national planners interested in foreign exchange earnings will invest time and effort in insuring the goals of alternative ecotourism are met in such places. The size of the industry in general and the high rates of growth in ecotourism specifically suggest that, even when governments are interested, they will be unable to oversee development at all potential sites’.

Lea (1993) found this to be the case in Goa, India. A fraction of the local community attempted to keep CMT and resort development from occurring, especially so close to the shoreline, through campaigning and legal action in the late 1980s. Their efforts were stalled on several occasions by a government who saw the economic opportunities tourism would bring. Noronha (1999 cited in Fennell, 2006) also studied the impacts of tourism in Goa concluding that mismanagement and greed have dictated the levels of growth in the region.

Governments are blinded by the opportunity to gain a short-term economic fix. This is evident in Belize (Holden, 2000) and the province of Kerala in India (Sreekumar & Parayil, 2002) where long-term sustainable ecotourism is not seen as a viable option. In LDCs it is easy to see that the intentions of the government may conflict with society and other functions it serves, preferring to opt with CMT for economic benefits. With democracy not implemented in many of these nations, there is no other way to regulate and plan for tourism – ‘the role of the state is crucial’ (Harrison, 1992:28).

Government intervention has proved to be successful for sustaining the environments in Bhutan (Brunet, Bauer, Lacy & Tshering, 2001) even if the methods do seem autocratic. The method of restricting tourist numbers has been used in Bhutan to contain degradation to the natural and cultural environments. Central to their religious Buddhist teachings is the philosophy that the protection of the physical environment and its resources are of primary importance (Brunet et al., 2001). The Bhutanese government is ‘mindful of the by-products of consumerism in the form of deforestation, solid waste disposal, soil erosion and environmental... pollution’ (Brunet et al., 2001:257).

In the same way that sustainable development is socially constructed and unique to each cultural group, so are ethics. Different cultural groups will regard the environment as more important to their well being than others. 'Local communities in destinations are often assumed to be willing to employ a conservation ethic to the nature that surrounds them' (Holden, 2003:104) like in the case of Bhutan. However, LDCs are more intent on developing the economic sphere well before the protection of the natural environment.

It is suggested that sustainable forms of tourism would be better seen as a model to help problems inherent in CMT, not a replacement (Butler, 1990; Cohen, 1987). Nash (1996) has noted that it is difficult to discover whether tourism is the cause of negative impacts of development. The role of the Bhutanese government was twofold in minimising the effects of Western development. As well as imposing a limit on annual tourism arrivals they also stepped into the affairs of its people and banned television until 1999 in order for Western values to have minimal impact on the young people (Brunet et al., 2001).

Overdevelopment coupled with a new travel ethic has changed the way that tourists travel, where many now see alternative approaches to tourism as more ethical (Fennell, 2006). Some LDCs are looking to these alternative forms of tourism in order to achieve sustainable development.

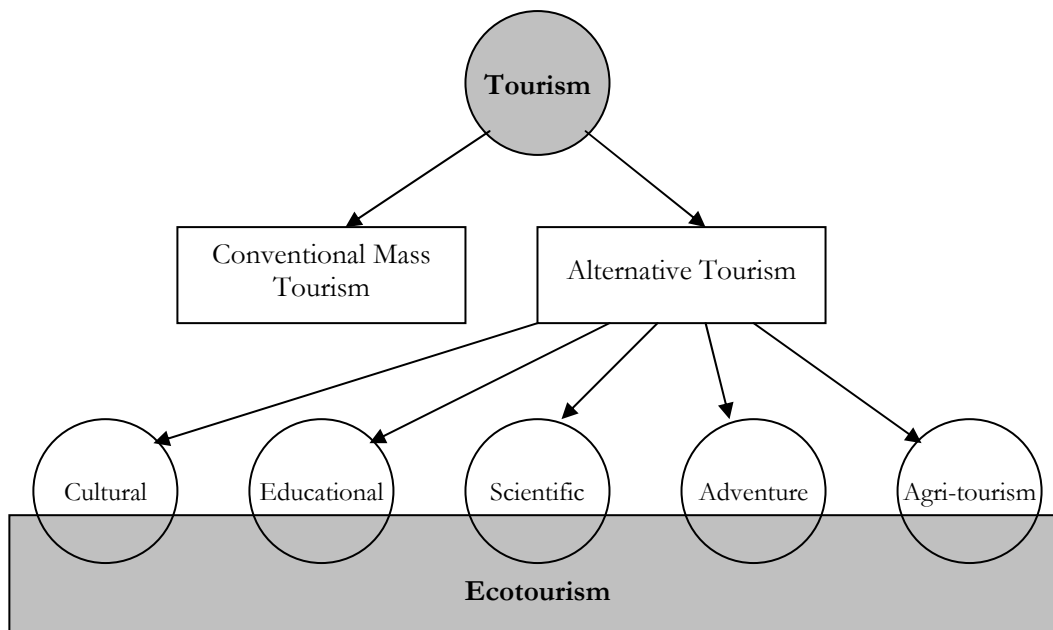
## **2.2 Alternative Tourism Market Segmentation**

Pearce (1992) notes that "new" forms of tourism began appearing in developing countries in the 1970s and early 1980s. They challenged traditional mass forms of tourism favoured by many nations and involve 'a quite specific attraction, be it a particular animal, mountain, cultural site, or people' (Dearden & Harron, 1994:82). These forms of tourism fall under the broad banner of 'Alternative Tourism' (AT). Eadington & Smith loosely define AT as 'forms of tourism that are consistent with natural, social, and community values and which allow both the hosts and guests to enjoy positive and worthwhile interaction and shared experiences' (1992:3).

Mieczkowski (1995) explains the relationship between AT and CMT in figure 2.1. His interpretation of AT separates cultural tourism and nature-based tourism / ecotourism. More recently ecotourism has been described as inclusive of the community and the

cultural environment (Wearing & Neil, 1999) and therefore the model has been adapted so that ecotourism incorporates cultural tourism.

**Figure 2.1 – Alternative Tourism**



Source: Adapted from Mieczkowski (1995:459)

The following section will provide a background of the alternative type of tourism that is common in LDCs today: ecotourism. Liu notes that ‘Tourism development is a dynamic process of matching tourism resources to the demands and preferences of actual or potential tourists’ (1994:21 cited in Liu, 2003). Therefore an exploration into types of tourists that undertake these forms of tourism will follow.

### ***2.2.1 Ecotourism***

It has been suggested that ecotourism is the fastest growing segment of tourism (Cater, 1993; Leal Filho, 1996; Neto, 2003). The literature poses a myriad of definitions for Ecotourism. The founder of the term Ceballos-Lascurain has defined it as ‘travelling [to] relatively undisturbed uncontaminated areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas’ (1991:25). Ecotourism is an interactive process between the supply (ecotourists) and the demand (natural environment) so that ecotourists and ecotourism operators are giving back to nature in the

form of conservation initiatives. Wearing & Neil (1999) recognise that ecotourism has four fundamental elements:

- Movement or travel to relatively undisturbed or protected natural areas
- Nature-based and can include the rehabilitation of degraded natural areas
- Conservation-led and contributes to a sustainable future with minimal impact on the physical, social and cultural environments
- Educational and provides interpretation of cultures and the environment to the ecotourists, industry operators and local communities

As these definitions suggest, ecotourism is not specific to one type of activity. Mieczkowski (1995) equates ecotourism to nature-based tourism and includes educational, scientific, adventure and agri-tourism. These activities can take place in any natural environment, but the destinations which are experiencing a boom in ecotourism are LDCs which have not yet been severely impacted by tourism development. Cater recognises that these 'last havens of unspoiled nature' (1993:85) are often found in LDCs.

The fact that ecotourism relies on undisturbed, natural environments gives LDC's a comparative advantage to capitalise on the rapidly growing ecotourism market. It is also recognised that this market is more environmentally conscientious and therefore the activities undertaken may well be beneficial to remote rural communities. These tourists are more willing to learn about nature and cultures they are visiting, support conservation initiatives and create minimal impacts to their surroundings (Wearing & Neil, 1999). This market will be explored in depth in section 2.3 however it is important to note that the term 'ecotourism' encompasses a variety of small-scale types of tourism, which differ slightly by the activities undertaken and may be dependent on the type of environment on offer.

#### *2.2.1.1 Ecotrekking*

One such activity that is thought to be low impact and offers benefits to local communities is ecotrekking. As an adventure and nature-based activity, trekking and its impact on communities has been investigated in the rugged mountain areas of Thailand and Nepal (Beedie & Hudson, 2003; see for example Cohen, 1989; Dearden & Harron, 1994; Holden

& Sparrowhawk, 2002; Nepal, 1999; 2002; Wearing et al., 2007). Trekking or hiking can be described as 'soft' or 'hard', the former involving less risk such as walking while the latter is more challenging enticing adventurers and risks takers (Loverseed, 1997). The activity is the most popular leisure and holiday activity in Europe (Lane 1999 cited in Kastenholz & Rodrigues, 2007) and can form the core of a tourism visit or an incidental activity. Therefore trekking can have an ecotourism focus, adventure motive or be classified under mountain tourism as it involves all three of these elements.

The growth of adventure tourism in the past ten years is closely related to the growth of all types of nature-based tourism. Adventure tourism has been likened to adventure and outdoor recreation (Hall, 1992; Sung, 2000). Buckley (2006) sees little distinction between the terms adventure tourism, ecotourism, nature tourism, outdoor recreation and outdoor education. Swarbrooke *et al.* note that adventure tourism can 'describe anything from taking a walk in the countryside to taking a flight in space!' (2003:4). Adventure tourism involves:

...a broad spectrum of outdoor touristic activities, often commercialised and involving an interaction with the natural environment away from the participant's home range and containing elements of risk; in which the outcome is influenced by the participant, setting, and management of the touristic experience (Hall, 1992:143).

Swarboke *et al.* (2003:4) have classified adventure tourism into four groups; physical, contact with nature, contact with cultures and journey. This typology suggests that the activities performed by adventure tourists may be reliant on nature and cultural contact, likening it to ecotourism. Consequently, ecotrekking borrows its activity from adventure tourism and its ethics from ecotourism (Buckley, 2007; Hill, 1995; Pomfret, 2006).

More recently, Beedie and Hudson (2003) have defined a new niche, that is 'mountain adventure tourism', as they indicate that the boundaries between mountaineering and tourism have become blurred. It can be classified as a branch of nature-based and adventure tourism that has grown in interest in the past fifteen years due to the popularity of diverse natural ecosystems and cultures (Mieczkowski, 1995). Tourism is an important economic source for mountain regions however, in LDCs mountain tourism can cause many more negative impacts than benefits. Apart from economic leakage (discussed previously in section 2.1), the natural environment is eroded to make way for trails and



lodges, disturbing the habitats of wildlife.

Many mountain regions have become World Heritage Sites and National Parks due to their relative inaccessibility. The nature of tourism in these areas is small scale and adventurous often including activities like trekking, camping, mountaineering and bird wildlife watching. The tourist seeks high quality natural environments particular to these regions and it is a more common practice to refer to this tourism as 'mountain **ecotourism**'. Nepal (2002:105) defines mountain ecotourism as:

Tourism that does not degrade the natural and cultural environment of mountain regions, provides economic, environmental, and social benefits to mountain communities (local residents), and offers a high-quality experience for visitors.

There are global examples of mountain communities and their conflicts with land use described by Mountain Agenda (Price, Wachs & Byers, 1999) as the park-and-people problem. Sustainable tourism through trekking in Northern Ethiopia's Simen Mountains National Park has been suggested by Hurni and Zeleke (1999) to be a favourable option for the community and environment. In an environment where 45% of the World Heritage Site is used for grazing and cultivation and a further 23% is made up of sheer cliff faces, little is left for the endangered wildlife. In 1996 annual visitors to the national park topped 1000 and only limited infrastructure is needed to support this activity.

Tourism is Madagascar's second largest industry after coffee production. However, in the mountain regions 'the promotion of tourism... interferes with the needs and interests of local communities, who derive their livelihoods from these areas' (Ramamonjisoa, 1999:24). Like Ethiopia, the local communities of central Madagascar need the land for agricultural purposes thus creating conflict between the local peoples and the park authorities. The situation in Madagascar appears to be managed well with participatory ecotourism being promoted and managed by a variety of stakeholders including the local community groups. Half of the revenue raised from tourism in the mountains goes to funding community projects, rice production and agroforestry on the periphery of the mountains (Ramamonjisoa, 1999).

These examples in Madagascar and Ethiopia describe largely underdeveloped tourism areas with minimal evidence of tourism's impact. In contrast, the most popular and developed

destination for mountain adventure tourism is Nepal. Tourism has skyrocketed since 1964, when only 20 trekkers made the journey to Everest base camp, to over 17,000 in 1996 (Nepal, 1999). 'In 2000, Nepalese authorities issued 300,000–350,000 trekking permits compared to 40,000 in 1987' (Nepal Tourism Board 2002 cited in Beedie & Hudson, 2003:637). The economic returns from this boom have ensured prosperity among the Sherpa population as well as a cash income for porters from outside the region and Tibetan traders. There is a large waste disposal problem along the trails to the base camp (Nepal, 1999). Additionally, Nepal (1999) notes that over 12% of the trails are severely degraded and although logging in the national park is prohibited, deforestation outside the park boundary is occurring due to an increasing demand for firewood.

These problems account for just a small percentage of the negative impacts in the mountain regions of LDCs. They are the reasons for the creation of organisations like The Mountain Institute (in 1972) and Mountain Agenda (in 1992) which promote natural resource conservation, sustainable development and cultural heritage in mountain regions, with an emphasis on community participation. Ecotrekking in these destinations is becoming increasingly popular as an activity which can give back to the community (Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002) and used to better plan and manage these attractions. It is also a type of tourism that is inclusive of the communities, which is discussed in the next section.

#### *2.2.1.2 Community-Based Ecotourism*

Brohman (1996), Krippendorf (1987), Hampton (2005), and Wearing and McDonald (2002) acknowledge that in the case of communities in LDCs, a new approach to tourism planning must be sought. Due to changing discourses on the role of rural and isolated communities and increased accessibility to economic resources, there are expanding opportunities for these communities to explore tourism as a business.

Traditionally, tourism operations were based on dominant Western-based models that treated the community as inferior and a means to be exploited. More recently operators have realised that the culture of the community is one of the primary tourist attractions and that they should participate in sustainable tourism planning (Williams, Singh & Schluter, 2001).

The origin of the term “community-based tourism” dates back to 1988 when Louis-Antoine Deroi acknowledged a type of tourism that fostered intercultural communication and understanding between hosts and guests. He described this as Alternative Community-Based Tourism (AT/CBT) (1988). In recent literature, the concepts of community-based tourism and ecotourism have merged so that community-based ecotourism (CBE) is now a primary focus of sustainable tourism practices (Jones, 2005; Kontogeorgopoulos, 2005; Scheyvens, 1999; 2002b). It is linked to a primary concern for the natural environment via conservation while at the same time the protection of the indigenous communities in areas where ecotourism is prevalent. For example in describing the management of mountain areas, Williams *et al.* note that there must be a ‘careful balance between the protection of these natural resources, the needs of local people, and the desires of tourists’ (2001:206).

CBE seeks to solve a number of issues in LDCs. Firstly, Scheyvens (2002b) discusses that communities are heterogeneous and do not have equal access to the involvement in tourism planning. This is supported by Tosun and Timothy (2003) who ascertain that traditional tourism has created heterogeneous communities and changed the power structures within them. Additionally, Wall (2007) laments tourism’s imposition on local communities with minimal consultation and involvement in development. CBE therefore aims to empower communities so that they can plan and manage their future (Sofield, 2003).

Secondly, communities lack the information, resources, training and power in relation to other stakeholders involved in tourism (McLaren 1998 in Scheyvens, 2002b; Wall, 2007). Therefore they are open to exploitation. CBT can assist in fostering an understanding between the industry and community and between the host and guest. Thirdly, tourism to LDCs has been criticised for creating economic leakage (discussed in section 2.1). CBE encourages economic revenue to stay within the destination as the community is more involved in all facets of planning and managing and there are less Western facilities required.

“Empowerment”, “participation” and “sustainable development” are terms that are part of the current discourse on development (Scheyvens, 2002b). Mowforth and Munt contest that the ‘relationships of power between local populations and the tourists, the governments, the industry, the NGOs and the supranational institutions produce effects

which reflect and promote the unequal development of visited populations' (2003:211). Consequently, participatory techniques have been developed to include locals in decision-making. "Participatory Rural Appraisal" (PRA) is one such technique that 'enables local people to make their own appraisal, analysis and plans' (Wearing, 2001a:398) for tourism. It ensures that all community groups participate in decision-making, project design and monitoring (Mukherjee, 1993).

There are several criticisms of empowerment and participatory techniques. Wearing and McDonald (2002) caution that "participation" and "empowerment" have become buzzwords and falsely ensure a successful project and the alleviation of poverty. The danger can be that participation 'serves to justify a project, rather than it truly creating an interpretative tool to be used by the communities' (Wearing & McDonald, 2002:202). Secondly, 'empowerment of communities for tourism development is more likely to occur in democratic countries than in dictatorships, military regimes, and centrally controlled economies' (Sofield, 2003:103). Furthermore, Sofield (2003) notes that tourism must be locally owned and planned so that decision-making is shared by all in the community. This then rules out a large proportion of LDCs in which tourism is often controlled by the state.

Finally, participation does not necessarily change the structures of power within a community (Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Taylor, 1995). In fact, as a Western construct, these techniques are usually led by First World professionals and therefore 'such approaches may not be appropriate for addressing the structural and long-term problems of community development' (Mowforth & Munt, 2003:220). In his study on CBE in Phuket, Kontogeorgopoulos (2005) found that often empowerment of individuals is obtained by forfeiting political and social empowerment of communities.

Nevertheless, as tourism is seen to play an important role in the construction of an LDC's national identity (Hampton, 2005), local participation in planning helps to foster that identity. Additionally, communities see their culture and heritage as an important attraction in their own right (Sofield, 1991). Tourists with varying needs and motivations for travel are attracted to these vastly different cultures and environments.

## 2.3 Tourism Typologies

The fact that sustainability is linked to being focused on people's needs and oriented to their demands seems to be consistent with sustaining the promise of need orientation for generations to come. This demand-oriented approach is going to be the guiding philosophy to develop responsible tourism that meets marketplace expectations. (Hassan, 2000:244)

Segmentation studies and tourist typologies are not only beneficial to the tourism industry for marketing purposes. With the increased importance of tourism for sustainable development, these techniques can be very useful for communities in their planning of tourism and can help avert the onset of negative impacts on local communities (Clifton & Benson, 2006; Silverberg et al., 1996). Wight (1993:64) has discovered that:

‘although there is a need to respond to market needs, motivations and preferences, response to these should be through more appropriate matching of markets with products (supply), both with respect to type and location of supply elements. It is important the elements of resources capability do not become secondary to actual or perceived market demand’.

Therefore, tourism typologies should match resource capabilities and more importantly, in terms of sustainable futures, they should match community needs.

Tourism planners and marketers have long used segmenting as a tool to differentiate their products and to understand their target markets. Traditionally, this has been based on a socio-demographic approach (Becken, Simmons & Frampton, 2003) where it was found that characteristics like age, gender and income could determine tourist behaviour. It wasn't until the 1970s that segmentation studies took a turn. This was an important era for the progression of studies on socio-psychological tourist typologies. Cohen (1972; 1979), Plog (1974) and Crompton (1979) found it necessary to classify tourists by their behaviour based on their motivations to travel and the experiences they were seeking.

Initially Cohen (1972) wrote about four tourist types: the organized mass tourist; the individual mass tourist; the explorer and; the drifter. These tourist types lay on a continuum of familiarity where the organized mass tourist preferred little contact with the host culture while at the other end the drifter preferred to become part of the host culture and rejected

any prior planning. This typology is useful for sustainable tourism studies because alternative tourism suggests a greater deal of contact with the host culture and natural environment.

Like Cohen (1972), Plog's (1974) allocentric-psychocentric model delved into tourist personality and behavioural characteristics. He identified two extremes of tourists; psychocentrics and allocentrics. The former was a self-inhibited traveller who preferred familiar settings and packaged tours much like Cohen's (1972) "organized mass tourist". On the other end of the spectrum, an allocentric was adventurous, independent and preferred travelling to novel, less tourist-developed areas, similar to the "drifter". This was an important study of its time and has helped to shape recent studies on market segmentation, particularly on the current backpacker phenomenon<sup>8</sup>.

Both Plog (1974) and Cohen's (1972) early studies have been criticized for being more sociological than psychological (Blamey & Braithwaite, 1997; Harrill & Potts, 2002). Towards the end of the decade, Crompton (1979) and Cohen (1979) segmented tourists based on their travel needs and experiences. Firstly, Crompton (1979) defined nine motivations for travel. These motivating factors were: escape from the mundane environment; exploration and evaluation of self; relaxation; prestige; regression; enhancement of kinship relations; social interaction; novelty and; education. The first 7 factors are what Crompton (1979) called 'push factors' and related to the needs arising from everyday life in the home region. The final two motivators or 'pull factors' were those triggered by the destination region.

Secondly, based on his earlier work, Cohen (1979) identified five modes of tourist experiences based on their quest of a "spiritual" centre. These were "the recreational mode", "the diversionary mode", "the experiential mode", "the experimental mode" and "the existential mode". The first tourist type – the recreationalist – likened tourism to other forms of mass entertainment which are not personally significant while the last – the "existential" tourist – was a polar opposite. He/She was more committed to his/her spiritual centre and had a desire to 'go native' (Cohen, 1979:190) suggesting that they travel to satisfy a higher order of needs.

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<sup>8</sup> See for example Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995) and Scheyvens (2002a).

The difference between the later two studies to those of Plog (1974) and Cohen (1972) is that they have segmented tourists psychologically based on their needs and motivations where they may exhibit more than one of these motivations. The earlier studies have generalised travel style and, as will be discovered in the following section, this generalisation is not helpful in defining alternative tourists, who exhibit a variety of travel preferences.

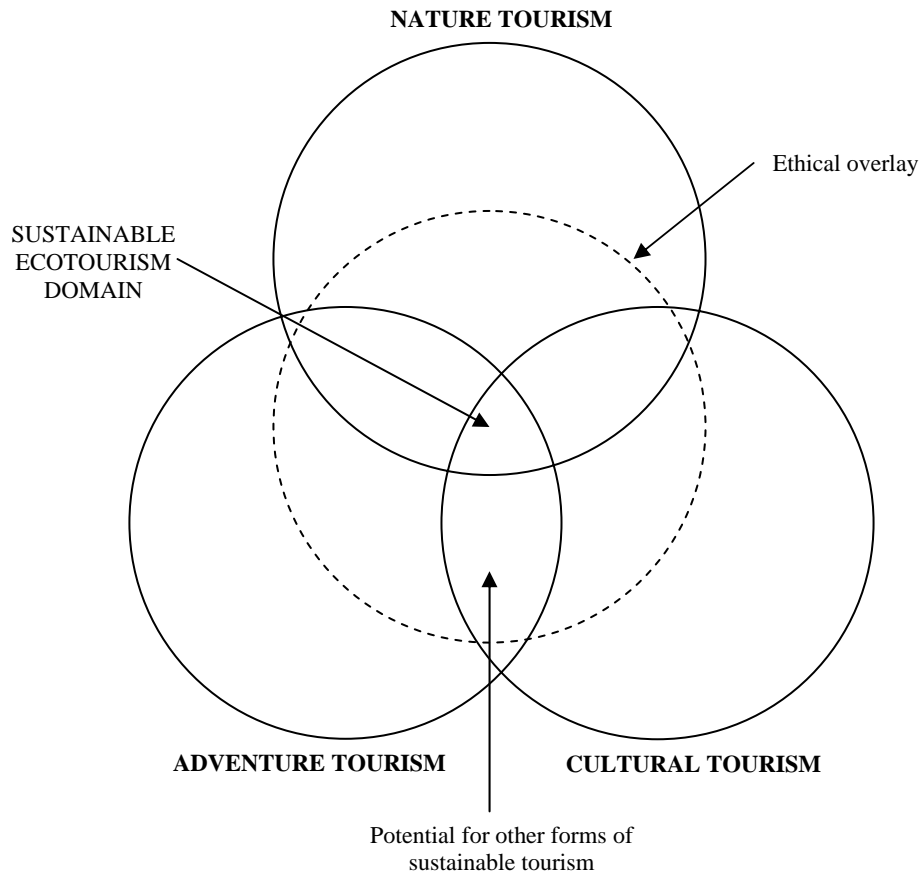
Swarbrooke *et al.* (2003) have noted that consumer behaviour has changed in the past two decades. 'A move towards healthier lifestyles, a heightened sensitivity to green issues and a more quality-conscious consumer' (Swarbrooke *et al.*, 2003:57-58) are just some of the changes which have been reflected in our holiday-taking behaviour. A new type of tourist has emerged (Hughes, 1995) primarily with an urge to escape from the mundane and explore. Therefore, what we have seen is a shift in the literature's focus on categorising all tourists to a more narrow segmentation of alternative tourists. Krippendorf has explained that this has implications for tourism marketers who will have 'to become more environmentally orientated and socially responsible' (1987:174).

