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II. International
Conference on
**Tourism Dynamics
and Trends**



Vicerrectorado de
Relaciones Institucionales



Vicerrectorado de
Investigación



Hochschule Kempten
University of Applied Sciences



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University of Sannio, Italy
Akdeniz University, Turkey
Kempten University of Applied Sciences, Germany

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PREFACE


The International Conference on Tourism Dynamics and Trends is organized in collaboration with four Universities: University of Seville (Spain), University of Sannio (Italy), Akdeniz University (Turkey) and Kemptem University of Applied Sciences (Germany). The II International Meeting is hosted at the Faculty of Tourism and Finance, University of Seville in June 26th-29th, 2017.

This edition of the Conference is devoted to the memory of Steve Watson, profesor who was at John St John University, member of the Scientific Committee of the Conference and visiting professor at the Faculty of Tourism and Finance of the University of Seville.

The main aim of the Meeting in 2017 is to share the scientific knowledge and development in tourism, travel and hospitality area by providing a platform to share the most recent research, innovations and achievement in different topics on Tourism knowledge. The interdisciplinary and international character of the Meeting allows the researchers from all knowledge fields on Tourism to share different perspectives to tackle the complexity of reality, joining together efforts to analyze, evaluate and predict future situations.

The Conference generates a discussion forum in which scientists offer their vision about the advances and tendencies in the research in tourism, travel and hospitality area. The Conference bring together academics, master and doctoral students who are studying at tourism, travel and hopitality or related disciplines. Professionals of the tourism, travel and hospitality companies who are keen to know the latest developments in academic literature and like to share their expertise with the participants of the Conference were also invited to participate.

Finally, on behalf of the organizing committee members of University of Seville, Faculty of Tourism and Finance I like to thank all participants, authorities, and sponsors who support the event. Namely, I commend to Conference Sponsors: Vice Chancellor of Research (Vicerrectorado de Investigación) and Vice Chancellor of Institutional Relations (Vicerrectorado de Relaciones Institucionales) of the University of Seville and Seville Tourism Consortium (Consorcio de Turismo de Seville).



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FINANCIAL PROBLEMS OF HOTEL BUSINESSES: THE CASE OF TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to determine and evaluate the financial problems that hotel managers experience. Financial problems are the most crucial of all problems relating to business management since finance-related problems may be obstructive in the resolution of other functional problems. Especially among the problems of SME status businesses financial ones are of special importance. Characteristic features of hotel businesses make financial problems even more challenging. Therefore, an empirical study with a qualitative method was performed in Marmaris, an important center for tourism in Turkey, in order to determine the periodical financial problems that trouble hotel businesses, and, if need be, develop solutions to address them. According to the outcome of this research periodical financial problems are not of great importance. Other insignificant financial problems are: difficulties in debt collection, inadequacy of internal finance sources and inadequate sales income. It may be stated that accommodation businesses do not experience noteworthy financial problems during periods in which the demand for touristic businesses rise. The 2016 decrease of touristic demands in Turkey may extend the scope and significance of financial problems in the future.

Keywords: Hotel Businesses, Financial Problems, Financing, Marmaris.

INTRODUCTION

Businesses encounter problems as they work to achieve their goals. These problems can be classified on the grounds function such as finance, marketing etc. If not solved, these problems may grow and ultimately terminate the business. Managers are tasked with increasing the efficiency and productivity of businesses by solving the problems encountered. Problems can be described as deviations, which impair the healthy of businesses, threaten their continuity, and diminish their efficiency.

Financial problems can be considered more vital compared to other functional issues. This is because if financial problems are not efficiently overcome, they may adversely impact the success of other operations, opportunities may be lost, and the growth of the business may be undermined. For example, financial problems may trigger liquidity issues in healthy and growing businesses and subsequently leave them at risk for bankruptcy. On the other hand, growth would cease if a necessary investment in a developing business were not financed through appropriate resources. Still, with efficient financial management other functional problems can be eased and the risks the business faces can be managed.

Financial problems comprise internal and external factors, including those related to the business'

income/expense, cash flow, and the risks of financial and investment activities. Structural traits of hotel businesses increase the significance of financial problems with their critical financial structure. As the relative profitability of accommodation businesses falls, risk levels elevate and relations with financial institutions are negatively effected due to factors such as seasonal traits, oversensitive structures of demand for touristic accommodations based on political, economic, social and psychological factors, capital-intensive and labor-intensive structures, and intensive competition (Met, 2013).

The purpose of this study is to determine the cyclical financial problems of hotel businesses located in Marmaris, a major tourist destination in Turkey, and the extent to which they are impactful - and to provide suggestions as to how to overcome these problems.

LITERATURE

Compared to other fields, studies on investments and financing of the accommodation sector are limited (Met et al., 2013). Şenel (2007) focused on the differences of tourism-based investments compared to other sectors in his study, in which he examined tourism investments. According to this study, the main differences are that investments in tourism are both capital- and labor-intensive. Karadeniz et al. (2007), with the help of selected stakeholders, performed a SWOT analysis of the current Turkish tourism sector. These stakeholders included managers from the accommodation and travel sector along with academics of tourism. Results of the analysis showed that a strong aspect of tourism investments in Turkey is newer and more modern than its competitors. And the weaker aspect of these investments is dervied from the difficulty of finding financial resources, according to the analysis. Sakarya (2008), in his study, due to financing issues that tourism investments suffer, examined opportunities for touristic businesses to acquire funding through a public offering on IMKB in order to establish stronger financial structures and then offered suggestions. In a study carried out in Kuşadası (Tandoğan, 2001), it was revealed that accommodation facilities cannot utilize external financing sources due to several reasons, must use their own equities, and that investment and financing problems are directed to central administration or the owner. Another study (Ceylan & İlban, 2005) noted that the most important financial problems hotel businesses face stem from inadequate liquidity, late debt collection, inability to invest, etc. Poyraz (2008) conducted research to determine medium- or long-term fund resources and public offer trends of large-scale hotel businesses. Respectively, large-scale hotels' preference of medium-term financing sources includes medium-term bank credits, revolving credits, and equipment trusts. Met (2006), focused on whether installment credits of medium-term finance sources are used in the financing of equipment in the Turkish accommodations sector, revealing that installment financing sources are used by equipment sellers, but that installments were adjusted for short-term. Met et al. (2013) conducted research on the financing sources of investments and financial problems in the active season in hotel businesses in Marmaris. According to the results of the research, in the business season hotels mostly use, respectively, medium-term bank credits, short-term bank credits, financial leasing, and internal finance sources. The most frequently encountered problem in credit-based finance is the high costs of credit.

Most of the studies targeting financing problems businesses face take the issue from the aspect of SME financing issues. Some of these studies target accommodation SMEs. For instance; Yılmaz (2007) researched financing problems of tourism SMEs in Bodrum. Results showed that financing problems were top priority and in their