### ***2.3.1 Ecotourist Profile***

Due to the phenomenal growth in AT, the most common tourist type studied in the past decade has been the ecotourist. Researchers have been curious to know what it is that sets the ecotourist apart from other tourist types. Wight has conducted market segment studies on Canadian ecotourists and explored the literature on ecotourism segmentation studies in order to compare characteristics such as demographics, motivation and product preferences (1996a; 1996b; 2001). A noteworthy conclusion she has drawn from these studies is that 'ecotourist markets are not homogenous' (Wight, 2001:37). Therefore, the methods cannot be accurately replicated or used to describe a population in another destination. This problem can be linked to the fact that the definition of ecotourism itself is broad and contested (referred to in section 2.2.1). Cater (1993), Holden (2000) and Mowforth & Munt (2003) believe that the term incorporates two groups; those who are environmentally conscious and those who are economically well endowed or 'egotourists' (Mowforth & Munt, 2003:122). Various other authors profile ecotourists by the destinations to which they travel, that is, natural settings (eg. Lindberg & Hawkins, 1993),

the activities they undertake (eg. Mehmetoglu, 2007; Wight, 1996a), or both of these combined (eg. Wall, 1993). The problem with identifying ecotourists in these ways is that their characteristics, like motivation, often overlap with other types of tourists. This is illustrated in figure 2.2 which shows that within ecotourism there are tourists with a need or motivation to travel for the nature, culture and adventure aspect.

**Figure 2.2 – Sustainable ecotourism motivational domain model**



Source: (Wight, 1993:61)

The most recent segmentation studies take socio-psychological approaches. These have been used to segment ecotourists (Blamey & Braithwaite, 1997; Hvenegaard, 2002; Kerstetter et al., 2004; Tao et al., 2004a; Tao et al., 2004b; Wight, 1996a), nature-based tourists (Mehmetoglu, 2007; Priskin, 2003; Silverberg et al., 1996), adventure travellers (Sung, 2000), trekkers (Dearden & Harron, 1994; Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002) and heritage tourists (Kerstetter, Confer & Graefe, 2001; Poria, Butler & Airey, 2004). The results of these studies overlap. A prominent theme being that these types of tourists are very difficult to homogenise because the activities they perform, behaviour and motivations



are destination specific (Wight, 2001). Therefore the results cannot be assumed equal for an entire international ecotourist population. The results of some of these studies have equated ecotourists to Cohen's "explorer" (1972) or "existential tourist" (1979) in that they are independent travellers concerned with the authenticity of the experience but still wanting a slight familiarity with home. This is mainly due to these types of tourism having become more accessible and available to all tourists.

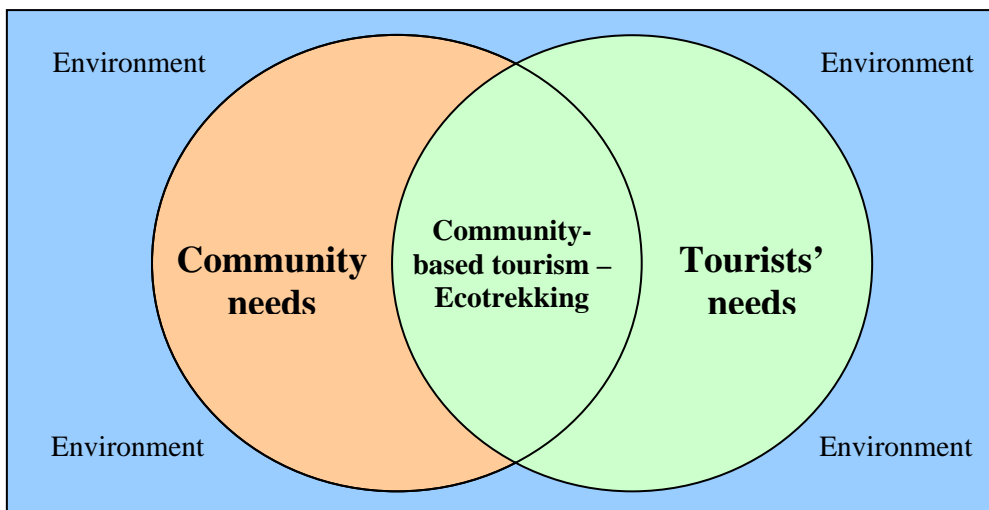
## **2.4 Summary**

Sustainable tourism was introduced in this chapter as a framework by which impacts from CMT in LDCs can be addressed. Sustainable tourism development in remote rural communities can come in many forms however it is usually small-scale. The potential benefits of alternative tourism in LDCs were established and it was noted that this form of tourism cannot take place without addressing the needs of the tourists and community. The most effective way to achieve this is through market segmentation in the case of the former and participatory techniques in the case of the latter.

The socio-psychological approach to market segmentation was presented in this chapter as a positive way to assist remote rural communities in LDCs. The needs of tourists can be matched to resource capabilities and more importantly to the needs of the community so that CBE can be realised. These concepts will be contextualised in this thesis through a case study of the Kokoda Track, PNG. The next chapter will outline the methods used in the case study to explore the needs of the KT communities and to understand the Kokoda tourist. The results of these methods will be presented in chapters 4 and 5.

### CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY

This thesis has employed a case study approach to examine how ecotrekking can be used as a foundation for development for the KT communities. Chapter 1 introduced the conceptual relationship that the study is based on; that is, that community-based tourism in the form of ecotrekking is the product of an overlying relationship between the needs of the community and those of the tourist (Figure 1.1 re-presented below). Chapter 2 established the foundation for empirical research where it was learnt that market segmentation approaches are an effective marketing tool and can be used to match resource capabilities and community needs in LDCs. It is the purpose of this chapter to introduce the methodological approaches employed to address the research questions.



This chapter will begin by outlining the research design used in this case study which employs both qualitative and empirical quantitative approaches. It will then focus on describing the quantitative research process including the sampling, instrumentation and data collection and analysis. Finally, comment will be made on the ethical considerations and methodological limitations in the research methods.

### 3.1 Case Study Research Design

The research questions posed in chapter 1 were:

1. What role can market segmentation play in sustainable tourism development in remote rural communities?
2. What outcomes do the Kokoda Track communities envisage for the future of tourism on the Kokoda Track?
3. Do Kokoda tourists meet the outcomes envisaged by the community?

The research design used in this study is that of a case study to determine how ecotrekking, as a form of CBT, can provide a foundation for development for remote rural communities in developing countries. Case studies have been described by Yin as being ‘an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and in which multiple sources of evidence are used’ (1994:13). Case studies often employ multiple research methods and can be exploratory, descriptive or explanatory (Yin, 2003). The case study used in this thesis explores the phenomenon of ecotrekking as a form of CBT on the KT. The case study will be presented at length in chapter 4. The multiple sources of evidence that will be investigated are secondary data from community workshops and primary results of tourist questionnaires. The respective approaches are depicted in table 3.1.

**Table 3.1 – Matrix framework**

	<b>Research question 1</b>	<b>Research question 2</b>	<b>Research question 3</b>
<b>Approach</b>	Quantitative – Market Segmentation	Secondary data	Qualitative
<b>Methods used</b>	Primary data collection through a survey instrument with statistical analysis	Reinterpretation of emergent themes from community workshops	Comparative analysis of the findings from questions 1 and 2
<b>Thesis chapter</b>	Chapter 5	Chapter 4	Chapter 6

Question 1 has been theoretically addressed in chapter 2 where it was established that market segmentation can assist rural remote communities in the planning of sustainable tourism. A quantitative market segmentation approach will be used to explore the Kokoda tourist market and the results will be presented in chapter 5.

Secondary data analysis of the results of community workshops and newspaper articles will be used in this study to ascertain the outcomes that the communities envisage for the future of tourism on the KT. This is the objective of research question 2 and will be presented in chapter 4. Finally, to address the third research question: ‘Do KT tourists meet the outcomes envisaged by the community?’, a comparison of the findings of questions 1 and 2 will be discussed in chapter 6.

### **3.2 Secondary Data Approach**

Case studies employ multiple research methods, one of which is the analysis of secondary data. Veal notes that ‘in undertaking research it is clearly wise to use existing information where possible, rather than embarking on expensive and time-consuming new information collection exercises’ (2006:147). Consequently, the first approach employed to address the second research question is a secondary data approach.

The process, which will be presented in chapter 4, is exploratory and reinterprets the notes of prior work conducted with the KT communities in 2004 and 2005 by the Kokoda Track Foundation (KTF). This work used the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) technique of social mapping<sup>9</sup>. Maalim (2006) applied PRA techniques to determine health needs and plan nursing services for a nomadic Somali community in Kenya. He notes that in PRA ‘the researcher is required to acknowledge and appreciate that the research participants have the necessary knowledge and skills to be partners in the whole research process’ (2006:178). This ensures that the process is run by the community who in most cases are the best source of information.

The PRA workshop notes and maps compiled by Shymko (2004) were reviewed as part of secondary data analysis. It was decided that only initial expectations and 5 year plans of all participating villages would be manually analysed to search for common ‘emergent themes’ (Veal, 2006:210) among villages. This was due to the second research question entailing a need to explore community outcomes for the future of tourism on the KT. To complement these results, newspaper articles and more recent NGO reports will be presented to explore current issues facing the communities on the KT.

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<sup>9</sup> The concept of social mapping will be described in the description of PRA research methods in chapter 4.

### 3.3 Quantitative Research Approach

Several theoretical approaches have been employed in the literature to profile ecotourists and heritage tourists. In the 1990s socio-demographic profiling (Fennell & Eagles, 1990; Silverberg et al., 1996) and trip profiling (Silverberg et al., 1996; Wight, 1996b) were common. However Fennell and Eagles (1990) recognised that an understanding of the motivations of ecotourists is essential to the development of strategies in ecotourism management.

Holden and Sparrowhawk (2002) note that like the meaning of ecotourism, there is no universal theoretical approach to understanding motivation. Consequently there is no agreed theoretical approach to understanding tourist motivation (Fodness 1994 in Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002). The most recent trend in segmentation studies is to profile ecotourists by psychographics or 'psychological concepts such as beliefs, values, attitudes, motives, needs, desires, commitments and so on' (Blamey & Braithwaite, 1997:31). The reason being that although the activities that ecotourists perform vary, their motives and attitudes are consistent (Tao et al., 2004a).

Psychographic studies involve surveying tourists by asking a series of attitudinal questions to determine their motives, preferences and feelings towards the destination and environment. Silverberg *et al.* (1996) and Poria *et al.* (2006) have come to the conclusion that psychographic research is appropriate to segment the nature-based travel market and heritage tourists respectively, where the results are useful for tourism marketers and planners. Furthermore, the results from ecotourism surveys in North America (Wight, 1996a), Thailand (Hvenegaard, 2002), and Taiwan (Tao et al., 2004b) show that there are similarities in motivations but in general, there is not only one type of ecotourist. The characteristics of the ecotourism market are also dependent on the destination and its attractions.

Within his research on ecotourists in Northern Thailand, Hvenegaard (2002) tested the validity of four typologies of ecotourists in ecotourism research. These were researcher-based, respondent-based, activity-based and motivation-based. As previously discussed, the activity-based typology will not be useful in this current study as there is only one activity performed on the KT. However the remaining three typologies will be valuable.

A researcher-based typology, used in most segmentation studies (Hvenegaard, 2002), is when the tourist types are pre-defined by the researcher. Ballantine and Eagles (1994) used this typology to define Canadian ecotourists. They developed specific criteria based on social travel motivations and travel attractions to distinguish them from general tourists. The ecotourist needed to respond 'very important' or 'somewhat important' to 'learning about nature' as a motivation and 'wilderness/undisturbed areas' as an attraction in planning and decision making.

Respondent-based typologies are those where the respondent chooses from a list of pre-determined options. Tao *et al.* (2004a; 2004b) used a similar approach called the 'self-defined' approach to split the sample into those who considered themselves to be 'ecotourists' and those that did not. Hvenegaard found that the results of the researcher-based and respondent-based typologies are strongly correlated which is significant for researchers who have limited time to only concentrate on one approach. Finally, the motivation-based produces less distinct patterns because 'tourists rarely travel for simplistic reasons' (Hvenegaard, 2002:15). However, this typology is the most common in market segmentation and has produced reliable results in several studies (see for example Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002).

### **3.4 Quantitative Research Process**

A questionnaire survey was employed to explore the characteristics of the Kokoda tourist between May and July 2007. A wide spectrum of studies was examined, all of which employed statistical methods of analysis, as these allow the sample to be grouped by certain travel characteristics. The significance of questionnaires to segmentation studies is that a wide range of characteristics of the user profile can be investigated that are not necessarily observable (Veal, 2006). Additionally, a comparison can be made between resulting segments and the statistical results can be compared with prior studies which have employed similar methods.

#### **3.4.1 Sample**

As the third research question aims to understand the tourist type on the KT, the sampling plan was designed to capture all trekkers (9196 – trekking permits issued by KTA (2006) 2001-2006) from the accredited tour operators' last six years in operation (see appendix 3

for full list). The distribution methods chosen were by e-mail contact from the company database and by tour operators distributing the questionnaire to trekkers post-trek. Due to privacy regulations the companies carried out all contact with past trekkers. It was estimated that the obliging tour operators had 80% of trekkers' e-mail contact details. As such, the sample representativeness was limited by this method and also had a self selection bias found in all questionnaire surveys (Veal, 2006).

Given the limitations identified above, all trekkers were given the opportunity to be involved in the study and, by inference, the sample can be regarded as being representative of the total population. Full questionnaire distribution details are described in section 3.4.4.

### ***3.4.2 Instrumentation***

A self-administered five-page questionnaire (appendix 6) was designed to gather as much information about the experience of the trek as possible. Socio-demographic and psychographic data was obtained through a series of closed and open-ended questions. The questionnaire was designed with the ultimate data analyses techniques in mind. 5-point Likert scale responses were used on many of the closed response questions to determine the level of agreement or disagreement with different propositions and the level of importance respondents attached to varying factors. The reason being that the answers can be quantified and averages can be obtained across the sample (Veal, 2006). These averages can then be compared across different groups within the sample.

#### *3.4.2.1 Pilot Study*

The questionnaire was redesigned after a pilot study (see appendix 4) was carried out over the trekking period from May to November, 2005. Veal notes that 'it is always advisable to carry out one or more pilot surveys before embarking on the main data collection exercise' (2006:276) as selected methods can be tested and altered if necessary. The pilot study was a small-scale segmentation study used by the KTF to incorporate in their strategic plan with trip motivation the only result used.

64 trekkers completed the self-administered questionnaire which was distributed by Warren Bartlett, CEO of the KTA and the completed questionnaires were posted back to the researcher. Six changes were made to the pilot questionnaire due to the survey being used

for a different purpose and as a result of comments made by tour operators and trekkers. Firstly, question 1 (*What was the initial reason for your choice to travel to the Kokoda Track?*) was changed from a single to multiple response question. Holden and Sparrowhawk (2002) have discussed that motivations are multivariate and dynamic. This was the case for six respondents (9%) in the pilot survey who ticked more than one response for their main reason for undertaking the trek, rendering them invalid. Secondly, all of the 4-point scales Likert scales were increased to 5-point scales to give trekkers the option to give a 'neutral' or 'unsure' response. Thirdly, two of the questions were not applicable to this study, namely 10b (*what was the standard of English spoken by the guides?*) and d (*did the guides have VHF radio?*), and were deleted. Fourthly, question 10 was changed to a question based on the tour operator and not the guide to distinguish if the service provided by the tour operator would affect respondents' satisfaction levels. Fifthly a question about employment status was added as a further means of socio-demographic segmentation. Finally, an open-ended question (*If there is anything else you would like the researcher to know in relation to your experience please use the space below*) was included at the end of the questionnaire as an opportunity for the respondents to comment on their experience.

### ***3.4.3 Profiling the Kokoda Tourist***

In the final questionnaire respondents were asked several questions to determine the characteristics of the tourists trekking the KT. Psychographic measures like trip characteristics, motivation, satisfaction, respondent-based measures and socio-demographic measures were used to profile the Kokoda tourist. This section explains these measures and why they were selected.

#### ***3.4.3.1 Psychographic Measures – Motivation and Satisfaction***

It was explored in chapter 2 that the examination of tourist motivation assists tourism planners in understanding the tourist experience. This aids in the management of destinations or attractions and the provision of better quality services. Motivation for travel was measured in two ways. The first was to ask respondents to indicate the most important reason for their initial decision to travel to the KT. They were given the option of choosing up to three responses from a list of nine, which were determined from several segmentation studies (Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002; Kretchman & Eagles, 1990;



Silverberg et al., 1996) and refined after the pilot study:

- To take a holiday
- To learn about Australian History
- To learn about Papua New Guinean culture
- To be surrounded by nature
- To discover a different culture/environment
- For a physical challenge
- For your own personal development
- To retrace personal family history
- Other \_\_\_\_\_

Wight (2001) notes that reasons for taking a trip differ from motivations which are more aligned to the needs of the tourists. Therefore a second question asked the respondents to rate the importance of 16 aspects in their decision to travel to the KT using a 5-point Likert scale (1= very important to 5= not at all important):

- Natural environment
- Type of activity
- Level of risk and adventure
- Experience that would be gained
- Knowledge that would be gained
- Experience of authentic elements
- Personal development
- Degree of emotional attachment
- Recreational experience
- PNG culture
- Going somewhere your friends haven't been
- Security
- Cost
- Accommodation type
- Food type
- Length of trek

These aspects were developed from a number of ecotourist segmentation studies (see for example Kerstetter et al., 2004; Kretchman & Eagles, 1990; Tao et al., 2004b), nature-based studies (Mehmetoglu, 2007; Silverberg et al., 1996), and heritage studies (Kerstetter et al., 2001; Poria et al., 2004) as it was discovered in chapter 2 that there is an overlap between all three.

Satisfaction is another measure by which tourism destination planners can assess the tourist experience (Foster, 1999; Fredman & Hörnsten, 2004; Harrison & Shaw, 2004). Dearden and Harron (1994:90) discovered a link between satisfaction and the importance of certain factors in trekkers' decisions to travel 'where satisfactions exceed expectations, it is likely

that sustainability will be ensured'. Therefore, two questions were set up, one to ask the respondents to rate the importance of certain aspects in their initial decision to travel as described previously, and the second to rate their satisfaction with those aspects (using a 5-point Likert scale: 1= very satisfied to 5= not at all satisfied). Ideally this would have taken place in a longitudinal study like that undertaken by Dearden and Harron (1994).

There were a further 4 measures of satisfaction tested. Firstly Dearden and Harron (1994) note that satisfaction can be determined by asking respondents if they would recommend the trek to others. Instead of asking this direct question, the respondent was asked if the experience has had a positive influence on their decision to return to PNG and to the KT. Harrison and Shaw (2004) hypothesised that there is a relationship between satisfaction and an intention to return although the results of their study did not support this. Secondly, Austin (2002) and de Rojas and Camarero (In Press) describe the usefulness of understanding the emotions of visitors when marketing and planning a destination. Therefore, this study looked at emotions of respondents once they had finished the trek by asking them to rate the degree to which they were happy, frustrated, anxious, fulfilled and upset on a 5-point Likert scale (1= very much so to 5= not at all).

Thirdly respondents were asked to rate the standard of service of the tour operator on a 5-point Likert scale (1= very good to 5= very poor) as Harrison and Shaw (2004) found this to be a correlating factor when assessing the satisfaction of museum visitors. Finally Oliver (1981) defined satisfaction as the gap between experience and prior expectations. This is usually a longitudinal method however respondents were asked two separate questions in this study. The first to rate their expected levels of difficulty, enjoyment, emotional change, physical change, knowledge gained and cultural interaction. This was followed by a question to rate the experienced levels of each aspect. Both were structured on a 5-point Likert scale (1= very high to 5= none).

Blamey and Braithwaite (1997) took a social values approach to segmenting the potential ecotourism market. This includes asking respondents to agree/disagree with a list of 17 items about world and community events to learn about their environmental attitudes. Although this method was not used directly in this study, values about the KT's resource capabilities were assessed. This was due to Dearden and Harron (1994) discussing the usefulness of looking at perceived impacts of trekking where excessive impacts could lead

to lower visitation levels. Additionally, Fredman & Hörnsten (2004) found that satisfaction levels can be effected by perceived crowding in national park tourism. Therefore the respondent was asked to give an approximate number of tourists per year that the KT is able to support without negative impacts arising. This was followed by a closed-response question to ascertain whether the respondent thought there should be a limit on the number of trekkers walking the Kokoda track each year.

#### *3.4.3.2 Respondent-based Measures*

In order to discover the type of tourist the respondent believed themselves to be, five categories were selected. Instead of asking respondents to choose the most applicable category, they were asked to respond to five statements based on a 5-point Likert scale (1= very much so to 5= not at all). These were:

- a. I prefer to look for the ECOTOURISM product first.
- b. I am very much an EXPLORER/ADVENTURE SEEKER in my travel style.
- c. I prefer to have my holiday itinerary ORGANISED and travel within a group.
- d. My main interest for travelling is to explore the INDIGENOUS/CULTURAL aspects of the destination.
- e. I am particularly interested in HISTORICAL/WAR TOURISM.

Respondent-based profiles were based on those that answered 'very much so' or 'somewhat' to the above statements. Therefore respondents can attribute their travel style to one or all of the five categories.

#### *3.4.3.3 Trip Profile and Socio-demographic Measures*

There were several measures used to determine the trip profile of the sample. These included travel characteristics and preferences. Travel characteristic were determined by the number of travelling companions of the respondent, prior travel experience (based on number of leisure trips per year) and the initial method of awareness of the KT. Travel preferences were based on two aspects that the Kokoda communities recognised to be important. These were accommodation and food. Respondents were asked to rate their general preference for types of accommodation whilst travelling and specific preference for

types of food on the KT on 5-point Likert scales. Additionally respondents were asked to rate their satisfaction of accommodation and food type on the KT on a 5-point Likert scale (1= very satisfied to 5= not at all satisfied).

The final part of the questionnaire was used to obtain socio-demographic information from the respondent. This has been an important component for segmentation studies which have found that tourist types can be predicted by age, gender, education and employment status (Kerstetter et al., 2004; Tao et al., 2004b; Wight, 1996a; 1996b). Five socio-demographic variables were employed. These were age, gender, highest education level, employment status and country of origin.

#### ***3.4.4 Data Collection***

The method of distributing the questionnaires in the pilot study through the KTA was deemed to be successful however for two reasons wasn't employed in this study. Firstly, the sample size was larger and would have required more time from the KTA and secondly, the researcher tried on several occasions to contact the KTA with little success. Therefore, the decision was made to go directly through the tour operators as the process would have been too costly for an independent researcher to make the trip to the KT and wait for trekking groups to finish.

Twenty two operators were contacted via email (a list can be found in appendix 3). They were sent the questionnaire with a letter describing the research (appendix 5) and were asked to distribute it to at least twenty of their clients post-trek. The tour operator response rate was low with confirmation from only 2 operators (after a follow-up email a fortnight later). One operator declined to assist and a further three were inaccessible. Therefore another method of distribution was sought. The questionnaire was put in an online format using *Survey Monkey*<sup>10</sup>. The remaining sixteen operators were then re-contacted via email and asked to email a hyperlink to this survey site to their clients. This method was seen to be more accessible for two operators. Finally, one operator combined both methods of distribution and sent the questionnaire in Adobe format via email to a mailing list of past trekkers who either faxed or posted the questionnaire back.

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<sup>10</sup> Survey Monkey is online survey design software which allows researchers to edit, collect and analyse responses ([www.surveymonkey.com](http://www.surveymonkey.com)).

These varying methods of distribution meant that it was impossible to calculate a response rate as the tour operators did not record the number of clients they gave/sent the questionnaire to.

### ***3.4.5 Data Analysis***

Once the questionnaires were returned, they were manually entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, version 15 (SPSS) for data analysis. Additional results completed via *Survey Monkey* were imported into this data file.

This thesis made use of descriptive and inferential statistics. The former is the most appropriate to understand certain phenomena and summarise patterns in the sample while the latter can be used to test whether patterns detected in the sample hold in the population (de Vaus, 1995).

There have been several descriptive methods of analysis employed in prior segmentation studies. These include univariate and bivariate methods (Eagles, 1992; Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002; Tao et al., 2004b; Wight, 1996b) to more complex multivariate methods which include the techniques of Factor and Cluster Analysis (Becken et al., 2003; Hvenegaard & Dearden, 1998; Silverberg et al., 1996; Zografos & Allcroft, 2007). Only univariate and bivariate methods were used to analyse the results in this study as the focus of this thesis was not to establish market segments (as multivariate methods aim to do), rather it was to describe the sample population and define the ecotrekker. Therefore the most important findings were the characteristics of the sample and any comparisons between predetermined groups in the sample

The univariate method of analysis included obtaining frequencies and/or means for all questions. This was the main method of analysis to determine the socio-demographic and trip profiles. The psychographic measures of motivation and satisfaction underwent bivariate analysis. Paired-sample t-tests were undertaken to determine the significant difference between mean responses for the questions of importance versus satisfaction as well as expectations versus experience. Chi-square tests were initially thought to be useful to compare the significance of group frequencies, however it was found with the majority of variables, that over 20% of the expected frequencies was less than 5, a reason to given

by Cramer (2000) not to use a Chi-square test.

All variables were compared across age groups and gender using cross-tabulations for nominal variables and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for scale variables to uncover any significant relationships. As the age groups were found to be unequally represented, equal variances for several questions could not be assumed and it was deemed more appropriate to recode the age groups into three (18-34, 35-54, 55+). Tests of significance were run at the 0.05 level because de Vaus (1995) asserts that small samples are likely to lead to a type II error<sup>11</sup> at the 0.01 level.

### **3.5 Comparative Research Approach**

The provision of a framework to respond to the third research question of this thesis required a comparative analysis of the findings of questions 1 and 2. This was to enable the needs of the tourists (question 1) to be matched to those of the community (question 2). Comparative research is usually an approach taken to analyse comparable variables or data between cases (Ragin, 1987). Although the results obtained in this thesis are of a different nature (both quantitative and qualitative), the key themes can be drawn out and compared, in order to enable an examination of how well the market segment can be matched with the communities needs. In this case the key quantitative results found in chapter 5 regarding the particular market segments and needs of the Kokoda tourists will be matched to the needs and expectations of the community found in chapter 4. A match between these variables will assist in discovering how well ecotrekking can provide a foundation for development in LDCs.

### **3.6 Methodological limitations**

There are three identified limitations in the research methods employed in this study. The first two are quantitative and the third is about secondary data sources. Firstly, the survey was designed to be given to trekkers immediately after they had completed the trek. This method of data collection was changed due to costs and time restraints associated with personally conducting the fieldwork on the KT and other reasons already explained in section 3.4.4. Therefore the reliability of results is low for questions requiring the trekkers to reflect on decisions made prior to undertaking the trek as the experiences were not fresh

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<sup>11</sup> Type II errors occur when the null hypothesis is accepted when it should be rejected.

in their minds. Additionally, the reliance on tour operators to distribute the questionnaire to an unknown number of trekkers meant that a response rate could not be calculated. It was found that there was a low operator response rate which may infer that only those who were seriously interested in sustainable tourism on the KT were willing to help. This could in turn reflect on the type of tourist that their organisation attracts.

Secondly, The KT is an ever changing environment. Recent mining initiatives by Frontier Resources which will be described in chapter 4 were not taken into account when designing the survey instrument. Upon reflection the trekkers could have been asked their opinions about mining and other extractive industries as these are the competing forms of development of ecotrekking.

Finally, a methodological limitation of using secondary data sources is that they are designed for other purposes and 'may not be ideal for the current project' (Veal, 2006:148). The PRA workshops conducted by the KTF were designed to produce results that would aid in formulating a strategic planning process for ecotrekking. The results are limiting in that the workshop participants were asked to focus on the development of ecotrekking and questions were not raised about alternative forms of development. Therefore community views which have been written in newspaper articles since the workshops were conducted have been presented.

### **3.7 Ethical Considerations**

The empirical research employed in this study followed the UTS Research Ethics Guidelines for Research involving humans. It was envisaged that no risk or harm would be experienced by research participants and they were assured anonymity and confidentiality (appendix 6). Contact details for honours supervisor Associate Professor Stephen Wearing and UTS Research Ethics Manager Susanna Gorman were specified on the questionnaire.

Questionnaires were mailed directly to the author ensuring maximum confidentiality. They were entered into the SPSS program and analysed by the author only. These questionnaires are currently being stored in a locked filing cabinet in the author's office with the electronic data file (password protected and saved to CD Rom) and are only accessible by the author and supervisor. They will be kept for up to five years after which time they will be destroyed in accordance with the UTS Records Management Policy.

The community workshops which were analysed as part of the secondary data approach were part of a larger study into Kokoda conducted by the KTF. Associate Professor Stephen Wearing, UTS, was one of the facilitators of the workshops. His work was conducted independently of the university.

### **3.8 Summary**

This chapter has reviewed the approaches employed in this thesis to explore the case study of the KT. These included secondary data analysis and quantitative market segmentation methods. The quantitative research processes was detailed to address the first research question, where it has was found in chapter 2 that market segmentation is an appropriate method to determine tourists' needs and match them with those of the community. The results of this method will be presented in chapter 5.

The following chapter will provide a background of the case study and report the results of PRA community workshops to address the second research question: 'What outcomes do the KT communities envisage for the future of tourism on the KT?'



## **CHAPTER IV. THE HOST – A CASE STUDY**

Papua New Guinea is a country that has developed its tourism around the image of unspoilt natural and cultural environments. It has a history based on Australian colonialism, Christian missionaries, international warfare and political instability resulting in civil unrest. As a consequence, tourism has both progressed slowly through VFR (visit friends or relatives) and heritage travel while more general travel has been discouraged due to lack of security.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide some background of the Kokoda Track, a popular tourist attraction in Papua New Guinea which attracts mainly two market segments called here “ecotourists” and “war tourists”. The chapter will then go on to discuss the results of Participatory Rural Appraisal techniques used with the KT communities. These results will assist in solving the second research objective: ‘What outcomes do the Kokoda Track communities envisage for the future of tourism on the Kokoda Track?’

#### 4.1 Papua New Guinea

Papua New Guinea (PNG) occupies the eastern half of the island of New Guinea and hundreds of offshore islands in the South Pacific just north of Australia (TRIP Consultants & Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu, 2007). 'It is dissected by a chain of mountains peaking at over 4000 m, which determine weather patterns, development levels, cultural identity' (Douglas, 1998:99), and a variety of pristine natural environments from tropical islands to thick, rugged jungles. Diversity is not only seen in the flora and fauna of the country but also in rich culture and traditions. There are over 860 languages and dialects (Grimes 1996 cited in Basu, 2000) and each indigenous group varies from the next. In 2000 PNG's national census revealed that less 15% of the population were urban dwellers and employed in the formal monetary sector (TRIP Consultants & Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu, 2007).

PNG is the largest economy in the sub-Oceania region which is based on the subsistence rural sector, supporting 85% of the population (TRIP Consultants & Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu, 2007). It is a country rich in natural resources including minerals, forests and fisheries but the extraction of minerals like oil, gold and copper has been exploitative and reserves are expected to exhaust in less than ten years (CountryWatch, 2006). Although PNG's economic state caused some observers to believe that the country was heading towards anarchy (McGeogh 1995 cited in Douglas, 1998) it has more recently been blamed on ineffective government leadership of long-term planning (Basu, 2000). The Government is now beginning to realise that PNG is overly dependent on non-renewable resources which could lead to a disastrous future.

According to the World Bank, PNG is classified as a middle-income developing country and ranked 139<sup>th</sup> on the human development index (HDI) (UNDP2006). The infrastructure has been poorly developed, there is limited skilled labour, poor quality public services, corruption and deteriorating law (Basu, 2000). Douglas (1998) reports that the national debt has reached US\$6 billion while the country is 'plagued by social, political, and environmental uncertainty and disruption' (Douglas, 1998:97).

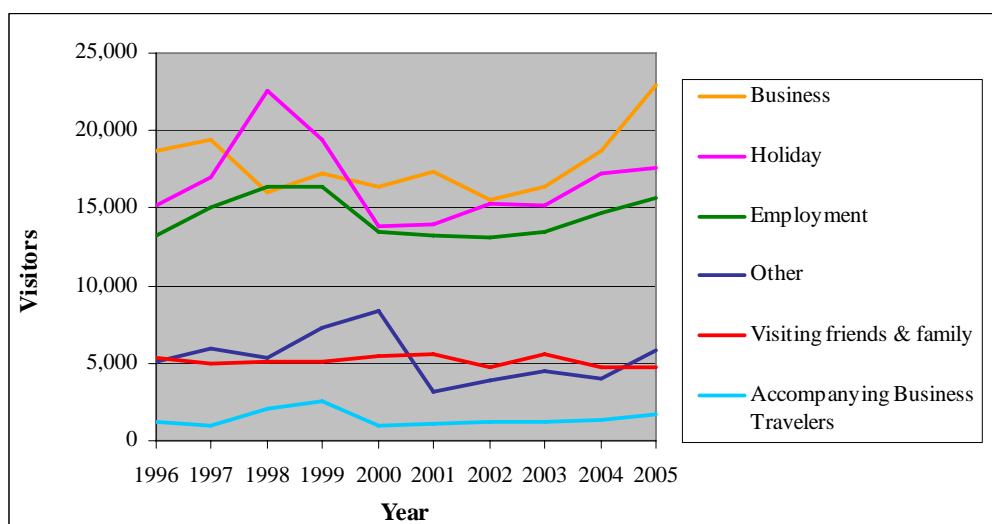
The PNG government has recognised the potential for tourism in the past three years despite the aforementioned social and economic problems. In 2004 a *Medium Term*

*Development Strategy (MTDS) 2005-2010* was released. This was followed by a National Government Tourism Policy released in 2005 and a Ministerial Committee on Tourism was set up in 2006 (TRIP Consultants & Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu, 2007).

#### 4.1.1 Tourism's role

Tourism in PNG is largely undeveloped. According to the PNG Tourism and Promotion Authority (TPA), there were approximately 70,000 visitors to PNG in 2005: of these, only about 18,000 were holiday visitors (Figure 4.1). Growth is slow and restricted by the cost associated with travelling to a remote destination as well as internal economic, social and political problems. Douglas (1997) equates tourism's status in PNG to being in the "development" stage of the tourism area life cycle<sup>12</sup>. Due to the colonial past and current political unrest in the country, it is likely to remain where it is for decades to come.

**Figure 4.1 – Total number of visitor (non-resident) arrivals by purpose to PNG**



Source: (National Statistical Office of Papua New Guinea, 2007)

Tourism growth does not adequately reflect the size of PNG's economy. In comparison to other South Pacific nations like Fiji, French Polynesia and Samoa, PNG is a poor tourism performer (Table 4.1), yet the potential for tourism is enormous (Levantis, 1998). This is attributed to the fact that the destruction of natural environments in the developing world has been prevalent and that 'parts of PNG offer possibly a last chance to see a passing

<sup>12</sup> Butler (1980) conceived the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) model which depicts the stages of development of tourism destinations. The first stage is 'exploration' followed by 'development' as tourism grows. After some time tourism development comes to a point of 'stagnation' where it can then follow a course of 'decline' or 'rejuvenation'.

world, untouched by technology no more powerful than the steel axe' (Bates, 1992:76). Tourism is now becoming an attractive alternative to traditional oil and agricultural industries as 'the country offers a wide range of attractions to travelers' (Milne, 1991:508). PNG's diverse geography has attracted niche activities like diving, trekking, fishing, surfing and special interest flora and fauna activities.

**Table 4.1 – Tourist arrivals in the South Pacific 1995 - 2001**

Year	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	%change 2000–2001
Cook Islands	48,500	48,819	49,964	48,628	55,599	72,994	74,575	2.2
Fiji	318,495	339,560	359,441	371,342	409,955	294,070	348,014	18.3
French Polynesia	172,129	163,774	180,440	188,933	210,800	240,450	227,658	5.3
Kiribati	3,318	3,940	4,925	5,450	4,695	4,578	4,831	0.2
New Caledonia	86,256	91,121	105,137	103,835	103,352	109,587	100,515	-8.3
Niue	2,161	1,522	2,041	1,736	1,778	2,010	2,069	2.9
<b>Papua New Guinea</b>	<b>32,578</b>	<b>61,215</b>	<b>66,143</b>	<b>67,465</b>	<b>67,357</b>	<b>58,429</b>	<b>54,280</b>	<b>-7.1</b>
Solomon Islands	11,795	11,217	15,894	13,229	17,395	5,753	3,418	-40.6
Tonga	29,520	26,642	26,162	27,132	30,883	37,694	32,386	-14.1
Tuvalu	920	1,039	1,029	1,077	770	1,504	976	-35.1
Vanuatu	43,721	46,123	49,605	52,100	50,746	57,360	53,203	-7.2
Samoa	67,954	73,155	67,960	77,926	85,124	87,688	88,263	0.7
Marshall Islands	5,500	6,116	6,254	5,727	4,622	-	5,246	-
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>822,847</b>	<b>874,273</b>	<b>931,849</b>	<b>964,680</b>	<b>1,043,076</b>	<b>977,363</b>	<b>990,188</b>	<b>1.3</b>

Source: Adapted from Harrison (2004:8)

The PNG Government is aware of the fact that tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors in the world economy. In November 2004, the government's MTDS 2005 - 2010 was released. For the first time, tourism was included as a central plank in export-driven economic growth, to be given equal footing with major industry sectors such as agriculture, forestry and fisheries. Additionally, the Government, through the Independent Consumer and Competition Commission (ICCC) PNG and the Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA), commissioned consultants to produce a *Tourism Sector Review and Master Plan (2007 – 2017)* which was completed at the end of 2006.

Extensive public consultation was undertaken in the process including several stakeholder workshops which were attended by over 400 participants from all over PNG. The report recognised that 'tourism offers a sustainable alternative to the traditional resource based industries of PNG and as such is an investment in the long-term economic, social and environmental welfare of the country' (TRIP Consultants & Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu, 2007:4). This was an important step by the Government and supports a prior argument

made by Harrison (1992) that while PNG is not yet a mass tourism destination, there is no urgency for rapid development. It could be the case that alternative forms of tourism will be sustainable. As PNG has a rich, almost untouched culture and heritage, with images of the Highland cultures flaunted by the tourism industry (Douglas, 1998), heritage tourism is perhaps one alternative to be promoted by the tourism authority.

## **4.2 Heritage Tourism**

Heritage tourism is a branch of alternative tourism which has been actively studied in the literature in recent years as a way to better manage heritage and historic sites (Chhabra, Healy & Sills, 2003; McCain & Ray, 2003; Poria, Butler & Airey, 2003; Poria et al., 2006; Uzzell, 1996). It has been defined in a variety of ways however the following encompasses the demand and supply of heritage tourism:

In terms of demand, heritage tourism is representative of many contemporary visitors' desire (hereafter, tourists) to directly experience and consume diverse past and present cultural landscapes, performances, foods, handicrafts, and participatory activities. On the supply side, heritage tourism is widely looked to as a tool for community economic development and is often actively promoted by local governments and private businesses. (Chhabra et al., 2003:703)

Heritage tourism is used interchangeably with historic tourism (Austin, 2002; Swarbrooke, 1994) and Chhabra *et al.* (2003) note that the quality of a heritage tourism experience is enhanced by authenticity. This pertains to a large number of heritage attractions like museums, festivals and places which hold symbolic meaning to tourists. One of these sites which attracts tourists who have a personal connection or go to find meaning in their lives is a site of warfare.

Waitt (2000 cited in Austin, 2002:447) notes that 'increasingly, visits to historical sites, including those that portray events associated with human suffering and mass death, have become a significant aspect of tourist visitation'. The flow of tourism on a national and global scale has been negatively impacted by terrorism and military coups and is studied in the literature (see for example Pizam & Mansfeld, 1996). The importance of war and its positive effect on tourism has been largely neglected as a cause for study. Wartime heritage attractions are an important form of tourism in Vietnam (Henderson, 2000), and Smith

(1996:248) notes that ‘despite the horrors of death and destruction... the memorabilia of warfare and allied products probably constitutes the largest single category of tourist attractions in the world’.

Douglas’ (1997) investigation of the tourism life cycle of Melanesian countries like Papua New Guinea and the Solomon Islands found that post-Pacific War, when the soldiers left, a tourism industry was born. In fact, ‘more than 50 years after the first troops sailed into the region, the relics of war and battle sites are still among the major attractions promoted by the tourism entrepreneurs’ (1997:10). Consequently a tourism pilgrimage has been established which attracts returned servicemen from America, Australian and New Zealand (Douglas, 1997).

War tourism has been termed ‘thanatourism’ which is ‘travel to a location wholly, or partially, motivated by the desire for actual or symbolic encounters with death’ (Seaton, 1996:240). Seaton (1999) argues that in its purest form it is only a minor type of tourism and exists alongside many other travel motivations with less fascination with death. An example of this can be seen on an annual basis with pilgrimages to war sites like Gallipoli, Turkey. In fact, it has become such a popular destination that it attracts all types of tourists from Australia and New Zealand who come to ‘gain a slightly better understanding of who they are and where they come from’ (Slade, 2003:780). An attraction which holds similar importance for Australians and is ‘along with Gallipoli, one of the most revered place names in Australian history’ (KTF, 2006:iii) is the Kokoda Track.

### **4.3 Kokoda Track**

The Kokoda Track<sup>13</sup> (KT) is PNG’s most iconic tourist attraction (Nelson, 2007) not far from the capital Port Moresby (see map in figure 4.2). It is a World War II battle site situated along 96km of rugged terrain in the south east Owen Stanley Ranges. Beginning at Kokoda village in the north, the KT passes through 16 different villages each with unique cultures, traditions and languages and ends at Ower’s Corner in the south<sup>14</sup>. It was estimated in 2006 that just over 2000 people live in these villages (White, 2006). After Gallipoli, the story of Kokoda is Australia’s ‘most compelling war story, [as it was] fought

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<sup>13</sup> There is a debate about the origin and name of the KT. ‘Track’ reflects the language of Australians who fought along it, and ‘Trail’ reflects the official name given to it (Commonwealth of Australia, 2007).

<sup>14</sup> The KT as we know it today is only 96km of the original ‘overland mail route’ which runs from Part Moresby in the south to Buna on the North East coast (Lindsay, 2002). The length and its endpoint differ from author to author.

by Australians [against the Japanese] on Australian territory in defence of Australia’ (Chan, 2005). It was remarkable in that ‘the Australians fought against overwhelming odds and forced the Japanese to contest every inch of the rugged and treacherous Kokoda Trail as they [the Japanese] advanced towards their objective of Port Moresby’ (KTF, 2004:11).

**Figure 4.2 – The Kokoda Track**



Source: [www.gfmer.ch/Medical\\_search/Countries/Papua.htm](http://www.gfmer.ch/Medical_search/Countries/Papua.htm) and [www.dcxp.com/kokoda2.html](http://www.dcxp.com/kokoda2.html)

Over the past decade tourism on the KT has been threatened by logging and mining companies. The most recent has been by Frontier Resources, a company which will begin mining the Mount Kodu copper deposit only 400m away from the southern part of the KT in 2015. They established that ‘10% of the track passed through the [mining] area and the landowners maintain it was their right to improve the lives of the people through mining’ (Asaeli, 2007). This will mean approximately 1% of the KT will need to be rerouted (Palan, 2007) decreasing its authenticity for those interested in Australian History.

A bigger problem will be the resultant pollution of waterways which is already occurring on the northern part of the KT (Marshall, 2007) and how this will impact on communities and the tourism industry. Although the mining does not begin for some years, it has been acknowledged that ‘the next battle at Kokoda is over how to manage the track so that its

historical, environmental and cultural significance is not lost' (Chan, 2005:30). This battle will involve the mining industry, landowners, NGOs and tourism operators. It is particularly important as the WWF has been lobbying and the Australian Government pledged \$15.9AUS million in late October 2007, to help the KT gain World Heritage status (Marshall, 2007), a position that will not be endorsed if the mining begins.

#### ***4.3.1 Tourism on the Kokoda***

The KT's history has shaped the type of tourism that has become popular: that of trekking through the rugged terrain like the diggers who won the battle over sixty years ago. Trekking for tourism began in the 1990s. The Kokoda "brand", that is the feelings, perceptions and values held about the KT by potential customers (trekkers) is now well established and is what sets the Track apart from other tourism destinations in PNG. There are now in excess of thirty tour operators<sup>15</sup> based in PNG and Australia that specialise in Kokoda trekking taking groups of between 5 and 50 trekkers for 5 to 12 days. Very few provisions have been made for tourists and all food is carried by the trekkers and porters. Some of the guides and all of the porters come from the local villages.

Chan (2005) has reported that tourist numbers along the KT have increased annually from only 100 in 1992 to 1600 in 2004. The reported figure has jumped to over 4,300 permits being granted to trekkers in 2007 (Lynn, 2007) (Table 4.2), however, the actual number of trekkers could be much higher due to persons undertaking the trek without valid permits (KTA, 2006). This growth will pose interesting questions for the government and greater implications for the local communities, where the future of tourism and sustainability of all environments depends on the success of the current planning and management. Clearly, the KT can act as a draw card for tourists to PNG and is an increasingly important source of tourism revenue in its own right.

The KT is an ideal destination for experiencing the nature, history and adventure/recreational aspect. The trekkers have a variety of motivations for undertaking the trek from personal development to learning about history and experiencing the natural environments (KTF, 2006). Chan notes that some of the numerous types of tourists that

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<sup>15</sup> 22 operators were acknowledged by the KTA (2006) to have been issued trekking permits in 2006 (refer to appendix 1). However, a number of small overseas operators purchase their permits directly from these operators and not the KTA.



visit the KT are ‘celebrities, the eco-tourists, the leadership teams and the corporate workshops’ (Chan, 2005:30).

**Table 4.2 – Trekking permits issued on the Kokoda Track**

Months Jan-Dec	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	Total
Permits	76	365	1074	1584	2374	3723	4300*	13496
% Increase from previous year	N/A	380.3	194.2	47.5	49.9	56.8	15.5+	7758

Source: Kokoda Track Authority (2006), \*2007 figures are to September only, and provided by Lynn (2007)

The Kokoda Track Foundation (KTF) has noted a number of threats to the KT environment which could hinder the development of tourism. These include mining, logging, gardening and hunting, health, trekker numbers and safety and security. As a result the current tourism strategy aims to promote the sustainable development of ecotrekking ‘as it will provide the primary source of income to support the planned socio-economic initiatives for villagers along the track’ (KTF, 2006:2). The strategic planning process was initiated by the KTF immediately following its formation in 2003. A three-phase approach to the development of a plan for sustainable tourism was adopted which included:

*Phase 1:* The formation of a multi-disciplined team and the conduct of a series of workshops to determine the needs and expectations of the key stakeholders.

*Phase 2:* The formation of a Steering Committee to oversee the development of the tourism strategy and the preparation of the terms of reference for the plan for sustainable tourism.

*Phase 3:* The preparation of a plan for sustainable tourism based on the outcomes of the workshops in Phase 1.

Phase one was a series of 4 workshops. The first was only for KTF directors, the third was for the operators and government agencies in PNG, while the other two were community workshops. Hampton (2005:754) recognises that ‘if “empowerment” of local people is to become more than just a buzzword or hopeful sentiment, it clearly requires the participation of local communities in partnership with the state, its agencies, and the large operators rather than being a passive “host” community that happens to have a major attraction on its doorstep’. For this reason the communities were involved in the planning process. Results of the community workshops will be presented in the following section.

### **4.3.2 PRA Methods**

Ecotrekking as a subcategory of Ecotourism offers a locus for the communities and tourism industry to develop a sustainable industry (Wearing & Chatterton, 2007). This is in spite of the current political situation in PNG and tourism's image of high risk (Levantis & Gani, 2000). It has proven to be the case in LDCs like Belize and India (Holden, 2000; Sreekumar & Parayil, 2002) that decisions about the future of tourism are made by the government. This could be problematic for the KT communities because 'while Papua New Guinea appears to have substantial assets upon which to base a prosperous and strong economy, its policy-making and implementation infrastructure and the basic rule of law, especially regarding respect for property rights, are major limitations in the country's development efforts' (CountryWatch, 2006:35).

The Kokoda Track Authority (KTA), a special authority of the Kokoda and Koiari local-level Government, was established in 2003 to facilitate and promote tourism development initiatives on the KT. They also collect and manage the revenue from fee paying trekkers and other sources for approved projects (KTA, 2006). However they are finding the issue of funding from the national Government problematic. Additionally, Lynn (2007) argues that 'the lack of an effective management system [in the KTA] poses a greater threat to the historical, environmental and cultural integrity of the track than either mining or logging'. Therefore the KTF, which is a non-profit organisation, was set up by operators and tourists to achieve similar outcomes as well as establish sustainable tourism on the KT.

On April 28 and 29 2004, the KTF sponsored community workshops in Efogi Village, half way along the KT, run by Dr Stephen Wearing, UTS and Mr. Paul Chatterton, WWF. Clan leaders from 13 villages were represented (a map of these villages is depicted in figure 4.3) while a separate women's group from Efogi were given a separate workshop<sup>16</sup>. Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) was used to establish a future direction for the KT through a process that allowed input and direction from the communities engaging in ecotrekking.

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<sup>16</sup> The structure of tribal culture in PNG is paternalistic where men are the decision makers and providers in the village. All representatives at the workshops were male hence the reason for including women in a separate workshop (KTF 2004).

Figure 4.3 – Villages on the Kokoda Track



Source: KTF (2006)

The main technique used in the PRA process was “social mapping” to facilitate communication across clans, cultures, languages and education levels’ (KTF, 2006:24). Mapping is where the villagers can identify spatial distances between villages and social amenities like roads, schools and health facilities (Maalim, 2006). The clan leaders were asked to map what they wanted to gain from the series of workshops. These were then placed in a line representing the KT as shown in figure 4.4.

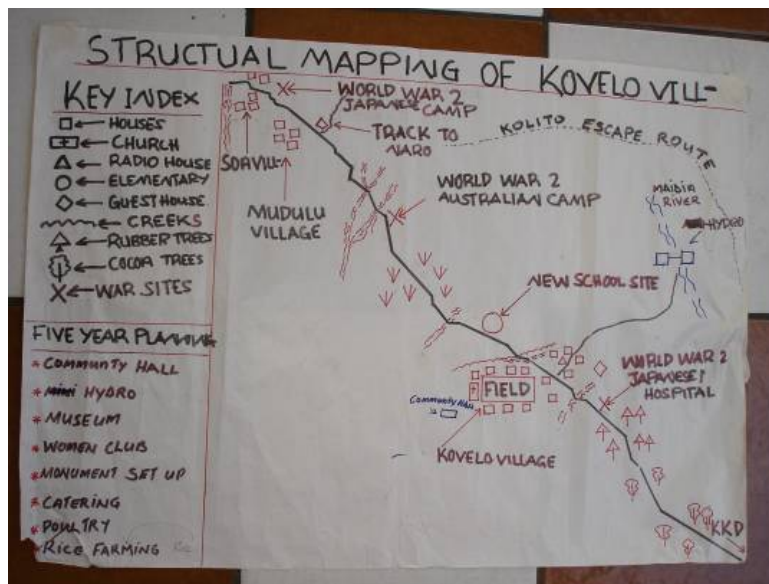
At the end of the two days, participants were then asked to map Kokoda tourism in a 5-year plan for their village (an example can be seen in figure 4.5). The results can be found in full in appendix 2. These plans were followed up in a second workshop held in Kokoda village July 15 and 16, 2005 to monitor and review the outcomes from the Efogi workshops.

Figure 4.4 – Social mapping of tourism by the KT communities



Source: Taken at the July, 2005 workshop held in Kokoda village (KTF, 2006).

Figure 4.5 – Map of Kovel Village 5-Year Plan.



Source: KTF (2006)

#### 4.3.2.1 Results of PRA

The level of infrastructure is very basic on the KT where villages lack medical and education facilities (White, 2006). It is unsurprising that the main issues that the communities expected to be solved or addressed during the two days of workshops were infrastructural. The water supply, radio and telecommunications and road and transport

were mapped as being important issues by five villages. Other infrastructure like schools, housing and community halls was important to seven separate villages. From a tourism point of view, four villages recognised tourism's influence on development and wanted more tourists to provide for the basic services. Four villages wanted to build or improve guesthouses, five wanted the tour operators to be land owners only while three supported the introduction of ecotourism and conservation.

The expectations of the communities indicate that the development of rudimentary services is essential for the KT. In studying community perceptions of tourism in the small community of Ostional, Costa Rica, Campbell discovered 'there is local support for an increase in tourism, although this reflects a desire for any form of development rather than convictions about its benefits' (1999:548). This can be dangerous in PNG as competition from other industries like mining may produce the development that the community requires without potential impacts being realised. Mining company Frontier Resources claims to have 100% backing by Kodu landowners who own about 10% of the KT. Over the last year the Kodu people have threatened to close the track if the Australian government 'interferes with their right to improve the lives of their people through the possible development of the Kodu Deposit' (Frontier Resources Ltd managing director Peter McNeil in Rheeney, 2007).

Twelve villages were involved in mapping a realistic five year plan at the end of the workshops. Again, basic infrastructure was common to all villages: ten discussed the improvement or development of water supplies and seven emphasised the need for medical facilities like hospitals or aid posts. Housing, schooling and roads and transport were the next most common items raised by four villages. Additionally, new facilities were presented that weren't discussed in the initial meeting. These included the development or upgrade of sports fields, bridges, airstrips and power supplies for lighting which were common to several villages.

The women of Efogi were involved in a separate workshop to discuss their needs and vision for the following five years. Tourists were the least of their priorities with cooking, cleaning, health and education at the top of the list. They did however acknowledge tourists due to the extra work that is needed to cater for them and the extra money that they get from cooking for tourists. They see their role in tourism as providing an important

source of income for the community if they learn to cook a greater variety of foods that the tourists will want to buy. As the diet on of the KT communities consists of ‘taro supplemented by coconut, sugar cane and occasionally, meat (pig, chicken and small game)’ (KTA, 2006:8), food would need to be flown in from Port Moresby.

Tourism was deemed to be the solution for all problems along the track with all villages agreeing that they wanted more tourists and good tourism<sup>17</sup>. All but one village (Launumu: which was not represented in the initial meeting) saw guesthouses to be important and achievable in the five year plan. KTA statistics show that tourism is increasing making the push for more guesthouses more feasible. Campbell cautioned that although *cabinas* (cabins) are an important source of income for the local community of Ostional, occupancy rates are very low and economically benefited only a small proportion of the community.

Kagi villagers were disgruntled as trekkers and operators often bypassed them which meant tourism was benefiting some communities and not others (KTF, 2006). Additionally, two years after the first workshops Kodu landowners wrote a letter to the Australian government requesting a stop to their interference in mining exploration. The community recognised that ‘the benefits mining would bring would far outweigh that of trekking which benefited track porters and guest houses but not the bulk of the people’ (AAP, 2006).

In the initial stages of the workshop, Abuari villages (a village near Alola bypassed by the KT shown in Figure 3.3) stated that what they wanted from the workshop was to know what the tourists wanted. Without this the community groups are planning for a tourism that may not eventuate. Especially as the KTA (2006:5) have noted that:

‘With the rapid influx of trekkers, there must be control measures introduced on the Track to preserve its integrity and that of the environment and communities. Measures must be taken to protect the environment from over-trekking, or logging and mining encroachments onto the Track environs. Such controls must be in conjunction with the local communities’

Yet, the local communities are developing guesthouses and cooking food when they are unsure this will be popular with tourists.

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<sup>17</sup> Sustainable tourism was recognised by the Kokoda communities as ‘good’ tourism (KTF 2004).

#### **4.4 Summary**

This chapter has provided a background of tourism in PNG and on the KT. Secondary sources (including newspaper articles detailing prospective mining initiatives and notes from the workshops conducted in Efogi and Kokoda Villages in 2004 and 2005 respectively) have been used to address the second research objective: What outcomes do the KT communities envisage for the future of tourism on the KT? It was found that a majority of the villages on the KT expect tourism, through guesthouses and the selling of food, to financially support community infrastructural projects.

To assess whether this will be viable it is imperative that the interests of the tourists are understood. The following chapter will report the results of the empirical research process described in chapter 3 and discuss the findings with reference to prior studies. Their needs will then be matched to those of the community which have been explored in this chapter.

## **CHAPTER V. THE GUEST**

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the survey instrument in order to profile the Kokoda tourist by socio-demographics, psychographics, and respondent-based typologies. This will address the first research question to understand the market segments currently trekking the KT. The significance of the results in each section will be discussed with reference to prior segmentation studies.



## 5.1 The Kokoda Tourist

Completed questionnaires were obtained from 137 trekkers; all but one were Australian. The data were then descriptively analysed using SPSS to provide a general profile of the Kokoda tourist. The descriptive results for each question can be found in appendix 7. This section will explore and discuss these results.

### 5.1.1 Socio-Demographic Profile

**Table 5.1 – Demographic profile**

<b>Age</b>	<b>Percent</b>
18-24	2.2
25-34	13.4
35-44	28.4
45-54	36.6
55-64	17.9
65 or older	1.5
<b>Gender</b>	
male	74.1
female	25.9
<b>Education</b>	
Below year 10	0.8
year 10	9.0
year 12	9.8
trade certificate	7.5
TAFE certificate	17.3
University degree	35.3
University masters/PHD	20.3
<b>Employment status</b>	
Home or family duties	2.3
Student	1.5
Full-time paid work	73.7
Part-time/casual paid work	6.0
Retired, not looking for work	4.5
Volunteer work	0.8
Other	11.3

The sample population of Kokoda tourists, tended to be male, middle to older aged, university educated and in full-time, paid employment (Table 5.1). These socio-demographic results are judged to be representative of the population as they are

comparable to those obtained in the pilot study<sup>18</sup>.

The age of the Kokoda tourist is consistent with North American ecotourist studies (2001) but much older than trekkers studied in Thailand, Nepal and Portugal (Dearden & Harron, 1992; Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002; Kastenzholz & Rodrigues, 2007). Swarbrooke *et al.* (2003:61) also note that the younger market is not frequently represented in adventure operators' profile of clients as they are 'less inclined to participate in packaged adventure holidays due to the high cost'. However, Holden and Sparrowhawk note that 'the arduous nature of the terrain and the basic accommodation conditions' involved in trekking in Nepal lends itself to a younger market (2002:439). This suggests that the Kokoda tourist is more than just a trekker. A closer correlation can be made with heritage tourists where de Rojas and Camarero (In Press), Kerstetter *et al.* (2001) and Prentice (1998) found that they are 'middle aged' even though the majority of Poria's *et al.* (2006) sample was between the ages of 20-29.

Wight (2001) discovered that in most ecotourist segmentation studies, the gender balance was quite equal or slightly dominated by women leading to a "feminisation" of the market. This is supported by trekker and heritage tourist segmentation studies (de Rojas & Camarero, In Press; Dearden & Harron, 1992; Harrison & Shaw, 2004; Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002; Kastenzholz & Rodrigues, 2007; Poria *et al.*, 2006). Swarbrooke *et al.* (2003) discuss that male adventure tourists tend to prefer "hard" adventure activities while females much prefer "soft" adventure. With this in mind it can be argued that trekking falls in the category of hard adventure tourism as the majority of this sample is male. Silverberg *et al.* (1996) found that 79.8% of their sample of 327 nature-based travellers were male which was representative of their population and very similar to the results of this study.

Over half of the sample is university educated which is consistent with the majority of studies segmenting ecotourists (Ballantine & Eagles, 1994; Wight, 2001) and heritage tourists (de Rojas & Camarero, in press 2007; Kerstetter *et al.*, 2001). Type of employment is a commonly tested variable with Silverberg *et al.* (1996) finding nature-based tourists to hold white-collared jobs and Holden and Sparrowhawk (2002) discovering that over 60% of trekkers were either employed in a professional or managerial capacity. This study asked

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<sup>18</sup> Results of the pilot study determined that the Kokoda tourist was male (81%), 45-59 (33.3%) and university educated (51.6%). These are the only results available for the socio-demographic profile of KT trekkers.

for the level of employment rather than the type of job and found that a large proportion were in full-time, paid employment which can be linked to the segmentation studies discussed.

This demographic profile suggests that the Kokoda tourist is quite dissimilar to a trekker due to age differences and is also dissimilar to ecotourists and heritage tourists due to gender differences. A complete comparison cannot be made with all prior ecotourism studies as their results vary substantially, particularly as the activities performed vary. The demographic profile appears to align itself to the population that historically undertook the trek: That is the World War II diggers. The sample is male dominated and much older which could be due to a personal connection they have to the KT or a particular interest in war. This will be discovered further in the psychographic typologies.

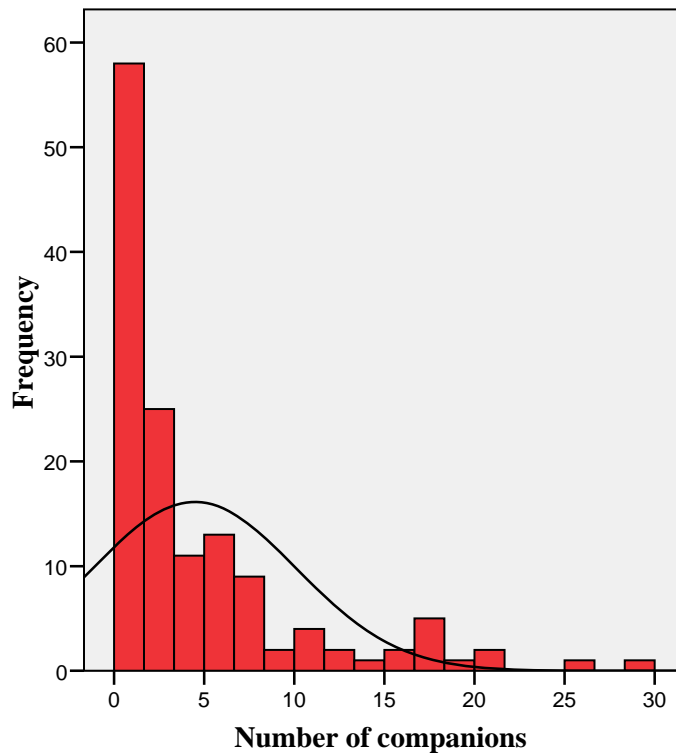
### ***5.1.2 Trip Profile***

#### *5.1.2.1 Travel Characteristics*

Generally ecotourism studies have found that party composition is small with none or one travelling companion (Wight, 2001). The results of this study found that just under half (42.3%) of the sample travelled alone or with one other and is a similar figure to heritage tourists that visit the Anne Frank House (Poria et al., 2006). The median number of travelling companions of the Kokoda tourist is 2 with the response ranging from none to 30 (Figure 5.1).

A very small percentage of the sample (7.3%) had previously undertaken the Kokoda trek and all of those were over 45 years of age. Over half of the sample (57%) are seasoned travellers taking two or more leisure trips a year, which was also found to be the case for nature-based travellers (Silverberg et al., 1996). The first source of information about the KT came from family and friends (43.3%) followed by books (19.4%) and television (17.2%). Word of mouth has been found to be the primary source of information in many ecotourism segmentation studies (Kastenholz & Rodrigues, 2007; Silverberg et al., 1996). Finally, the fitness level of the Kokoda tourist is high with three quarters of the sample describing themselves as “very fit” or “quite fit”.

**Figure 5.1 – Histogram of travelling companions**



*5.1.2.2 Travel Preferences*

It was discovered in chapter 3 that the communities along the KT have felt they should provide accommodation and food to satisfy tourists and encourage their return. Wight discovered that ecotourists do not prefer conventional accommodation like hotels and motels. Instead they ‘desire more rustic, intimate, adventure-type roofed accommodation (such as bead and breakfasts, cabins, lodges, inns)’ (Wight, 2001:48). This would suggest that the guesthouses that the communities are planning to build and improve would be successful. The results of this study contradict Wight’s finding: the Kokoda tourist prefers 2-4 star hotels and motels (Table 5.2).

The preference for 2-4 star hotels was found to significantly increase with age ( $p=0.041$ ) and to be more important to males ( $p=0.025$ ). As the average age of the sample is in the 45-54 category it is unsurprising that the least preferred type of accommodation is backpacker lodgings. Lodges and bush huts, like those proposed for upgrading or development by the community, are ranked fifth and sixth in importance and are

significantly less important to the Kokoda tourist in comparison to hotels and motels<sup>19</sup>. This is surprising as when respondents were asked how satisfied they were with accommodation type on the KT, 89% of the sample was either “very satisfied” or “satisfied”.

**Table 5.2 – Accommodation preference**

Accommodation	Mean*	% of sample answering ‘very important’ or ‘important’
2-4 star hotel	2.7	52.3
Motel	2.9	36.7
5 star resort	2.9	41.1
Tent/Camping	3.0	38
Lodge (services)	3.1	27.6
Bush Hut (no services)	3.3	19.8
Backpacker lodgings	3.8	5.6

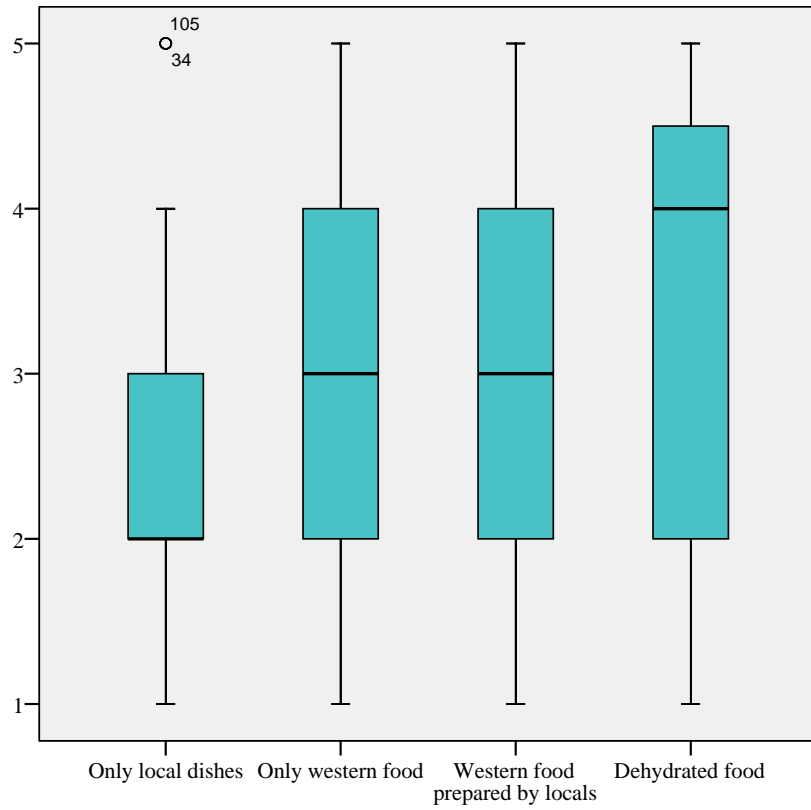
\*1= very important, 5= not at all important

Food type was the most important issue discussed by the women of Efogi village (refer to chapter 3). They see their role in tourism as providers of food for tourists. The Kokoda tourist showed a statistically significant preference for local dishes (mean= 2.47) (Figure 5.2) over Western food, (mean= 3.03,  $p=0.000$ ), Western food prepared by locals (mean= 2.93,  $p= 0.002$ ) and dehydrated food (mean= 3.47,  $p= 0.000$ ). This preference was not found to be significantly different across age groups however when compared with females, males much preferred to eat dehydrated food ( $p=0.043$ ) with less preference for local dishes ( $p=0.009$ ).

Again, like accommodation, the satisfaction with food type was examined. Results showed that 79.4% of the sample was “very satisfied” or “satisfied” with the food provided. The sample’s satisfaction with food on the track was found to significantly decrease with age ( $p=0.003$ ) (Figure 5.3) however no age group exhibited a preference for a particular type of food over another.

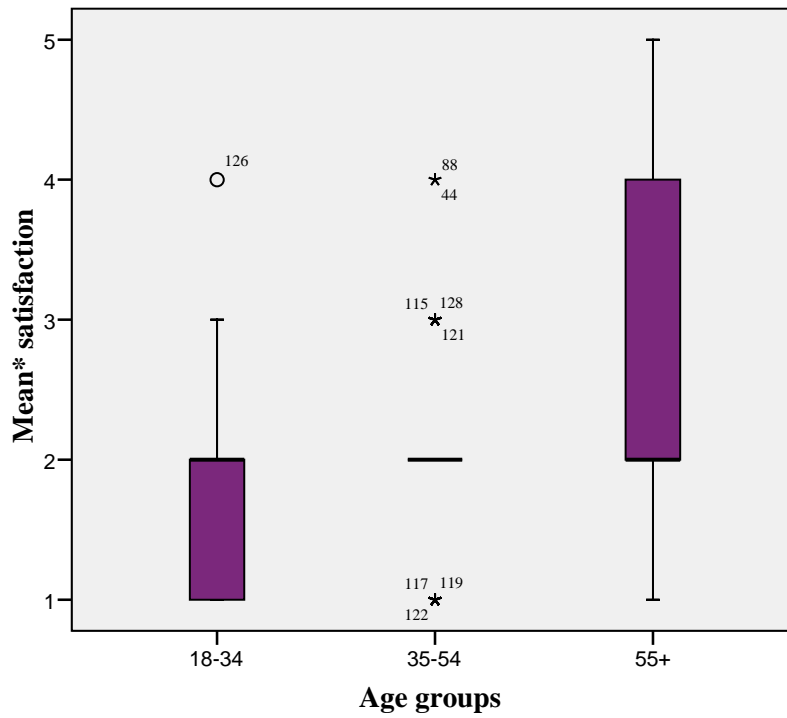
<sup>19</sup> A paired-samples t-test found a significant difference between the mean of importance of bush hut and motel ( $p= 0.002$ ), bush hut and 2-4 star hotel ( $p= 0.000$ ) and lodge and 2-4 star hotel ( $p= 0.001$ ).

**Figure 5.2 – Food preference**



Note: y-axis depicts Likert scale scores: 1= very much so to 5= not at all

**Figure 5.3 – Satisfaction of food**



\*1= very satisfied, 5= not at all satisfied

### 5.1.3 Psychographic Profile

#### 5.1.3.1 Motivation

The most popular reason for travelling to the KT was “for a physical challenge” followed by “to learn about Australian history” (Table 5.3). Wight (2001) notes that the primary reasons given in several ecotourism studies revolve around experiencing elements of nature. Additionally, Holden and Sparrowhawk found that trekkers in the Annapurna region of Nepal are ‘predisposed to fulfilling their needs through the medium of nature’ (2002:445). This was found to be the least popular reason for travel to the KT which suggests that the Kokoda tourist is more aligned to an adventure traveller or heritage tourist.

**Table 5.3 – Reasons given for visit**

Reason for visit	N	% of sample*
For a physical challenge	106	78.5
To learn about Australian History	90	66.6
For your own personal development	60	44.4
To discover a different culture/environment	35	25.9
To retrace personal family history	29	21.5
To learn about Papua New Guinean culture	21	15.6
To take a holiday	17	12.6
Other	10	7.4
To be surrounded by nature	8	5.9

\* Respondents could choose up to three of the options

The second measurement of motivation: assessing the importance of certain aspects in the decision to travel, found that the experience, activity and knowledge were the main motivators (Table 5.4). On an individual basis, the 16 criteria were seen to be “very important” or “important” by over half of the sample. This is a quite significant result and aligns itself to Holden and Sparrowhawk’s (2002) profile of trekkers in Nepal, which also tested motivations for travel based on respondents answering “very important” or “important” to a number of aspects. Here they found that 87% of their sample wanted “to feel close to nature”, 61% wanted to increase their knowledge of the natural environment and 60% “to challenge their abilities”. They assumed that the activity of trekking would have a high demand for thrills and excitement and tested risk as a motivation factor. Their results contrasted the results found in this study where only 22% of their sample rated risk

as “very important” or “important” (Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002). As their sample is only slightly male dominated this result could be put down to the fact that their sample is more of a “soft” adventurer whereas trekking on the KT is considered a ‘hard’ adventure activity.

**Table 5.4 – Importance of aspects influencing travel motivation**

Motivation	Mean*	Rank	% of sample answering ‘very important’ or ‘important’
Experience that would be gained	1.46	1	93.4
Type of activity	1.60	2	92.6
Knowledge that would be gained	1.61	3	92.6
Experience of authentic elements	1.87	4	83.0
Level of risk and adventure	1.92	5	82.5
Personal development	1.93	6	77.9
Natural environment	1.99	7	83.1
Degree of emotional attachment	2.29	8	62.7
PNG culture	2.43	9	58.4
Recreational experience	2.58	10	58.8
Length of trek	3.20	11	40.4
Security	3.29	12	29.2
Cost	3.47	13	24.3
Food type	3.71	14	16.9
Accommodation type	3.90	15	10.2
Going somewhere your friends haven't	3.91	16	19.1

\* 1= very important, 5= not at all important

The top seven aspects are shaded grey because their mean response is less than 2 which means the aspects are more than “important” to the sample.

The results of Dearden and Harron’s (1994:94) study suggested that ‘the trekking clientele is moving away from a concern with the authenticity of the hilltribes *per se* to a concern with the overall authenticity of the experience itself, with an emphasis on the recreational aspect’. This has been proved to be the case for the Kokoda tourist, with authenticity fifth most important and PNG culture at tenth.

The aspect of personal development which is ranked sixth (and third most popular reason for visit) is a motive that is not explored in ecotourist segmentation studies. It is a motive found to be prominent in another form of alternative tourism; volunteer tourism (see for example Brown & Lehto, 2005). The popularity of this motive as well as “the experience that will be gained” suggests that the needs of the Kokoda tourist are much higher in the



hierarchy of needs proposed by Maslow<sup>20</sup> (1954) and are aligned with Plog's (1974) "allocentric", who tends to choose remote destinations for adventure reasons.

Uzzell (1996) discovered that the same historic location (battlefield) will be visited for a variety of reasons by different generations. Therefore these motivations were compared across age groups. The only statistically significant results were that personal development ( $p=0.019$ ) and the PNG culture ( $p=0.009$ ) became less important with age. There were significant differences when comparing these aspects across genders with males finding several aspects less important in their decision to travel including the PNG culture ( $p=0.001$ ), security ( $p=0.003$ ), cost ( $p=0.006$ ) and food type ( $p=0.041$ ). As the Kokoda tourist is middle to older aged these results have important ramifications. They appear to be not as motivated to travel for cultural reasons indicating that the KT could be situated in any mountainous region in the world.

Crompton (1979) noted that a primary aspect of travel motivation is the lack of constraints. The results show that 38.7% of the sample had one or more constraints. Of these, 20% had study/work/family commitments while 15.4% were worried about their fitness level. Neither of these constraints can be addressed by the KT communities.

### 5.1.3.2 Satisfaction

Dearden and Harron (1994:90) note that 'a critical element in assessing future sustainability of trekking is the satisfaction of trekkers with the experience'. Five measures were used to determine satisfaction. Firstly, the graph in figure 5.4 has been adapted from Dearden and Harron's (1994) study and shows that the Kokoda tourist has high motivation and high satisfaction with ten factors and low motivation but high satisfaction with six factors.

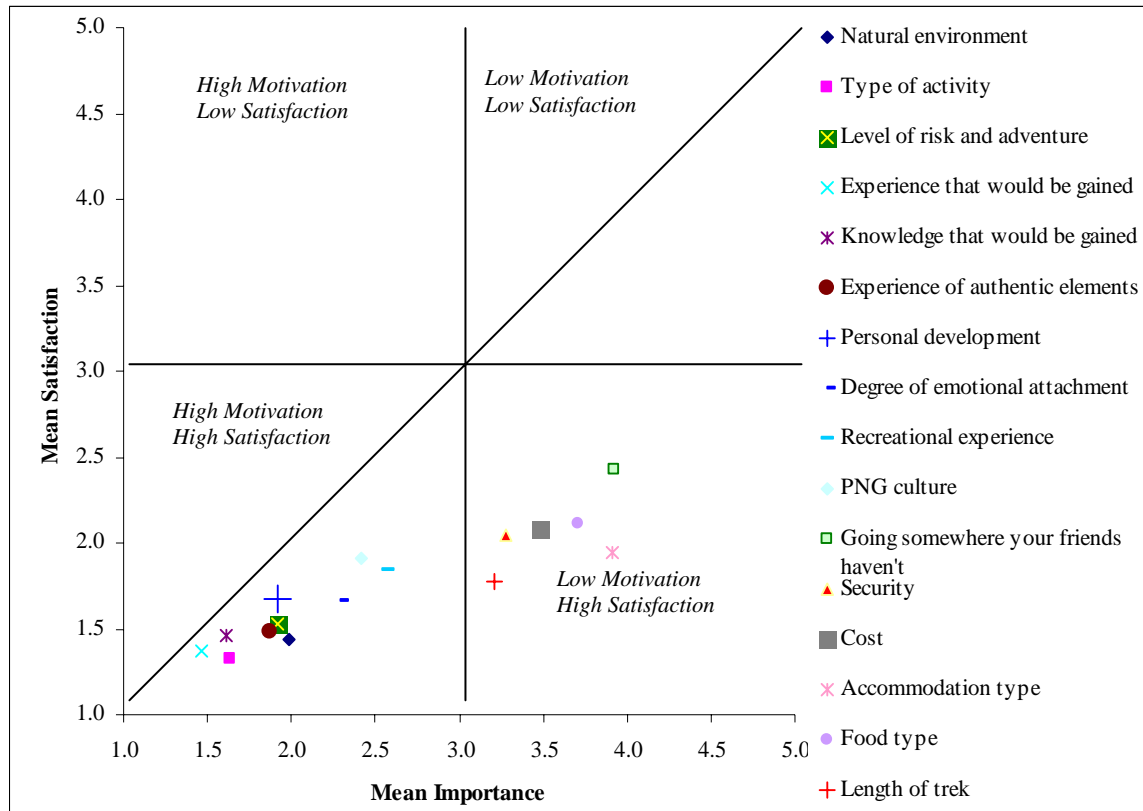
According to Dearden and Harron (1994), to be a truly sustainable industry in the short term, satisfaction must exceed motivation which means all the items should be placed below the diagonal line. The results of this study indicate that this is the case and that the Kokoda tourist is satisfied with the experience. Additionally, the difference between importance and satisfaction was statistically significant for all aspects except 'experience

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<sup>20</sup> Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs begins at the bottom with physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, esteem needs and finally self-actualisation. One cannot climb the hierarchy without having achieved the lower order needs. These needs can be applied to many situations and has been used to describe travel motivation by authors like Pearce (1982).

that would be gained' ( $p=0.129$ ) which indicates that the satisfaction of these aspects can be predicted to be much higher than the importance if the survey was run again.

**Figure 5.4 – Satisfaction and motivation of various trek components**



\*x-axis: 1= very important, 5= not at all important; y-axis: 1= very satisfied, 5= not at all satisfied

The Kokoda tourist appeared to be satisfied with their experience based on a further four measures. Firstly 86.6% of the sample agreed that the experience did have a positive influence on their decision to return to the KT while a smaller proportion (70.1%) were persuaded by the experience to return to PNG. Those who indicated they were not positively influenced to return to the KT were significantly less satisfied with the aspects of personal development ( $p=0.001$ ), emotional attachment ( $p=0.003$ ), the recreational experience ( $p=0.016$ ) and the food type ( $p=0.041$ ). The final aspect can be controlled by the KT communities and suggests again that the selling of local food to trekkers may be an option. Secondly, the sample was very happy and fulfilled but not upset, frustrated or anxious post-trek (Table 5.5). Thirdly, 96.4% of the sample rated the tour operator as 'very good' or 'good'.

**Table 5.5 – Emotions of trekkers**

Emotion	Mean*
Happy	1.17
Fulfilled	1.44
Upset	4.70
Frustrated	4.74
Anxious	4.77

\* 1= very much so, 5= not at all

Finally table 5.6 shows the results between average expectations and experience of six aspects of the trek. All aspects were experienced at a higher level than their expected output ('level of difficulty' is not a positive aspect and therefore the correlation is negative but still significantly so). Again this suggests that respondents were satisfied with their experience where there was a significant difference between the expected and experienced level of all aspects except the level of physical change.

**Table 5.6 – Expectation versus experience**

	Mean* expectation	Mean* experience	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
Level of difficulty	1.5	1.7	-3.305	.001
Level of enjoyment	2.1	1.5	8.640	.000
Level of emotional change	2.5	1.9	6.361	.000
Level of physical change	2.3	2.2	1.281	.202
Level of knowledge gained	2.0	1.7	5.731	.000
Level of cultural interaction	2.4	1.9	6.111	.000

\* 1= very high, 5= None

These aspects underwent further tests across age and gender. Expected levels of enjoyment ( $p=0.016$ ), emotional change ( $p=0.005$ ), physical change ( $p=0.016$ ) and cultural interaction ( $p=0.019$ ) all significantly decreased with age. This indicates that as the Kokoda tourist gets older they aren't expecting as much with their trekking experience. However, when analysing the experienced levels of these aspects, only level of difficulty ( $p=0.007$ ) and enjoyment ( $p=0.001$ ) were found to be significantly different in age groups. It appeared that the older tourists experienced greater difficulty however, less enjoyment.

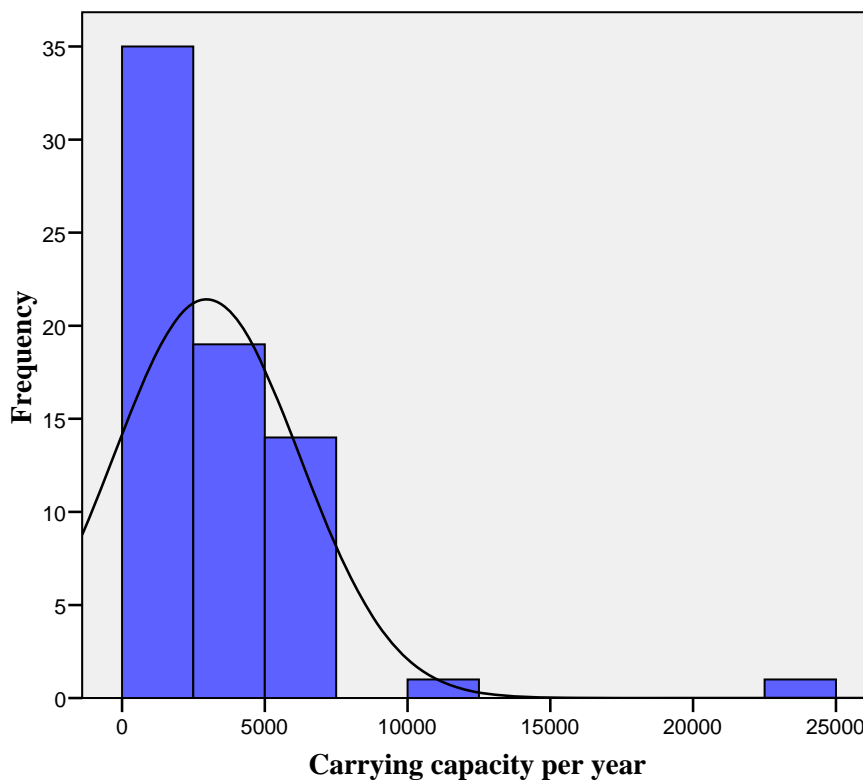
de Rojas and Camarero (In Press) hypothesised and confirmed that there is a relationship between satisfaction and intensification of the use or service in cultural settings. As the results of these five satisfaction measures show that the Kokoda tourist was generally satisfied with the experience, they will be more willing to engage with the history or cultural

aspect of the trek. It also indicates that they will be more likely to return or increase their promotion of the KT through word of mouth.

### 5.1.3.3 Carrying Capacity

Just over half the sample responded to the question asking them to indicate the maximum number of tourists that the KT is able to cater to before negative impacts become evident. The results in figure 5.5 show a negatively skewed distribution with a high density at the lower end of the scale. The average response was 2967 which is much smaller than the recently released 2007 figure of 4300 (Lynn, 2007). The average response was larger for males and for the middle age group (35-54) but these differences were not found to be statistically significant.

**Figure 5.5 – Carrying capacity of the KT**



Dearden and Harron (1994) recognise that carrying capacity is an important element in the satisfaction of trekking as trekkers are quite concerned with authenticity. They found a clear relationship between enjoyment of the trip and the number of groups seen along the way. Only five respondents chose not to make their feelings known about whether there

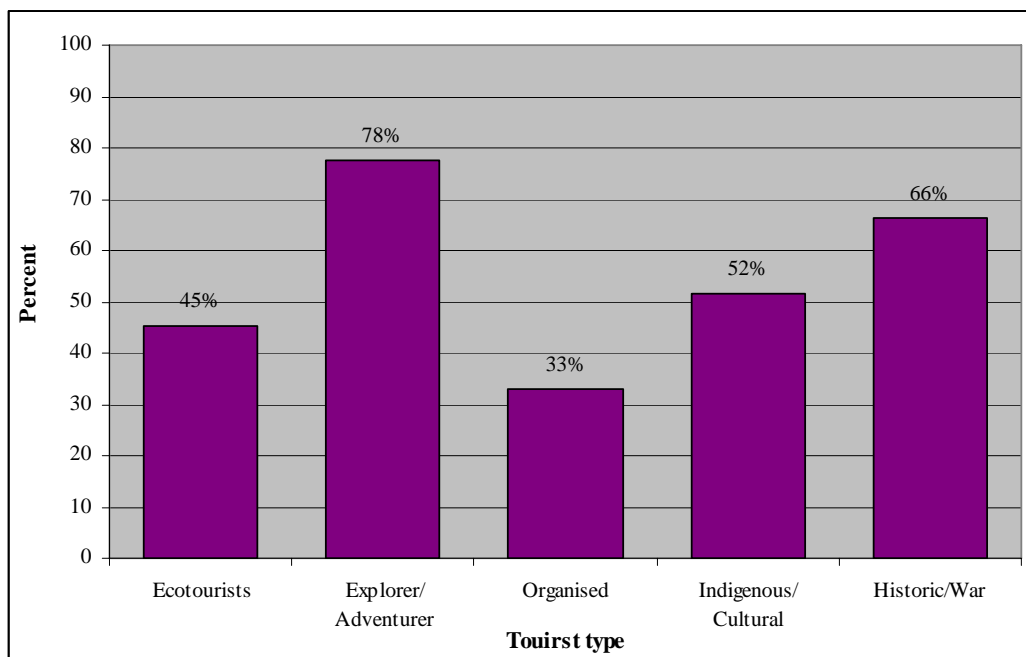
should be a restriction of tourist numbers on the KT with a resounding 80.3% of the sample agreeing with the proposition.

#### 5.1.4 Respondent-based Profile

Travel preference was also analysed using a respondent-based typology. The respondent was asked how much they associated with five types of tourism. It was found that the Kokoda tourist tended to relate to adventure travel (mean=2.25) and historic/war tourism (mean=2.36).

This profile was further segregated to assess the percentage of the sample that related to these types of tourism. Respondents needed to answer “very much so” or “somewhat” to be placed in that category. The results (Figure 5.6) align themselves with the motivation-based typology. The Kokoda tourist is less likely to affiliate with nature (ecotourism), culture (cultural tourism) and prestige (organised tourism).

**Figure 5.6 – Respondent based-profile**



There were two socio-demographic differences found between these tourist types. Firstly the ecotourist is younger than the other tourist types. Secondly, males prefer historic/war tourism (66% males and 54.3% females) while females much prefer adventure tourism (71% males and 85.3% females) and cultural tourism (41% males and 73.5% females).

#### 5.1.4.1 Self-defined Motivation

Table 5.7 shows the difference between trip motivation for each tourist type. The largest group of tourists, Explorer/Adventurers, found the risk and adventure ( $p=0.036$ ) and the PNG culture ( $p=0.012$ ) to be significantly more important in their decision to travel than those who did not identify themselves as this type of tourist. Additionally, statistical significance was found in the importance of aspects between those that identified themselves with Indigenous/cultural tourism and those that did not. These tourists found the natural environment ( $p=0.009$ ), type of activity ( $p=0.043$ ), PNG culture ( $p=0.000$ ), to be more important than those not identified in this category while the accommodation type ( $p=0.045$ ) was significantly less important to them.

**Table 5.7 – Means\* of importance by respondent-based profiles**

	Ecotourist	Explorer/ Adventurer	Organised	Cultural	Historic/ War
Natural environment	2.00	1.96	2.05	<b>1.79</b>	1.99
Type of activity	1.63	1.55	1.58	<b>1.46</b>	1.56
Level of risk and adventure	1.90	<b>1.81</b>	1.95	1.93	1.82
Experience that would be gained	1.46	1.42	1.50	1.44	<b>1.36</b>
Knowledge that would be gained	1.69	1.60	1.59	1.64	<b>1.50</b>
Experience of authentic elements	1.84	1.84	1.77	1.82	<b>1.72</b>
Personal development	1.93	1.95	1.95	1.97	<b>1.84</b>
Degree of emotional attachment	2.28	2.27	2.47	2.39	<b>2.07</b>
Recreational experience	2.64	2.49	2.57	<b>2.43</b>	2.60
PNG culture	2.36	2.30	2.39	<b>2.07</b>	2.38
Going somewhere your friends haven't	3.93	3.97	<b>3.50</b>	3.88	3.90
Security	3.36	3.25	<b>3.09</b>	3.21	3.15
Cost	3.53	3.44	<b>3.34</b>	3.57	3.51
Accommodation type	3.93	3.92	3.98	4.06	<b>3.90</b>
Food type	<b>3.59</b>	3.70	3.74	3.78	3.70
Length of trek	<b>3.14</b>	3.20	3.27	3.18	<b>3.14</b>

\*1= very much so, 5= not at all

Note: Figures in bold signify the smallest mean across tourist types. Shaded figures indicate a significant difference within each tourist type.

The experience that would be gained ( $p=0.028$ ), the knowledge to be gained ( $p=0.014$ ), the experience of authenticity ( $p=0.005$ ) and the degree of emotional attachment ( $p=0.001$ )

were all significantly more important to the group that identified themselves as historic/war tourists than those that did not. There were no significant differences established between the ecotourist and non-ecotourist groups and only one significant difference between the Organised tourists groups – that of prestige ( $p=0.005$ ) indicating that organised tourist were more inclined to travel somewhere their friends hadn't been than those not identified in that group.

#### 5.1.4.2 Self-defined Characteristics

Several differences in travel characteristics were found between the five tourist types:

- Ecotourists, Adventure tourists and War/Historic tourists were fitter while Organised tourists and Cultural tourists were less fit than those that did not associate themselves with these tourist types.
- The historic/war tourist had significantly higher levels of emotional change ( $p=0.001$ ), physical change ( $p=0.003$ ), knowledge gained ( $p=0.015$ ) and cultural interaction ( $p=0.019$ ) compared with the non-historic/war tourists. All other tourists groups did not significantly vary.
- 96.5% of those that associate with ecotourism indicated that their experience had a positive influence on their decision to return to the KT. This was much higher than any other tourist type.
- Adventure tourists and ecotourists are much more likely to want an annual limit on the number of tourists trekking the KT. However it was the ecotourist and cultural tourist groups who indicated an average annual number to be much less than those who weren't in these groups (Table 5.8).

**Table 5.8 – Carrying capacity per year by tourist type**

	Ecotourist	Adventure tourist	Organised tourist	Cultural tourist	Historic tourist
No	3428.95	2900.00	2991.84	3222.86	2476.19
Yes	2418.75	2988.68	2909.52	2711.43	3177.55
<b>Total Average</b>					<b>2967.14</b>

These results indicate that historic/war tourists and ecotourists gained most from their experience on the KT. In terms of sustainable futures, it is the ecotourist who recognises a need for a carrying capacity and they have also indicated a much smaller carrying capacity than other tourist types.

## 5.2 Summary

The results presented in this chapter have addressed the first research objective by exploring the tourists that are trekking the KT. It was found that the Kokoda tourist is male, middle aged, university educated and in full-time employment. This was their first visit with two travelling companions and they take at least two leisure trips per year. Their preference is for motels or 2-4 star hotels and local dishes and they would like to see an annual carrying capacity of fewer than 3000 tourists for the KT. Their main reason for travel is for a physical challenge and their motivation for travel is based on the importance placed on the experience, activity and knowledge to be gained. Additionally, they are highly satisfied with all aspects of the trip.

The Kokoda tourist is more likely to be an adventure tourist as found in the respondent-based typology. They hold high importance for the risk or activity involved. With regards to all other aspects that were analysed, it is deemed that the cultural tourist, which females are more likely to be, is the most appropriate type of tourist for the KT in terms of sustainable futures. This is because the natural environment and recreational experience is most important to them while the accommodation and food type is the least important to these tourists. They also view the carrying capacity to be a lot smaller than the average response. However, in terms of accommodation and food preference, ecotourists were seen to be more in line with community as they much preferred lodges and local food to all other tourist types.

Tourism at its current level will satisfy the ecotrekker so that the authenticity of the trek is not decreased but will this be enough to satisfy the community? This issue will be discussed in the following and final chapter where the needs of the community and tourists will be matched to resolve the third research question: 'Do Kokoda tourists meet the outcomes envisaged by the community?'



## **CHAPTER VI. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION**

The aim of this thesis was to determine how ecotrekking as a form of community-based tourism can provide a foundation for development for remote rural communities in developing countries. It was conceptualised in chapter 1 that an overlap between community and tourist needs would provide an adequate environment for community-based tourism. Consequently a case study of the Kokoda Track was explored to contextually explore this theory and three objectives were formulated as a step-by-step process to solve the thesis aim. These were:

1. What role can market segmentation play in sustainable tourism development in remote rural communities?
2. What outcomes do the Kokoda Track communities envisage for the future of tourism on the Kokoda Track?
3. Do Kokoda tourists meet the outcomes envisaged by the community?

The first two research questions were addressed through an examination of the literature presented on sustainable tourism and market segmentation, an exploration of the case study into the communities of the KT, and an empirical study of the tourists that trek the KT. This final chapter will summarise the key findings of the first two research questions and address the third research question which is a comparative analysis of questions one and two. It will also discuss the implications of the findings for the future of CBT projects in LDCs and specific recommendations will be made for future research to assist sustainable ecotrekking initiatives on the KT.

## 6.1 Question 1 – Market Segmentation for Sustainable Development

Generally speaking, sustainable development is determined largely by what the stakeholders want it to be. There are a range of actors who have the right and, to a varying extent, ability to make changes to the tourism system and influence the process and consequences of development. These actors or stakeholders include tourists (domestic and foreign); tourist businesses (investors, developers, operators; shareholders, management, employees; public and private); the host community and their governments. These groups often have conflicting interests in, and different perceptions of, tourism development. (Liu, 2003:466)

The level of interest in tourism development varies from country to country. The tourism trend is that once a 'new' destination has been explored by the intrepid traveller, there is a push by the tourism industry and tourists to open up the destination. These new destinations tend to be LDCs, which have been described as having the last havens of unspoilt natural and cultural environments. They are on a course towards development where tourism is seen as a vehicle for that development. Often the costs of tourism development are overlooked in favour of the potential economic gain to be had. Communities are left out of the process of planning for tourism and their needs are ignored by autocratic governments. This thesis has argued that despite these problems LDCs have the potential to contribute to sustainable tourism development through alternative forms of tourism

Alternative tourism by definition is a slow form of development. For that reason it has been criticised in the literature as an unfeasible development tool in LDCs (Butler, 1990; Nash, 1996; Wheeler, 1991). However in communities that have not been exposed to mass forms of development it is seen as a more appropriate method that will provide for a sustainable future. This is particularly relevant to Papua New Guinea (PNG), the case study employed in this thesis. Tourism development in PNG has been inhibited by a high crime rate and perceived risk associated with travelling there (Levantis & Gani, 2000). While it is not yet a mass tourism destination, there is no urgency for rapid development and it could be the case that alternative forms of tourism will be sustainable (Harrison, 1992).

It was revealed in chapter 2 that sustainable tourism can be an effective form of development in LDCs if the needs and expectations of stakeholders are matched. This

thesis chose to focus on two particular stakeholders, tourists and rural and remote communities, for two reasons. Firstly, the discourse on sustainable tourism development has turned its attention to CBT where ‘tourism planning should be as much about residents as visitors for sustainable development’ (Wall, 2007:393). CBT in LDCs aims to empower locals so that they are able to make decisions about the future direction of tourism. It was found that the best way to initiate this process is through PRA techniques like social mapping.

Secondly, one avenue that the literature has focused on that can assist communities in sustainable tourism initiatives is through an assessment of tourists’ needs within the context of the destination (Gunn & Var, 2002; Liu, 2003; Silverberg et al., 1996; Wight, 1993). Market segmentation studies give tourism planners information about travel characteristics like motivation to avert potential negative impacts (Clifton & Benson, 2006). Consequently, results from PRA and market segmentation can be matched to assess the extent to which communities and tourists can enable a symbiotic relationship for tourism. Mbaiwa recognises that ‘this requires a planning process that satisfies the needs of tourists and tour operators while being sensitive to the sociocultural, economic and environmental needs of host countries and destinations’ (2005:203). Where there is a complete match then tourism development will be sustainable.

The results of the empirical study employed in this thesis found that the Kokoda tourist has a unique set of motivations which influence their decision to trek the KT. Their three main reasons for travelling to the KT are for a physical challenge, to learn about Australian history and for personal development.

The physical challenge is a primary motive of adventure tourists (Hill, 1995). Hard adventurers enjoy taking risks (Swarbrooke et al., 2003) and Muller and Cleaver (2000) rate “backpacking across rugged terrain” to be a main activity of this tourist type. The type of activity and the level of risk and adventure were found to be important motivations for the Kokoda tourist and adventure tourism was their most popular type of travel. This adventure motive was also prevalent amongst trekkers in Nepal with a large proportion of Holden and Sparrowhawk’s (2002) sample displaying a need to challenge their abilities. On the other hand, only a small proportion of their sample was motivated by a need for risk (Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002).

As the KT is significant for historical reasons, it was not surprising that historical/war tourism was the second most preferred type of tourism on the KT. The motivation to learn about Australian history likens the Kokoda tourist to a heritage tourist (learning about history was a significant motive in a study undertaken by Kerstetter et al., 2001). Education is also an important aspect of the ecotourism experience (Wearing & Neil, 1999) however it is education about the natural environment that is most fundamental. This was found to be important to trekkers in Nepal (Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002). Knowledge in general was considered to be a very important motivation for travel for the Kokoda tourist. The sample may have responded with regard to cultural, environmental and historical knowledge.

Meyer (1987:449 cited in Dearden & Harron, 1994) noted that trekkers aren't in search of knowledge but emotional satisfaction. The expected emotional change of the Kokoda tourist was above average and the experienced level was significantly higher. This result was supported by the Kokoda tourist's third main reason for travelling; personal development. This motivation can be categorised in Cohen's "experimental mode" as he/she is 'pre-disposed to try out alternative life-ways in their quest for meaning... [and] seeks to discover that form of life which elicits a resonance in himself' (1979:189). Lipscombe (1995 cited in Swarbrooke et al., 2003) discovered that "soft" adventurers are motivated by self-discovery while Uzzell discusses that one of the main 'functions of heritage interpretation is to enhance the visitor's sense of place and place identity' (1996:219). These results indicate that the experience is highly important to the Kokoda tourist.

There were several aspects that were not important to the Kokoda tourist. These were the length of the trek, security, cost, food and accommodation type and prestige. This suggests that they had few expectations with regards to these basic needs but their higher order needs like personal development were important.

Overall the results suggest that the Kokoda tourist is more like an adventure and heritage tourist than a cultural tourist or ecotourist. Approximately half the sample indicated a preference for ecotourism and cultural tourism which was much less than adventure and historic tourism. If this study was to be run again it would be useful to provide respondents with definitions of these tourist types as 'it is based on tourists' varying understanding of, and personal identity with, a number of different tourist types' (Hvenegaard, 2002:16).

## 6.2 Question 2 – Outcomes for the Host

Cohen (1989) found that the danger for trekking destinations like northern Thailand is that they become so overpopulated. As they begin to lose their authenticity what began as alternative tourism turns into “alternative mass tourism”. The trekking industry on the KT is running at a level that is beginning to stretch the available resources and affect the natural and socio-cultural environments. The supply of tourist facilities is not able to meet the current demand. Consequently NGOs like WWF and the KTF are committed to promoting sustainable ecotrekking with the support of the communities. Part of this process was to conduct stakeholder workshops to ascertain the expectations of those interested in tourism on the KT.

The results of community PRA workshops held by the KTF in 2004 and 2005 were discussed in chapter 3. The communities would like to see an increase in tourist numbers to increase revenue to provide for basic facilities. These include but were not limited to health, education, water and electricity. These facilities are a given in Western countries where the needs of the populace have shifted to a concern for all things “green”. According to the KT communities they will be able to achieve their goals by developing guesthouses as tourist accommodation and by selling food. However a limit to the number of tourists trekking the KT would hamper this mission.

To ensure future sustainability on the KT, the challenge for the communities then is twofold: Firstly to resist the increase of tourism numbers and secondly to resist the push from the mining sector. These two challenges are forms of tourism development that may appear to be more lucrative than ecotrekking. A decrease in tourist numbers is not what the communities have in mind:

Without the trekkers, the inland Koiari have few options to join the cash economy, although they may have to balance the preservation of the Track against possible returns from the miners (Frontier Resources) who have been developing leases on copper deposits near Mt Bini and those who want to exploit timber resources (Nelson, 2007:78).

Since the PRA workshops took place the Kodu villagers have been embroiled in a battle with tour operators, tourists and the Australian government to allow mining to take place close to their 10% of the KT. This could ensure future prosperity and development much

more quickly than ecotrekking. Their sentiments were written in a letter to Prime Minister John Howard in October 2006: ‘They [Australians] want to keep the pristine beauty and preserve the environment and continue to keep us as game for the affluent’ (AAP, 2006).

It has been shown that the KT is significant for two main reasons. The first is a home to some 2000 people and several thousand species of flora and fauna. The second is a historic site for the Australian population. The future battle for the KT will be to decide which of these is more important because what we are dealing with is a fundamental dispute between local communities in PNG and Australian historians. Nelson (2007:87) argues that:

Australians have made the battles on the track one of the best known events in Australian history and elevated those battles to a height where they are seen as basic to the making of the nation and its values... But in Papua New Guinea... Kokoda has become more and more associated with only those people who live between Kokoda and Sogeri. Kokoda has lost its national significance.

To address this dispute between communities and tourists the expected outcomes from tourism of both stakeholder groups will be matched in the following section.

### **6.3 Question 3 – Matching Host and Guest Expectations**

The tourist experience has been found to be affected by two important aspects in trekking studies. These are authenticity and crowding. The Kokoda tourist views the authenticity of the experience importantly in their decision to travel. Both Cohen (1989) and Dearden (1988) have explored the concept of authenticity<sup>21</sup> of Hilltribe trekking in northern Thailand. They found that as the trekking industry grows, the authenticity of the experience decreases so that what initially set out to be an adventure and exploration has become commodified and packaged. Any trekker wanting an authentic experience would want to steer clear of a trekking group (Dearden & Harron, 1992). Additionally, Fredman & Hörnsten (2004:3) learnt that ‘crowding is often viewed as the most direct social impact of outdoor recreation and it is fundamental to the recreation experience since it is a negative evaluation of a certain user density’. In this study “crowding” was identified in terms of carrying capacity. The Kokoda tourist is in favour of imposing an annual limit on the number of trekkers permitted on the KT however, it was the tourists that defined

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<sup>21</sup> The concept of authenticity in the tourist experience is a thesis in itself. Originally Boorstin (1964) discussed the tourist experience to be contrived and a “pseudo-event” while MacCannell (1973) claimed that all tourists were on a quest for an authentic experience but some don’t get beyond a staged “tourist space”.

themselves as “ecotourists” that were most likely to want a limit and the limit they suggested was much smaller than all other profiles. With regard to heritage tourism, Tunbridge and Ashworth (1996:65) discuss that heritage tourists are often ‘repelled by what is experienced as contrived heritage’. Therefore the preservation of the KT would be in their interest for historical rather than environmental reasons.

Eagles (1992) established that ecotourists are more willing to accept and appreciate the local conditions, culture and food. This has been both refuted and confirmed in the findings of this study. Firstly, the Kokoda tourist prefers 2-4 star hotels over the preferred type of accommodation of the community which is the guesthouse. This was also found to be the case for nature-based tourists where Silverberg *et al.* (1996) discovered that only one small cluster (4.9%) within their sample preferred campgrounds as their desired accommodation. The rest of the sample preferred hotels/motels. Incidentally the Kokoda tourist is quite satisfied with the accommodation on offer which ranges from camping to community guest houses. However, as their expectations were low to begin with, this result is not significant.

Secondly, confirming Eagle’s (1992) finding, less of the sample was satisfied with the food than they were with accommodation on the KT which in most cases is dehydrated and provided by the tour operator. Instead the Kokoda tourist would have preferred to have eaten locally made foods. Lepp and Gibson found that there was a greater perception of risk associated with a holiday that included strange food: ‘strange food was identified as a risk factor among the tourists most averse to novelty, the organized mass tourist’ (2003:617). This indicates that the Kokoda tourist is not an “organized mass tourist” and that the adventure experience is highly important to them.

The results show that the KT is not purely a trekking destination that attracts ecotourists and people with strong environmental ethics. This supports Dearden and Harron’s (1994:81) study which concluded that ‘a transformation is taking place [in hilltribe trekking] from primary ethnic tourism to cultural tourism with a strong recreational experience’. The cultural tourism and ecotourism segments are not considerably large, accounting for approximately half of trekkers. Their needs and expectations are consistent with those of the community.

## 6.4 Implications

This study has contributed to the area of CBT in LDCs in two ways. The first is that alternative tourism (in this case ecotrekking) can be a foundation for development if the planning process addresses the needs and expectations of the community. Dearden and Harron note that the hilltribes in Thailand did not have any input into trekking initiatives and had very few adaptive strategies available to them: 'They are too poor to be able to resist the additional income that may be generated' (1994:87). The KT communities are also underdeveloped however they have been key supporters of and made decisions regarding the future of ecotrekking on the KT.

Secondly, results of market segmentation can be used to assist communities in developing CBT. This is because tourist expectations can be matched to those of the community. This case study has demonstrated that there is an ethical dilemma that is found in the introduction of alternative tourism in destinations with vastly different cultures and ethics to the Western world. In fact it has been suggested that the efforts by former Prime Minister John Howard to stop mining on the KT have reinforced the colonial style paternalistic powers (Lester, 2006).

'Preserving a track that Australians have strong historical connections to is nothing compared to PNG landowners' dreams of receiving millions of kina in royalty payments as well as the establishment of basic services previously lacking in the area' (Rheoney, 2007).

This study established that the needs of the community and tourists are vastly different (basic versus higher order needs) yet their expectations are comparable in terms of the services provided on the KT by the communities. The Kokoda tourist had several motives for trekking; the most prominent were adventure and heritage. It was the ecotourist and cultural tourist segments that were seen to fit best in terms of future sustainability of the KT as they are more sympathetic to carrying capacity issues and the cultural environment.

The growth of tourism on the KT as per trekking permits granted (Table 4.2, page 55) shows a significant increase in tourist numbers. The only limit that is imposed is one of supply where the current infrastructure (most notably the rudimentary airstrip at Kokoda) will not be able to support a huge boom in tourism. Market segmentation results have



informed that there needs to be an annual limit imposed on the KT regardless of the communities' desire for more tourists. This creates a dilemma. If a permit system was seen to be useful by the communities then this would need to be enforced by the KTA which issues trekking permits. The limit should not exceed 3000 trekkers per year (which is the average figure suggested by the Kokoda tourist) and be spread out over the year. In Holden and Sparrowhawk's study into the motivations of ecotrekking to basic Nepal, they have suggested that 'the success of tourism in Annapurna [Nepal] should not be judged primarily on increasing the numbers of visitor arrivals' (2002:435). In fact, this is a problem that many LDCs don't control. The dilemma can be solved by attracting a smaller, high yield market of cultural and ecotourists who are prepared to support the community and natural environment. Although there was not found to be a significant difference between market segments even a slight variation of those targeted would make a huge impact on communities.

In order for the tour operator to be able to best represent the interest of the communities it would be necessary for them to examine how and to whom they are marketing their guided treks. If no limit was imposed and the operators were seeking to achieve the best return per tourist, the market segment best suited to this would be the historic tourist who values the authenticity of the KT for historic reasons. This does not reflect the needs of the community. Therefore some dialogue between the communities and the operators needs to be established.

With mining and logging now becoming a lucrative development alternative and Frontier Resources engaging with communities to gauge what they want in terms of the future, the changes to the KT will have an impact on the tourist type. Fewer ecotourists will desire to travel there while it may additionally decrease the appeal to historic tourists. It will also mean that the communities not directly benefiting from this development will be impacted as the tourism flow may be hindered. If the Australian government pledge of \$A15.9 million funding to maintain and promote world heritage listing for the KT (AAP, 2007) is fulfilled, more ecotourists will be encouraged to travel.

There is a need to portray an image to target tourist types that will support limited trekking. They will be persuaded to travel for environmental and cultural reasons and create less impact than is currently experienced on the KT. All stakeholders, as well as the natural

environment, will benefit from small-scale, high yield ecotrekking. Economically, communities will receive extra revenue from tourists who desire to eat local food and stay in guesthouses. The tourist will be buoyed by the enhanced authenticity of the experience and minimised impacts to the natural environments. Tour operators would need to provide less in terms of food and camping equipment making the experience less costly. Lastly, environmentally, the impacts on the KT will be contained from minimal trampling on vegetation, clearing of forests for campsites and aeroplanes landing. These benefits are portrayed in figure 6.1

**Table 6.1 – Benefits of small-scale, high-yield ecotrekking**

<b>Elements</b>	<b>Communities</b>	<b>Ecotourists</b>	<b>Operators</b>	<b>Environment</b>
<b>Local Food</b>	Generates income Gives women work	Expressed desire by this group	Decreases transport cost to get food in	Minimises waste Minimises aircraft pollution
<b>Guesthouses</b>	Generates income Provides jobs	Decreases need for camping equipment	Decreases costs; no need for porters to carry camping equipment	More in line with natural environment Decreases land clearing for campsites
<b>Carrying capacity</b>	Less disturbance to society	Increases authenticity and enhances experience	Environments are maintained and creates for a better experience and repeat visitation	Decreases trampling impacts Decreases the need for costly maintenance

## **6.5 Recommendations for Future Work**

The results of this study have shown that ecotrekking can provide a foundation for development in LDCs, if community expectations are matched with those of the tourist market segments. Market segmentation studies have concluded that ecotourism motives and travel characteristics are not homogenous but vary according to the destinations and attractions visited. The KT is no exception with a primary tourist motive being historic. Therefore results cannot be completely replicated in other ecotrekking destinations. Regardless of this, future research should concentrate on testing these methods in several LDCs to develop a framework or survey instrument that can be used by remote rural communities in planning for sustainable ecotrekking. This research may need to explore several aspects of tourists' values and expectations that were not included in this study so that the results are reproducible.

For example, tourist expectations for buying local handicrafts could be established. Dearden (1988) found that villagers in Thailand expected the selling of handicrafts would provide an extra source of income for the local community. Additionally, a minimum

expenditure rate per tourist, like that used in Bhutan (Brunet et al., 2001), could be implemented to attract small-scale, high-yield ecotrekking if tourists are consulted. A final example is to test the social values of tourists. Social values have been tested by Blamey and Braithwaite (1997) to assess the impact that tourists with “greener” values have on the natural environment. The results may be used to address issues of “crowding” and the effect that the tourist sees this having on the natural and socio-cultural environments.

The establishment of better methods for matching community needs and tourist preferences is essential to the development of alternative types of tourism like ecotrekking. In LDCs, this can provide a foundation for development for remote rural communities as it allows them to foresee the long term benefits that tourism will create in contrast to competing extractive industries like mining. This thesis explored one mechanism to accomplish this match; a comparison of market segmentation through quantitative research with Participatory Rural Appraisal techniques. The process and results presented in this thesis can provide a starting point for the area of CBT to better investigate the relationship between communities and tourists.

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## Appendix 1 – Kokoda Track Permit Holder Trekking Statistics: 2005, 2006

Tour Operator	2005		2006	
	Trkrs	Treks	Trkrs	Treks
Adventure Kokoda / Kokoda Experience	332	25	489	21
Australian Defence Force / Southern Cross Trekkers	20	1	12	1
DCXP – Duncan Chessel (in 2005/6 through Tropic Tours)	43	5	32	4
EcoTourism Melanesia	35	7	79	15
Executive Excellence (in 2005/6 through Tropic Tours)	245	15	378	16
Fuzzy Wuzzy Expeditions	17	1	47	2
Fuzzy Wuzzy Spiritours			8	1
Getaway trekking			15	3
Koiari Treks & Tours Ltd	51	10	60	7
Kokoda Holidays	15	1	51	6
Kokoda Memorial Foundation	27	1		
Kokoda Spirit	4	1	187	19
Kokoda Trekking Ltd	636	69	820	99
Kokoda Guided Tours	172	12	189	13
Legend Guided Tours			3	1
Mentone Grammar	?	3	?	3
Niugini Adventure			33	2
Niugini Holidays / Pacific Travel	587	49	699	63
No Roads Expeditions (through Tropic Tours)	23	2	74	6
Northern Distractions	0	0	68	6
Our Spirit / Kokoda Legends	54	6	162	9
PNG Adventure Trekking (through Kokoda Trekking)	33	6	37	4
PNG Holidays	0	0		
Private	49	13	198	32
St Patricks College Ballarat	22	1		
Team Kokoda Queensland			49	4
Toogee Treks	7	1	33	3
Tropic Tours Ltd				
World Expeditions	2	1		
<b>Total Permits Issued by KTA (PNGTIA &amp; NGH)</b>	<b>2374</b>	<b>230</b>	<b>3723</b>	<b>340</b>

Source: (Kokoda Track Authority, 2006) at 31 October 2006

Appendix 2 – Social Mapping: Efogi Village workshops 28-29 April, 2004

Village	What would you like to gain from the workshop?	Issues raised in mapping Kokoda tourism in 5 years
Depo - Ward 5 Area	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• road upgrading</li> <li>• education/school</li> <li>• employment</li> <li>• water supply</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- information area/centre to check passports etc</li> <li>- picnic area</li> <li>- elementary school</li> <li>- guesthouse</li> <li>- proper water supply for guesthouse and picnic area</li> <li>- community hall</li> </ul> <p>++ this will take a lot of team work, some will be achieved within 5 years</p>
Ower's Corner	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• road upgrading</li> <li>• funding of guesthouse at Ower's Corner</li> <li>• tourism brings development</li> <li>• support for a water program</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- information centre</li> <li>- water supply</li> <li>- flying fox to transport pigs or trekkers at high tide</li> <li>- guesthouses</li> <li>- water project</li> <li>- another village</li> </ul> <p>++ sure to be achieved</p>
Ioribaiwa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• radio communication</li> <li>• guesthouse</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 4 x guesthouses</li> <li>- aid post</li> <li>- village house</li> <li>- church</li> <li>- radio house</li> <li>- trade store</li> <li>- rice farm to provide meals</li> <li>- war grave important</li> <li>- bridge</li> <li>- road improvement and upgrades</li> </ul> <p>++ will try to achieve in the next 5 years</p>



<i>Village</i>	<i>What would you like to gain from the workshop?</i>	<i>Issues raised in mapping Kokoda tourism in 5 years</i>
Naoro	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• need for basic services</li> <li>• have only a radio base</li> <li>• water supply</li> <li>• school</li> <li>• guesthouse</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- water supply needed</li> <li>- swinging bridge</li> <li>- safety for tourists</li> <li>- 3 x guesthouses (currently only 1)</li> <li>- aid post or clinic</li> <li>- village school</li> <li>- religious site for church</li> <li>- cement the walking track along the swampy place</li> <li>- services: airstrip</li> </ul> <p>++ all will be achieved</p>
Menari	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• tourism to provide basic services eg road &amp; transportation</li> <li>• agricultural expertise needed to promote agriculture</li> <li>• community hall for tourists needs &amp; requirements</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- proposed guesthouse currently under construction</li> <li>- development proposals including agricultural development: vegetable farming, vanilla farming, rice farming, poultry projects. To provide meals for tourists and village people.</li> <li>- services: cooking/catering service, trade store, village hall, community hall, improved transport services, social services (including health, education, religion, youth/women &amp; children), sportsfield, teacher's accommodation, mini-hydro &amp; lighting system</li> <li>- 5 x extra guesthouses</li> <li>- museum</li> </ul> <p>++ projects will be completed if the local government supports programs and funding, if not the village will endeavour to do on their own</p>

<i>Village</i>	<i>What would you like to gain from the workshop?</i>	<i>Issues raised in mapping Kokoda tourism in 5 years</i>
Efogi 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• support given to the workshop</li> <li>• need more awareness for better tourism</li> <li>• eco-tourism to be provided</li> <li>• guesthouses fees to be increased</li> <li>• other donors to do their part for betterment of villages &amp; tourists</li> <li>• transportation needs to be improved for tourists &amp; the people (high cost of transportation a killer)</li> <li>• support for more tourists</li> <li>• tour operators to be landowners &amp;/or Australian oriented, no outsiders</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- water supply</li> <li>- street lights</li> <li>- 3 x permanent buildings - funding from SDA church</li> <li>- storage shed and nursery</li> <li>- project office building</li> <li>- guesthouse made from bush material, multi-purpose</li> <li>- rural village power supply</li> <li>- mini supermarket</li> <li>- wildlife conservation project</li> <li>- eco-tourism project</li> <li>- information huts, sign boards</li> </ul>
Efogi 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• tour operators to properly co-ordinate, share benefits eg porters &amp; guides</li> <li>• landowners to have shares in tour operating companies</li> </ul>	<p>++ all to be achieved by 2009 except for maybe wildlife conservation project &amp; eco-tourism project</p>
Efogi Women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• tourists overlook the women</li> <li>• lighting is important for cooking etc</li> </ul>	<p>Women have big responsibilities. Key futures include:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Cooking - important to women. Go to the gardens and then do all the cooking. Feed husbands, children and sometimes the tourists. Extra work is involved to feed the tourists.</li> <li>2. Washing – children and dirty clothes.</li> <li>3. General cleaning of the village. Tourists create extra work.</li> </ol> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Women have a lower status compared to the men along the Kokoda Track.</li> <li>- Women are however important. Need good trekking. It is good when the tourists come. When women cook they get money from the tourists which helps. This is important especially for the widows as a source of income. Want help to be good cooks. Want to learn to cook other foods in a wider variety of ways.</li> <li>- Need a good health centre for the children. The centre in Efogi needs workers and training, have only medical supplies. Want children to be taught as doctors, nurses and aid posts. Education is very important.</li> <li>- Women want more tourists, would help them.</li> </ul>

<i>Village</i>	<i>What would you like to gain from the workshop?</i>	<i>Issues raised in mapping Kokoda tourism in 5 years</i>
Kagi	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• must share benefits, Kagi missing out in tourism</li> <li>• need transportation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- permanent houses</li> <li>- more guesthouses so tourists can come through</li> <li>- aid post</li> <li>- with mini-hydro (hot) showers/shower block in guesthouses</li> <li>- multi-purpose sportsfield</li> <li>- cash crop</li> <li>- currently too much charity, time to do something for ourselves</li> </ul>
Naduri	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• support for tourism and the Kokoda Track</li> <li>• tourism has been beneficial, Govt has not helped</li> <li>• aid post needs attention</li> <li>• call for more tourists - local &amp; overseas</li> <li>• human resources needs improving</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- currently 2 x guesthouses, in 5 years two more guesthouses (1 for tourists, 1 for porters)</li> <li>- aid post</li> <li>- trade store to serve white man biscuits</li> <li>- mini-hydro for toilets and water inside the houses</li> <li>- airstrip</li> <li>- houses</li> <li>- community hall</li> <li>- lights</li> <li>- road</li> <li>- sporting field</li> </ul>
Templeton's Crossing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• tour operators to be landowners only</li> <li>• track to go through Kagi, Dodoh Tovi to TC</li> <li>• porters &amp; carriers to be shared with other villages</li> <li>• need radio for communication</li> <li>• permanent houses/homes needed</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- road</li> <li>- guesthouse</li> <li>- hospital</li> <li>- bridge</li> <li>- water supply</li> </ul>
Isurava/Alola	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• classroom building</li> <li>• eco-tourism - wildlife &amp; conservation</li> <li>• mini-hydro to be connected</li> <li>• tour operators to be landowners only</li> </ul>	
Kovelo	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• improvement of Hoi guesthouse</li> <li>• radio base for Hoi village</li> <li>• tour operators to be only landowners</li> <li>• porters fees to be increased from K20 to K60</li> <li>• construction of houses for the people by the Australian Govt</li> <li>• landscaping</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- water supply</li> <li>- Muduli guesthouse</li> <li>- housing scheme</li> </ul>

<i>Village</i>	<i>What would you like to gain from the workshop?</i>	<i>Issues raised in mapping Kokoda tourism in 5 years</i>
Abuari	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• track to be opened up to villages of Abuari-Velai</li> <li>• support for eco-tourism</li> <li>• tour operators to be landowners</li> <li>• housing scheme for villages from Kokoda to Sogeri</li> <li>• short trekking to be introduced</li> <li>• need to know what tourists want</li> <li>• all tour operators to pay trekking fees</li> </ul>	
Kokoda Township	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• introduction of direct flight from Australia to Kokoda, Kokoda airstrip needs improvement</li> <li>• improvement of telephone communication</li> <li>• doctor for Kokoda hospital</li> <li>• proper water supply to be connected from Kovelov</li> <li>• KTF to fund maintenance of Kokoda Township</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- big event in November 2004: township 100 years old</li> <li>- airstrip to be upgraded to cater for bigger planes eg. Australia to Kokoda</li> <li>- proper assembly building for Kokoda Local Level Council</li> <li>- removal of powerhouse &amp; relocating it to put in a beautiful monument</li> <li>- rundown district office to be replaced</li> <li>- guesthouses</li> <li>- proposed Kokoda Memorial High School, land has been made available, Rotary willing to build it if the government gives the green light for funding</li> <li>- little community school established in 1949 is built on a war cemetery, when it rains the school floods, must fix this</li> </ul> <p>++ with the establishment of the Memorial National Park and the KTA these projects will happen. Govt must have input. It is a sad thing they don't help.</p>
Launumu Village		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- water supply</li> <li>- airstrip</li> <li>- chicken factory</li> <li>- sporting field</li> </ul>

These results were compiled by Natalie Shymko (Shymko, 2004) of the KTF. The order of these villages is from south to north on a map of the KT found in Chapter 4 (Figure 4.2) with the exception of Launumu Village which did not participate in the first workshop.

### Appendix 3 – Kokoda Track Tour Operators Contacted in Data Collection

Tour Operator	Dates contacted	Success?
Kokoda Trekking Ltd P O Box 7541, Boroko, NCD 111, PNG Gail Thomas (Manager/Trek Organiser) Email: <a href="mailto:trekking@kokodatrail.com.au">trekking@kokodatrail.com.au</a> Websites: <a href="http://www.kokodatrail.com.au">www.kokodatrail.com.au</a> ;	30/05	YES
Koiari Treks & Tours Ltd P O Box 4529, Boroko, NCD 111, PNG Narai Billy (Principal) Email: <a href="mailto:koiaritreks@global.net.pg">koiaritreks@global.net.pg</a> Web: <a href="http://www.pngtourism.org.pg/koiaritreks">www.pngtourism.org.pg/koiaritreks</a>	18/06	NO
Elei Guide & Tour Services P O Box 62, Kokoda, Oro Prov, PNG David Soru (Principal) C/- Frontier Travel PNG. Email: <a href="mailto:frontier@global.net.pg">frontier@global.net.pg</a> Or: <a href="mailto:kokodatrackauthority@global.net.pg">kokodatrackauthority@global.net.pg</a>	30/05	N/A
Kokoda Treks & Tours Pty Ltd 7 Laga Court, Sterling, WA Frank Taylor (Principal) Email: <a href="mailto:kokoda@arach.net.au">kokoda@arach.net.au</a> Web: <a href="http://www.kokoda.com.au">www.kokoda.com.au</a>	30/05, 18/06	NO
Niugini Holidays 100 Clarence Street, GPO Box 2002, Sydney NSW Ruth Dicker (Principal) Email: <a href="mailto:info@ngholidays.com">info@ngholidays.com</a> Web: <a href="http://www.nghols.com">www.nghols.com</a>	29/06, 13/07	NO
South Pacific Tours Ltd PO Box 195, Boroko, NCD 111, PNG Taisi Taule (Manager) Email: <a href="mailto:spt@global.net.pg">spt@global.net.pg</a> Web: <a href="http://www.nghols.com">www.nghols.com</a>	30/05	N/A
Adventure Kokoda Pty Limited P O Box 303, Camden, NSW 2570 Charlie Lynn MLC (Chairman) Email: <a href="mailto:adventurekokoda@nexon.com.au">adventurekokoda@nexon.com.au</a> Web: <a href="http://www.kokodatreks.com">www.kokodatreks.com</a>	28/06, 13/07	YES
Kokoda Experience Ltd c/. P O Box 545, Boroko, NCD 111, PNG Alex Rama (Director) Email: <a href="mailto:kokodaexperience@global.net.pg">kokodaexperience@global.net.pg</a> Web: <a href="http://www.kokodatreks.com">www.kokodatreks.com</a>	as above	as above
Papua New Guinea Trekking Adventures P O Box 91 Gordons NCD, PNG Pam Christie (Principal) Email: <a href="mailto:info@pngtrekking.com.pg">info@pngtrekking.com.pg</a> Web: <a href="http://www.pngtrekkingadventures.com">www.pngtrekkingadventures.com</a>	30/05, 13/07	NO
Ecotourism Melanesia Ltd P O Box 24, Waigani, NCD, PNG Aaron Hayes (Director), Priscilla Ogomeni Email: <a href="mailto:ecomel@online.net.pg">ecomel@online.net.pg</a> Web: <a href="http://www.em.com.pg">www.em.com.pg</a>	20/05	NO

<b>Tour Operator</b>	<b>Dates contacted</b>	<b>Success?</b>
Executive Excellence – Davidson Group Level 8, 344 Queen St, Brisbane, QLD 4001 John Miles and Allan Forsyth Email: <a href="mailto:bf@d-r.com.au">bf@d-r.com.au</a> - doesn't work Web: <a href="http://www.executiveexcellence.com.au">www.executiveexcellence.com.au</a>	18/06, 29/06 John Miles, 13/07	<b>NO</b>
Owers' Corner Treks & Tours P O Box 8228, Boroko, NCD 111, PNG Aaron Adave Orio (Principal) or Allan Miria Email: c/. <a href="mailto:koiari@global.net.pg">koiari@global.net.pg</a>	30/05, 18/06, 13/07	<b>NO</b>
Dosoho Treks & Guide Kagi Village, P O Box 6421, Boroko, NCD 111, PNG Bevan Surina (Principal) Email: c/. <a href="mailto:kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg">kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg</a>	Not contacted as primary contact is through KTA who couldn't be contacted	
Kokoda Tours Kovelo Village, c/. Benstead Lovi, Divn of Education, Free Mail Bag, Popondetta, Oro P, PNG Wilma or Benstead Lovi (Principals) Email c/. <a href="mailto:kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg">kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg</a>	Not contacted as primary contact is through KTA who couldn't be contacted	
Kokoda Legends (Wellbeing Solutions Pty Ltd) 38 Kirralee Drive, Robina, Qld 4226 Aidan Grimes (Director) PNG: Mathew Geita and John Belemi Email: <a href="mailto:aidan@wellbeingsolutions.com.au">aidan@wellbeingsolutions.com.au</a>	30/05, 18/06, 13/07	<b>NO</b>
Fuzzy Wuzzy Expedition Ltd P O Box 870, Waigani, NCD, PNG Attn: Josef Awuki (Manager), Osbourne Bogaijiwai Email: <a href="mailto:fuzzywuzzy@datec.com.pg">fuzzywuzzy@datec.com.pg</a>	30/05	<b>N/A</b>
Lalava Treks & Tours Kovelo Village, Post Office, Kokoda, Oro Province, PNG Sidni Toroi (Principal) or Bill James Email: c/. <a href="mailto:kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg">kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg</a>	Not contacted as primary contact is through KTA who couldn't be contacted	
Kokoda Memorial Tours Abuari Village, P O Box 15, Kokoda, Oro Province, PNG Joel Adave (Principal) Email: c/. <a href="mailto:kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg">kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg</a>	Not contacted as primary contact is through KTA who couldn't be contacted	
Vioribaiva Adventure Tours & Entertainers Ioribaiva Village, P O Box 1119, Waigani, NCD 131, PNG Agnes Malik Yambune (Manager) Email: c/. <a href="mailto:kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg">kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg</a>	Not contacted as primary contact is through KTA who couldn't be contacted	
Expedition Kokoda Efogi Village, c/. Koiari LLG SPA P O Box 7757, Boroko, NCD 111, PNG Philip Batia (Principal) Email: <a href="mailto:klgspa@online.net.pg">klgspa@online.net.pg</a>	30/05, 18/06, 13/07 – wrong email	<b>N/A</b>
Kokoda Misima Tours Hagutawa Village, P O Box 29, Kokoda, Oro Province, PNG Attn: Seli Dadi (Principal) Email: c/. <a href="mailto:kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg">kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg</a>	Not contacted as primary contact is through KTA who couldn't be contacted	
Kokoda Rock Tours Kaele Village, P O Box 39, Kokoda, Oro Province, PNG Jerod Leva (Principal) Email: c/. <a href="mailto:kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg">kodatrackauthority@global.net.pg</a>	Not contacted as primary contact is through KTA who couldn't be contacted	
Tropic Tours P O Box 1892, Boroko, NCD 111, PNG Gwen Ung Ogil (Manager) Email: <a href="mailto:tropictours@daltron.com.pg">tropictours@daltron.com.pg</a>	30/05, 18/06, 13/07	<b>NO</b>

<b>Tour Operator</b>	<b>Dates contacted</b>	<b>Success?</b>
Historic Kokoda Tracking (HTK) Ltd PO Box 484, WAIGANI, NCD Lily Klapat (Manageress) Email: <a href="mailto:hiskotrek@yahoo.com">hiskotrek@yahoo.com</a>	18/06	<b>NO</b>
Bykoea Tours Abuari Village, P O Box 43, Kokoda, Oro Province, PNG John Tatua (Principal) Email: <a href="mailto:c/.kokodatrackauthority@global.net.pg">c/.kokodatrackauthority@global.net.pg</a>	Not contacted as primary contact is through KTA who couldn't be contacted	
Getaway Trekking P.O. Box 202, Montrose Victoria 3765, Australia Kevin Mansfield and Wayne Fitcher Email: <a href="mailto:info@getawaytrekking.com">info@getawaytrekking.com</a> , <a href="mailto:wayne@getawaytrekking.com">wayne@getawaytrekking.com</a> Website: <a href="http://www.getawaytrekking.com">www.getawaytrekking.com</a>	30/05, 18/06, 13/07	<b>YES</b>
Kokoda Spirit P.O. Box 549 Narellan, NSW 2567, Australia Wayne Wetherall (Manager) Email: <a href="mailto:kokodaspirit@bigpond.com">kokodaspirit@bigpond.com</a> Website: <a href="http://www.kokodaspirit.com">www.kokodaspirit.com</a>	30/05, 18/06, 13/07	<b>NO</b>
Back Track Adventures (Peregrine Adventures) P.O. Box , Brisbane, Qld 4000, Australia Ray Baker / Jim Drapes (Managers) Email: <a href="mailto:peregrine@backtrack.com.au">peregrine@backtrack.com.au</a> Website: <a href="http://www.backtrack.com.au">www.backtrack.com.au</a>	30/05	<b>YES</b>
Kokoda Historical 2/44 Keerong Ave Russell Vale, NSW, Australia 2517 David Howell / Charles Jons PNG Address: P O Box 4265, Boroko, NCD, PNG Email: <a href="mailto:kokodahistorical@yahoo.com.au">kokodahistorical@yahoo.com.au</a> Web: <a href="http://www.kokodahistorical.com">www.kokodahistorical.com</a>	30/05	<b>YES</b>
Legend Guided Tours P.O. Box 6702, Boroko, NCD 111, PNG Attn: Max Kaso (Managing / Guide) Email: <a href="mailto:mkaso-06@yahoo.com">mkaso-06@yahoo.com</a>	30/05-N/A, 18/06	<b>NO</b>
Toogee Treks PO Box 383 Raymond Terrace NSW 2324 Australia Robert Frost <a href="mailto:info@toogeetreks.com">info@toogeetreks.com</a> , <a href="mailto:frost@hunterlink.net.au">frost@hunterlink.net.au</a> , <a href="mailto:admin@toogeetreks.com">admin@toogeetreks.com</a>	18/06, 13/07	<b>NO</b>
Northern disTRACKtions 1 Piccadilly St, Hyde Park, QLD, Australia David Page-Dhu (Manager) Email: <a href="mailto:dpagedhu@beyond.net.au">dpagedhu@beyond.net.au</a>	18/06, 13/07	<b>NO</b>
Southern Cross Trekkers P.O. Box 2002, Brookside, Qld 4053, Australia Julie Jugowitz (Co-ordinator) Email: <a href="mailto:sc_trekkers@optus.net">sc_trekkers@optus.net</a>	18/06, 13/07	<b>NO</b>

## Appendix 4 – Pilot Survey

Please take the time to answer the following questions designed by students at the University of Technology, Sydney. UTS are working with the PNG Tourism Promotion Authority with the aim to develop sustainable tourism in PNG. You do not have to answer any question that you feel intimidated by however, the researchers ask that you fill it in to the best of your abilities. Your time and responses are greatly appreciated.

1. What was the initial reason for your choice to travel to the Kokoda Track? (Please tick only one box)

- |  |                          |   |   |                          |   |
|--|--------------------------|---|---|--------------------------|---|
| To take a holiday                        | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 | To discover a different culture/environment | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| To learn about Australian History        | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 | For a physical challenge                    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| To learn about Papua New Guinean culture | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 | For your own personal development           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 7 |
| To be surrounded by nature               | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 | Other_____                                  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 8 |

Office  
Space

1\_\_\_

2. How important were the following aspects in your decision to travel to the Kokoda Track? (Please circle the appropriate number for each aspect)

	Very important	Important	Of little importance	Not at all important
The natural environment	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The type of activity	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The level of risk and adventure	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The experience that would be gained	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The knowledge that would be gained	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The experience of authentic elements	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Your own personal development	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The degree of emotional attachment	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The recreational experience	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
PNG culture	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Going somewhere your friends haven't been	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Security	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Cost	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Accommodation type	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Food type	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Length of trek	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____

2 a\_\_\_

b\_\_\_

c\_\_\_

d\_\_\_

e\_\_\_

f\_\_\_

g\_\_\_

h\_\_\_

i\_\_\_

j\_\_\_

k\_\_\_

l\_\_\_

m\_\_\_

n\_\_\_

o\_\_\_

p\_\_\_

3. Were there any constraints in your decision to travel to Kokoda?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

3\_\_\_

4. How do you feel now that you've finished the trek?

	Very much so	Quite so	Possibly	Not at all
Happy	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Frustrated	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Anxious	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Fulfilled	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Upset	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____

4 a\_\_\_

b\_\_\_

c\_\_\_

d\_\_\_

e\_\_\_

5a. On the scale below, please circle your *initial* expectations for the trek.

	Very high	High	Neutral	Low	No expectations
Expected Level of difficulty	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Expected Level of enjoyment	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Expected level of emotional change	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Expected Level of physical change	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Expected Level of knowledge gained	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Expected Level of cultural interaction	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____

5a a\_\_\_

b\_\_\_

c\_\_\_

d\_\_\_

e\_\_\_

f\_\_\_



5b. On the scale below, please indicate your assessment of the following aspects now that you have completed the trek.

	Very high	High	Neutral	Low	None
Level of difficulty	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Level of enjoyment	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Level of emotional change	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Level of physical change	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Level of knowledge gained	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Level of cultural interaction	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____

5b a\_\_\_\_  
b\_\_\_\_  
c\_\_\_\_  
d\_\_\_\_  
e\_\_\_\_  
f\_\_\_\_

6. Now that you've finished the trek, please indicate how satisfied you were with the following aspects. (Please circle the appropriate number for each aspect)

	Very satisfied	Satisfied	Quite unsatisfied	Not at all satisfied
The natural environment	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The type of activity	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The level of risk and adventure	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The experience gained	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The knowledge gained	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The level of authenticity	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Your own personal development	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The degree of emotional attachment	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
The recreational experience	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
PNG culture	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Going somewhere your friends haven't been	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Security	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Cost	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Accommodation type	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Food type	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Length of trek	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____

6 a\_\_\_\_  
b\_\_\_\_  
c\_\_\_\_  
d\_\_\_\_  
e\_\_\_\_  
f\_\_\_\_  
g\_\_\_\_  
h\_\_\_\_  
i\_\_\_\_  
j\_\_\_\_  
k\_\_\_\_  
l\_\_\_\_  
m\_\_\_\_  
n\_\_\_\_  
o\_\_\_\_  
p\_\_\_\_

7. How did you first hear about the Kokoda Track? (Please tick one box only)

Television	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Magazines	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Newspaper	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	Books	<input type="checkbox"/> 6
Internet	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	School	<input type="checkbox"/> 7
Travel Agent	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	Friends/Family	<input type="checkbox"/> 8

7\_\_\_\_

8. Did the tour operator provide you with:

More	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Equal	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
Less	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Different	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Interesting	<input type="checkbox"/> 6

information about the Kokoda Track than you already had? (You may tick more than one box)

8 a\_\_\_\_  
b\_\_\_\_  
c\_\_\_\_  
d\_\_\_\_  
e\_\_\_\_

**For the following questions please circle the number which best suits your response**

9. Did the information provided by the tour operator prior to the trek:

a. Change your feelings towards the culture and area?

1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Very Much	Slightly	Not really	Not at all

9 a\_\_\_\_

b. Prepare you for the trek?

1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____
Very Much	Slightly	Not really	Not at all

b\_\_\_\_

c. Change your reason (from question 1) for undertaking the walk?

1\_\_\_\_\_2\_\_\_\_\_3\_\_\_\_\_4  
Very Much Slightly Not really Not at all

c\_\_\_

The following questions refer to the guides.

10a. The standard of service provided by the guides was:

1\_\_\_\_\_2\_\_\_\_\_3\_\_\_\_\_4\_\_\_\_\_5  
Very high High Neutral Low None

10 a\_\_\_

b. The standard of English spoken by the guides was:

1\_\_\_\_\_2\_\_\_\_\_3\_\_\_\_\_4\_\_\_\_\_5  
Very high High Neutral Low None

b\_\_\_

c. Were they trained in first aid?

Yes <sub>1</sub>  
No <sub>2</sub>

c\_\_\_

d. Did they have VHF radio?

Yes <sub>1</sub>  
No <sub>2</sub>

d\_\_\_

e. Did they have any knowledge of the

	Yes	No
i) military history?	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>1</sub>	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>2</sub>
ii) Koiari/Orokaiva history?	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>1</sub>	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>2</sub>
iii) natural environments?	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>1</sub>	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>2</sub>

e i\_\_\_

ii\_\_\_

iii\_\_\_

11. How many trekkers do you believe the Kokoda track is able to accommodate per year before the surrounding environments are negatively effected? \_\_\_\_\_

11\_\_\_

12. Do you think there should be a limit on the number of trekkers walking the Kokoda track per year?

Yes <sub>1</sub>  
No <sub>2</sub>

12\_\_\_

The following question refers to the shower/toilet amenities.

13. Did you find the amenities to be adequate at each campsite?

Yes	No	Sometimes
<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>1</sub>	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>2</sub>	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>3</sub>
<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>1</sub>	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>2</sub>	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>3</sub>
<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>1</sub>	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>2</sub>	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>3</sub>
<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>1</sub>	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>2</sub>	<input type="checkbox"/> <sub>3</sub>

13 a\_\_\_

b\_\_\_

c\_\_\_

d\_\_\_

Did you have separate male/female amenities?

Were the amenities discreet?

Were the amenities hygienic?

14. Was this your first time undertaking the trek?

Yes <sub>1</sub>  
No <sub>2</sub>

14\_\_\_

15. Has your experience had a *positive* influence on your decision to return to:

a. Papua New Guinea Yes <sub>1</sub>  
No <sub>2</sub>

15 a\_\_\_

b. Kokoda Yes <sub>1</sub>  
No <sub>2</sub>

b\_\_\_

16. What is your level of fitness?

1\_\_\_\_\_2\_\_\_\_\_3\_\_\_\_\_4\_\_\_\_\_5  
Very fit Quite fit Not Bad Unfit Don't do any form of exercise

16\_\_\_

17. How many travelling companions were you with? \_\_\_\_\_

17\_\_\_

18. How many leisure holidays do you take a year?

One <sub>1</sub> 4 or more <sub>3</sub>  
2-3 <sub>2</sub>

18\_\_\_

19. What is your general accommodation preference whilst on holidays? (Please circle the appropriate number for each)

	Very important	Important	Neutral	Of little importance	Not at all important
Tent/Camping	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Bush Hut (No services)	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Lodge (Serviced)	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Backpacker lodgings	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Motel	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
2-4 Star Hotel	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
5 Star Resort	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____

19 a\_\_\_  
b\_\_\_  
c\_\_\_  
d\_\_\_  
e\_\_\_  
f\_\_\_  
g\_\_\_

20. On the Kokoda Track would you have preferred to eat (please circle the appropriate number for each):

	Very much so	Somewhat	Not sure	Not really	Not at all
Only local dishes	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Only western food	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Western food prepared by locals	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Dehydrated food	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____

20 a\_\_\_  
b\_\_\_  
c\_\_\_  
d\_\_\_

21. For the following statements please describe yourself in terms of your preference for travel? (Please circle one number only)

a. I prefer to look for the ECOTOURISM product first.

1 \_\_\_\_\_ 2 \_\_\_\_\_ 3 \_\_\_\_\_ 4 \_\_\_\_\_ 5 \_\_\_\_\_  
Very much so      Somewhat      Not sure      Not really      Not at all

21 a\_\_\_

b. I am very much an EXPLORER/ADVENTURE SEEKER in my travel style.

1 \_\_\_\_\_ 2 \_\_\_\_\_ 3 \_\_\_\_\_ 4 \_\_\_\_\_ 5 \_\_\_\_\_  
Very much so      Somewhat      Not sure      Not really      Not at all

b\_\_\_

c. I prefer to have my holiday itinerary ORGANISED and travel within a group.

1 \_\_\_\_\_ 2 \_\_\_\_\_ 3 \_\_\_\_\_ 4 \_\_\_\_\_ 5 \_\_\_\_\_  
Very much so      Somewhat      Not sure      Not really      Not at all

c\_\_\_

d. My main interest for travelling is to explore the INDIGENOUS/CULTURAL aspects of the destination.

1 \_\_\_\_\_ 2 \_\_\_\_\_ 3 \_\_\_\_\_ 4 \_\_\_\_\_ 5 \_\_\_\_\_  
Very much so      Somewhat      Not sure      Not really      Not at all

d\_\_\_

e. I am particularly interested in HISTORICAL/WAR TOURISM.

1 \_\_\_\_\_ 2 \_\_\_\_\_ 3 \_\_\_\_\_ 4 \_\_\_\_\_ 5 \_\_\_\_\_  
Very much so      Somewhat      Not sure      Not really      Not at all

e\_\_\_

22. Which age group do you belong to?

18-24 <sub>1</sub>      35-44 <sub>3</sub>      60 or over <sub>5</sub>  
25-34 <sub>2</sub>      45-59 <sub>4</sub>

22\_\_\_

23. What is your gender?

Male <sub>1</sub>  
Female <sub>2</sub>

23\_\_\_

24. Your highest level of education obtained is:

- Year 10  1
- Year 12  2
- Begun tertiary education  3
- TAFE Certificate  4
- Diploma/Degree  5
- Masters/PHD  6

24\_\_

25. What is your home postcode and the country in which you reside? \_\_\_\_\_,

25\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

26. Who was the tour operator you undertook the trek with? \_\_\_\_\_

26\_\_

Thank you.

Supervisor: Stephen Wearing  
University of Technology, Sydney  
Email: s.wearing@uts.edu.au

## Appendix 5 – Letter to Operators

30 May 2007

Dear Operator

I am writing to ask for your assistance in distributing the attached questionnaire to your customers as a group, **upon completion** of their trek on the Kokoda Track. The questionnaire has been designed as part of my Bachelor of Management in Tourism (Honours) research project at the University of Technology, Sydney. The aim of the study is to discover the 'Kokoda tourist', demographically and psychographically and to determine what it sees as the vision for Kokoda. The results of the questionnaire will give you a better understanding of your market segment, will contribute to better management of the Track and aid in sustainable tourism development. I am happy to send you a report of the findings once collated to show you a breakdown of the market segment.

To obtain statistically significant results I am aiming to collect over 200 completed questionnaires from a range of tour operators and ask that they be distributed to trekkers over the age of 18. The minimum number that I would ask of you is twenty by the end of July. These can be sent in a complete package to UTS (address details below). The trekkers have also been given the option to take the survey with them and send or fax them directly to the University. For this reason I have provided details at the end of the questionnaire.

You may choose to print copies of the questionnaire yourself otherwise I am happy to send you a batch of questionnaires to give to the trekkers. For further information I can be contacted via email at [Simone.Grabowski@uts.edu.au](mailto:Simone.Grabowski@uts.edu.au). The project is being supervised by Associate Professor Stephen Wearing who can be contacted on 61 2 9514 5432 or [Stephen.Wearing@uts.edu.au](mailto:Stephen.Wearing@uts.edu.au).

Yours sincerely

*S. Grabowski*

Simone Grabowski

UTS Kuring-gai Campus  
School of Leisure, Sport and Tourism  
PO Box 222  
Lindfield NSW 2070  
Australia  
Fax: +61 2 9514 5195

## Appendix 6 – Questionnaire

### Questionnaire – Kokoda Track

Please take the time to answer the following questionnaire designed as part of a student research project at the University of Technology, Sydney. Feel free to answer all questions or only those you are most comfortable with. The survey is anonymous and confidential. Your time and responses are greatly appreciated as a means of continuous improvement of the Kokoda Track. If you would prefer to take this survey home, could you please fax or send it to UTS - details on final page.

1. From the following list indicate the three most important reasons for your initial decision to travel to the Kokoda Track? *Please tick up to three boxes only*

- |   |                          |   |                                    |                          |   |
|---|--------------------------|---|------------------------------------|--------------------------|---|
| To take a holiday                           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 | For a physical challenge           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| To learn about Australian History           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 | For your own personal development  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 7 |
| To learn about Papua New Guinean culture    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 | To retrace personal family history | <input type="checkbox"/> | 8 |
| To be surrounded by nature                  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 | Other _____                        | <input type="checkbox"/> | 9 |
| To discover a different culture/environment | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |                                    |                          |   |

Office  
Space

1\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_

2. How important were the following aspects in your decision to travel to the Kokoda Track? *Please circle the appropriate number for each aspect*

	Very important	Important	Unsure	Of little importance	Not at all important
The natural environment	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
The type of activity	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
The level of risk and adventure	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
The experience that would be gained	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
The knowledge that would be gained	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
The experience of authentic elements	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Your own personal development	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
The degree of emotional attachment	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
The recreational experience	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
PNG culture	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Going somewhere your friends haven't been	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Security	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Cost	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Accommodation type	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Food type	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Length of trek	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____

2 a\_\_\_\_  
b\_\_\_\_  
c\_\_\_\_  
d\_\_\_\_  
e\_\_\_\_  
f\_\_\_\_  
g\_\_\_\_  
h\_\_\_\_  
i\_\_\_\_  
j\_\_\_\_  
k\_\_\_\_  
l\_\_\_\_  
m\_\_\_\_  
n\_\_\_\_  
o\_\_\_\_  
p\_\_\_\_

3. Were there any constraints in your decision to travel to Kokoda? Please describe them.

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_.

3\_\_\_\_

4. How do you feel now that you've finished the trek?

	Very much so	Quite so	Unsure	Possibly	Not at all
Happy	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Frustrated	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Anxious	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Fulfilled	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____
Upset	1_____	2_____	3_____	4_____	5_____

4 a\_\_\_\_  
b\_\_\_\_  
c\_\_\_\_  
d\_\_\_\_  
e\_\_\_\_

5a. On the scale below, please circle your *initial* expectations for the trek.

	Very high	High	Neutral	Low	No expectations
Expected Level of difficulty	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Expected Level of enjoyment	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Expected level of emotional change	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Expected Level of physical change	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Expected Level of knowledge gained	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Expected Level of cultural interaction	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____

5a a\_\_\_\_  
b\_\_\_\_  
c\_\_\_\_  
d\_\_\_\_  
e\_\_\_\_  
f\_\_\_\_

5b. On the scale below, please indicate your assessment of the following aspects now that you have completed the trek.

	Very high	High	Neutral	Low	None
Level of difficulty	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Level of enjoyment	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Level of emotional change	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Level of physical change	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Level of knowledge gained	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Level of cultural interaction	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____

5b a\_\_\_\_  
b\_\_\_\_  
c\_\_\_\_  
d\_\_\_\_  
e\_\_\_\_  
f\_\_\_\_

6. Now that you've finished the trek, please indicate how satisfied you were with the following aspects. *Please circle the appropriate number for each aspect*

	Very satisfied	Satisfied	Unsure	Quite unsatisfied	Not at all satisfied
The natural environment	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
The type of activity	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
The level of risk and adventure	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
The experience gained	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
The knowledge gained	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
The level of authenticity	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Your own personal development	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
The degree of emotional attachment	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
The recreational experience	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
PNG culture	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Going somewhere your friends haven't been	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Security	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Cost	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Accommodation type	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Food type	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____
Length of trek	1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____

6 a\_\_\_\_  
b\_\_\_\_  
c\_\_\_\_  
d\_\_\_\_  
e\_\_\_\_  
f\_\_\_\_  
g\_\_\_\_  
h\_\_\_\_  
i\_\_\_\_  
j\_\_\_\_  
k\_\_\_\_  
l\_\_\_\_  
m\_\_\_\_  
n\_\_\_\_  
o\_\_\_\_  
p\_\_\_\_

7. How did you first hear about the Kokoda Track? *Please tick one box only*

Television	<input type="checkbox"/>	1	Magazines	<input type="checkbox"/>	5
Newspaper	<input type="checkbox"/>	2	Books	<input type="checkbox"/>	6
Internet	<input type="checkbox"/>	3	School	<input type="checkbox"/>	7
Travel Agent	<input type="checkbox"/>	4	Friends/Family	<input type="checkbox"/>	8

7\_\_\_\_

8. Did the tour operator provide you with:

More	<input type="checkbox"/>	1
Equal	<input type="checkbox"/>	2
Less	<input type="checkbox"/>	3
Different	<input type="checkbox"/>	4
Interesting	<input type="checkbox"/>	5

8 a\_\_\_\_  
b\_\_\_\_  
c\_\_\_\_  
d\_\_\_\_  
e\_\_\_\_

information about the Kokoda Track than you already had? *You may tick more than one box*







22. Which age group do you belong to?

- |       |                          |       |                          |            |                          |
|-------|--------------------------|-------|--------------------------|------------|--------------------------|
| 18-24 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 35-44 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 55-64      | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25-34 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 45-54 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 65 or over | <input type="checkbox"/> |

22\_\_

23. What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

23\_\_

24. What is the highest level of education you have completed or are currently undertaking? *Please tick one box*

- |                                       |                          |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Year 10                               | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Year 12                               | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Trade/technical certificate           | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| TAFE certificate/diploma              | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| University – bachelors degree/diploma | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| University - postgraduate             | <input type="checkbox"/> |

24\_\_

25. Which of the following *best* describes your current employment status? *Please tick one box*

- |                            |                          |                               |                          |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Home or family duties      | <input type="checkbox"/> | Unemployed, looking for work  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Student                    | <input type="checkbox"/> | Retired, not looking for work | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Full-time paid work        | <input type="checkbox"/> | Volunteer work                | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Part-time/casual paid work | <input type="checkbox"/> | Other _____                   | <input type="checkbox"/> |

25\_\_

26. What is your home postcode *and* the country in which you reside? \_\_\_\_\_,

26\_\_

27. Who was the tour operator you undertook the trek with? \_\_\_\_\_

27\_\_

28. Thank you for reflecting on your experiences trekking the Kokoda Track. If there is anything else you would like the researcher to know in relation to your experience please use the space below.

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**Supervisor: Stephen Wearing**

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## Appendix 7 – Frequencies and Descriptive Statistics

### Question 1

#### Reasons for undertaking trek

Reason for trek(a)	Responses		Percent of Cases
	N	Percent	N
To take a holiday	17	4.5%	12.6%
To learn about Australian History	90	23.9%	66.7%
To learn about Papua New Guinean culture	21	5.6%	15.6%
To be surrounded by nature	8	2.1%	5.9%
To discover a different culture/environment	35	9.3%	25.9%
For a physical challenge	106	28.2%	78.5%
For your own personal development	60	16.0%	44.4%
To retrace personal family history	29	7.7%	21.5%
Other	10	2.7%	7.4%
Total	376	100.0%	278.5%

a Group

### Question 2

#### Importance of certain aspects in decision to travel

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Natural environment	136	1	5	1.99	.931
Type of activity	135	1	5	1.60	.784
Level of risk and adventure	137	1	5	1.92	.948
Experience that would be gained	137	1	4	1.46	.728
Knowledge that would be gained	136	1	4	1.61	.690
Experience of authentic elements	135	1	4	1.87	.799
Personal development	136	1	5	1.92	1.075
Degree of emotional attachment	134	1	5	2.29	1.089
Recreational experience	136	1	5	2.57	1.066
PNG culture	137	1	5	2.42	.991
Going somewhere your friends haven't	136	1	5	3.92	1.174
Security	137	1	5	3.28	1.212
Cost	136	1	5	3.48	1.068
Accommodation type	137	1	5	3.91	.898
Food type	136	1	5	3.71	.981
Length of trek	136	1	5	3.21	1.168
Valid N (listwise)	128				

Question 3

**Constraints in decision to travel**

Constraints in travel decision(a)	Responses		Percent of Cases
	N	Percent	N
Time	2	3.1%	3.8%
young family	2	3.1%	3.8%
Safety Risk	2	3.1%	3.8%
Cost	8	12.3%	15.1%
Study/work/family commitments	13	20.0%	24.5%
Fitness	10	15.4%	18.9%
Health	8	12.3%	15.1%
Age	2	3.1%	3.8%
Travelling alone	2	3.1%	3.8%
Dates	8	12.3%	15.1%
Not being able to complete trek	1	1.5%	1.9%
Weather	4	6.2%	7.5%
Finding an operator	1	1.5%	1.9%
Risk of disease	1	1.5%	1.9%
Knowledge	1	1.5%	1.9%
Total	65	100.0%	122.6%

a Group

Question 4

**Emotions post-trek**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Happy	135	1	4	1.17	.433
Frustrated	132	1	5	4.74	.758
Anxious	132	1	5	4.77	.705
Fulfilled	136	1	5	1.44	.876
Upset	132	1	5	4.70	.781
Valid N (listwise)	132				

Question 5a

**Expectation of certain aspects**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expected Level of difficulty	136	1	5	1.46	.654
Expected Level of enjoyment	136	1	5	2.13	.856
Expected level of emotional change	136	1	5	2.46	1.053
Expected level of physical change	136	1	5	2.29	1.025
Expected Level of knowledge gained	136	1	5	2.01	.699
Expected Level of cultural interaction	136	1	5	2.45	.926
Valid N (listwise)	136				

Question 5b

**Experience of certain aspects**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Level of difficulty	136	1	4	1.70	.681
Level of enjoyment	136	1	4	1.46	.676
Level of emotional change	136	1	4	1.88	.826
Level of physical change	136	1	5	2.18	.921
Level of knowledge gained	136	1	4	1.67	.609
Level of cultural interaction	136	1	4	1.89	.795
Valid N (listwise)	136				

Question 6

**Satisfaction of certain aspects of the experience**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Natural environment	136	1	3	1.44	.527
Type of activity	135	1	4	1.33	.518
Level of risk and adventure	135	1	4	1.53	.656
Experience that would be gained	136	1	3	1.37	.568
Knowledge that would be gained	136	1	3	1.46	.582
Experience of authentic elements	136	1	4	1.48	.688
Personal development	135	1	4	1.67	.733
Degree of emotional attachment	135	1	4	1.66	.682
Recreational experience	135	1	5	1.84	.745
PNG culture	136	1	4	1.91	.715
Going somewhere your friends haven't	131	1	5	2.43	.969
Security	135	1	5	2.05	.726
Cost	135	1	4	2.08	.681
Accommodation type	136	1	4	1.94	.581
Food type	136	1	5	2.11	.814
Length of trek	136	1	5	1.77	.655
Valid N (listwise)	129				

Question 7

**How did you first hear about the Kokoda Track?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Television	23	16.8	17.2	17.2
	Newspaper	3	2.2	2.2	19.4
	Internet	2	1.5	1.5	20.9
	Magazines	2	1.5	1.5	22.4
	Books	26	19.0	19.4	41.8
	School	19	13.9	14.2	56.0
	Family & Friends	58	42.3	43.3	99.3
	Other	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	134	97.8	100.0	
Missing	No response	3	2.2		
Total		137	100.0		

Question 8

**Source of information**

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	N
operator information(a)	More information	101	50.8%	74.3%
	Equal information	17	8.5%	12.5%
	Less information	6	3.0%	4.4%
	Different information	28	14.1%	20.6%
	Interesting information	47	23.6%	34.6%
Total		199	100.0%	146.3%

a Dichotomy group tabulated at value 1.

Question 9

**Information**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
a. Did the information change your feelings towards the culture and area?	136	1	5	2.49	1.294
b. Did the information prepare you for the trek?	136	1	5	1.63	.901
c. Did the information change your reason (from question 1) for undertaking the walk?	137	1	5	3.74	1.165
Valid N (listwise)	136				

Question 10a

**The standard of service provided by the tour operator**

N	Valid	137
	Missing	0
Mean		1.32
Std. Deviation		.593
Minimum		1
Maximum		4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very good	100	73.0	73.0	73.0
	Good	32	23.4	23.4	96.4
	Neutral	3	2.2	2.2	98.5
	Poor	2	1.5	1.5	100.0
	Total	137	100.0	100.0	

Question 10b

**Were guides trained in first aid?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	14	10.2	10.8	10.8
	Yes	116	84.7	89.2	100.0
	Total	130	94.9	100.0	
Missing	No response	7	5.1		
Total		137	100.0		

Question 10c

**Did the guides have knowledge of military history?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	127	92.7	92.7	92.7
	No	5	3.6	3.6	96.4
	Unsure	5	3.6	3.6	100.0
	Total	137	100.0	100.0	

**Did the guides have knowledge of Koiari/Orokaiva history?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	114	83.2	83.2	83.2
	No	7	5.1	5.1	88.3
	Unsure	16	11.7	11.7	100.0
	Total	137	100.0	100.0	

**Did the guides have knowledge of the natural environments?**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Yes	118	86.1	86.1	86.1
No	6	4.4	4.4	90.5
Unsure	13	9.5	9.5	100.0
Total	137	100.0	100.0	

**Question 11**

**Carrying Capacity**

N	Valid	70
	Missing	67
Mean		2967.14
Median		2250.00
Std. Deviation		3258.599
Minimum		100
Maximum		25000

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 0-999	11	8.0	15.7	15.7
1000-1999	14	10.2	20.0	35.7
2000-2999	12	8.8	17.1	52.9
3000-3999	14	10.2	20.0	72.9
4000-4999	3	2.2	4.3	77.1
5000-5999	12	8.8	17.1	94.3
6000-6999	2	1.5	2.9	97.1
7000+	2	1.5	2.9	100.0
Total	70	51.1	100.0	
Missing System	67	48.9		
Total	137	100.0		

**Question 12**

**Should there be a carrying capacity?**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid No	22	16.1	16.7	16.7
Yes	110	80.3	83.3	100.0
Total	132	96.4	100.0	
Missing No response	5	3.6		
Total	137	100.0		



Question 13

**Were the amenities adequate?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	51	37.2	37.2	37.2
	Sometimes	66	48.2	48.2	85.4
	No	20	14.6	14.6	100.0
	Total	137	100.0	100.0	

**Did you have separate male/female amenities?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	10	7.3	7.3	7.3
	Sometimes	43	31.4	31.4	38.7
	No	84	61.3	61.3	100.0
	Total	137	100.0	100.0	

**Were the amenities discreet?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	48	35.0	35.3	35.3
	Sometimes	60	43.8	44.1	79.4
	No	28	20.4	20.6	100.0
	Total	136	99.3	100.0	
Missing	No response	1	.7		
Total		137	100.0		

**Were the amenities hygienic?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	16	11.7	11.8	11.8
	Sometimes	65	47.4	47.8	59.6
	No	55	40.1	40.4	100.0
	Total	136	99.3	100.0	
Missing	No response	1	.7		
Total		137	100.0		

Question 14

**Was this your first time undertaking the trek?**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	10	7.3	7.3	7.3
	Yes	127	92.7	92.7	100.0
	Total	137	100.0	100.0	

Question 15

**Has your experience had a positive influence on your decision to return to Papua New Guinea**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	40	29.2	29.9	29.9
	Yes	94	68.6	70.1	100.0
	Total	134	97.8	100.0	
Missing	No response	3	2.2		
Total		137	100.0		

**Has your experience had a positive influence on your decision to return to Kokoda**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	18	13.1	13.4	13.4
	Yes	116	84.7	86.6	100.0
	Total	134	97.8	100.0	
Missing	No response	3	2.2		
Total		137	100.0		

Question 16

**Level of fitness**

N	Valid	135
	Missing	2
Mean		2.02
Median		2.00
Std. Deviation		.787

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	very fit	35	25.5	25.9	25.9
	quite fit	67	48.9	49.6	75.6
	not bad	28	20.4	20.7	96.3
	unfit	5	3.6	3.7	100.0
	Total	135	98.5	100.0	
Missing	Incorrectly entered	2	1.5		
Total		137	100.0		

Question 17

How many travelling companions were you with?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	19	13.9	13.9	13.9
1	39	28.5	28.5	42.3
2 <sup>a</sup>	14	10.2	10.2	52.6
3	11	8.0	8.0	60.6
4	11	8.0	8.0	68.6
5	7	5.1	5.1	73.7
6	6	4.4	4.4	78.1
7	7	5.1	5.1	83.2
8	2	1.5	1.5	84.7
9	2	1.5	1.5	86.1
10	2	1.5	1.5	87.6
11	2	1.5	1.5	89.1
12	1	.7	.7	89.8
13	1	.7	.7	90.5
14	1	.7	.7	91.2
15	1	.7	.7	92.0
16	1	.7	.7	92.7
17	4	2.9	2.9	95.6
18	1	.7	.7	96.4
19	1	.7	.7	97.1
21	2	1.5	1.5	98.5
25	1	.7	.7	99.3
30	1	.7	.7	100.0
Total	137	100.0	100.0	

a. median response

Question 18

How many leisure holidays do you take a year?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None	2	1.5	1.5	1.5
	one	56	40.9	41.5	43.0
	2-3	66	48.2	48.9	91.9
	4 or more	11	8.0	8.1	100.0
	Total	135	98.5	100.0	
Missing	No response	2	1.5		
Total		137	100.0		

Question 19

**Accommodation preference**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Tent/Camping	129	1	5	2.98	1.162
Bush Hut (no services)	126	1	5	3.31	1.062
Lodge (services)	127	1	5	3.10	1.045
Backpacker lodgings	125	1	5	3.84	1.003
Motel	128	1	5	2.87	1.053
2-4 star hotel	128	1	5	2.73	1.119
star resort	129	1	5	2.94	1.273
Valid N (listwise)	121				

Question 20

**Food Preference**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Preferred to eat only local dishes	136	1	5	2.46	.988
Preferred to eat only western food	135	1	5	3.03	1.165
Preferred to eat western food prepared by locals	132	1	5	2.93	1.106
Preferred to eat dehydrated food	133	1	5	3.48	1.235
Valid N (listwise)	132				

Question 21

**Travel Style**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
I prefer to look for the ECOTOURISM product first	135	1	5	3.00	1.140
I am very much an EXPLORER/ADVENTURE SEEKER in my travel style	136	1	5	2.25	1.160
I prefer to have my holiday itinerary ORGANISED and travel within a group.	135	1	5	3.30	1.148
My main interest for travelling is to explore the INDIGENOUS/CULTURAL aspects of the destination	136	1	5	2.85	1.202
I am particularly interested in HISTORICAL/WAR TOURISM.	137	1	5	2.36	1.156
Valid N (listwise)	134				

Question 22

**Age**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-24	3	2.2	2.2	2.2
	25-34	18	13.1	13.4	15.7
	35-44	38	27.7	28.4	44.0
	45-54	49	35.8	36.6	80.6
	55-64	24	17.5	17.9	98.5
	65+	2	1.5	1.5	100.0
	Total	134	97.8	100.0	
Missing	No response	3	2.2		
Total		137	100.0		

Question 23

**Gender**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	100	73.0	74.1	74.1
	female	35	25.5	25.9	100.0
	Total	135	98.5	100.0	
Missing	No response	2	1.5		
Total		137	100.0		

Question 24

**Highest level of education**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below year 10	1	.7	.8	.8
	year 10	12	8.8	9.0	9.8
	year 12	13	9.5	9.8	19.5
	trade certificate	10	7.3	7.5	27.1
	tafe certificate	23	16.8	17.3	44.4
	University degree	47	34.3	35.3	79.7
	University masters/PHD	27	19.7	20.3	100.0
	Total	133	97.1	100.0	
Missing	No response	4	2.9		
Total		137	100.0		

Question 25

**Employment status**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Home or family duties	3	2.2	2.3	2.3
	Student	2	1.5	1.5	3.8
	Full-time paid work	98	71.5	73.7	77.4
	Part-time/casual paid work	8	5.8	6.0	83.5
	Retired, not looking for work	6	4.4	4.5	88.0
	Volunteer work	1	.7	.8	88.7
	Other	15	10.9	11.3	100.0
	Total	133	97.1	100.0	
Missing	Incorrect entry	1	.7		
	No response	3	2.2		
	Total	4	2.9		
Total	137	100.0			

Question 26

**State**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Outside Australia	1	.7	.7	.7
NSW	46	33.6	34.3	35.1
VIC	32	23.4	23.9	59.0
QLD	38	27.7	28.4	87.3
SA	3	2.2	2.2	89.6
WA	9	6.6	6.7	96.3
TAS	5	3.6	3.7	100.0
Total	134	97.8	100.0	
No response	3	2.2		
Total	137	100.0		

Question 27

**Country of residence**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Australia	133	97.1	99.3	99.3
Japan	1	.7	.7	100.0
Total	134	97.8	100.0	
No response	3	2.2		
Total	137	100.0		

Question 28

**Tour Operator**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Kokoda Trekking Limited	23	16.8	17.6	17.6
Adventure Kokoda	94	68.6	71.8	89.3
BackTrack	12	8.8	9.2	98.5
Kokoda Historical	1	.7	.8	99.2
Niugini Holidays	1	.7	.8	100.0
Total	131	95.6	100.0	
No response	6	4.4		
Total	137	100.0		

Question 29

**Comments**

Comments(a)	Responses		Percent of Cases
	N	Percent	N
Recommend tour operator	2	1.7%	3.4%
Heard bad stories about other tour operators	1	.8%	1.7%
Importance of an experienced tour operator	3	2.5%	5.1%
Well organised trek which enhanced the experience	3	2.5%	5.1%
Operator treated porters better than other operators	1	.8%	1.7%
Outstanding guide	5	4.2%	8.5%
Good to have indigenous guides and porters	2	1.7%	3.4%
Poor communication from operator	1	.8%	1.7%
Wonderful porters	1	.8%	1.7%
Friendly locals	4	3.4%	6.8%
Locals should be receiving jobs and income as a result	3	2.5%	5.1%
Locals should develop as a result of tourism	1	.8%	1.7%
Trekking industry helps locals	1	.8%	1.7%
Locals should be left alone/happy	1	.8%	1.7%
Happy to do things for myself instead of porters helping	1	.8%	1.7%
Trekkers are inspired to help locals along the way	1	.8%	1.7%
I have become friends with the porters	1	.8%	1.7%
Sad state of affairs in Port Moresby	1	.8%	1.7%
Most humbling and enjoyable experience of my life/life changing	4	3.4%	6.8%
Emotionally satisfying	2	1.7%	3.4%
Good sense of achievement	1	.8%	1.7%
Mentally and physically challenging	3	2.5%	5.1%
Physically prepared but not mentally	1	.8%	1.7%
Surprised at intensity of the experience	1	.8%	1.7%
Very emotional experience	2	1.7%	3.4%
Good to be out of my comfort zone	1	.8%	1.7%

Informative and interesting experience	3	2.5%	5.1%
The trek wouldn't have been as fulfilling without the challenges	1	.8%	1.7%
Hardest thing I've ever done and glad I finished it	1	.8%	1.7%
Proud to be able to meet challenges	1	.8%	1.7%
First trekking experience	1	.8%	1.7%
No initial expectations	1	.8%	1.7%
Recommend the trek to all Australians	2	1.7%	3.4%
I am going back	3	2.5%	5.1%
I would spend more time there next time/hope to return	1	.8%	1.7%
Money well spent	1	.8%	1.7%
Born in PNG with connection to Kokoda	2	1.7%	3.4%
Less impact than expected	1	.8%	1.7%
Only completed half the trek due to illness	2	1.7%	3.4%
I felt I had to go to Kokoda as respect for diggers	1	.8%	1.7%
Important to see what the Diggers were confronted with	1	.8%	1.7%
Kokoda is special historically, culturally, environmentally	1	.8%	1.7%
It should be a military history and not adventure experience	1	.8%	1.7%
Many groups don't have knowledge of the war history	1	.8%	1.7%
Australians should know more about the Kokoda story	1	.8%	1.7%
Australian government hasn't done enough	1	.8%	1.7%
Fuzzy Wuzzies deserve a medal	1	.8%	1.7%
Promote Kokoda as a D-Day trek	1	.8%	1.7%
I grew up with the Kokoda Story	2	1.7%	3.4%
Wilderness trekking is great	1	.8%	1.7%
Trek doesn't need to be made easy	1	.8%	1.7%
Trekkers shouldn't be allowed to partake if they are unfit	2	1.7%	3.4%
Fitness test should be conducted prior to trek	1	.8%	1.7%
Facilities on track were as expected	1	.8%	1.7%
Campsites/areas don't need modernising	2	1.7%	3.4%
Sustainable camping areas can be moved around the jungle	1	.8%	1.7%
Latrines are poorly located (too close to water courses)	1	.8%	1.7%
Trekkers don't expect 5-star facilities	1	.8%	1.7%
Clean villages	1	.8%	1.7%
No rubbish should be left on the Track	2	1.7%	3.4%
Track, environment and PNG should be protected/maintained	4	3.4%	6.8%
Track doesn't need landscaping	1	.8%	1.7%
Beautiful place to visit	1	.8%	1.7%
Creeks were sensational	1	.8%	1.7%
Group size should be limited	3	2.5%	5.1%
Serenity was beautiful	1	.8%	1.7%
30 trekkers per day will easily manage	1	.8%	1.7%



Number of trekkers should reflect money needed to maintain track	1	.8%	1.7%
Communication on the track is important	1	.8%	1.7%
More signage/memorials needed on the track	2	1.7%	3.4%
Onsite information was brilliant	1	.8%	1.7%
More info on environment needed	1	.8%	1.7%
Disappointed at lack of Japanese content	1	.8%	1.7%
Not given enough information about daily walking times	1	.8%	1.7%
Kokoda should look at sustainable tourism rather than mining	1	.8%	1.7%
Would hate to see Kokoda closed to trekkers	1	.8%	1.7%
Track should be experienced by as many as possible	1	.8%	1.7%
More money needs to be spent on track maintenance	2	1.7%	3.4%
Total	118	100.0%	200.0%

a Group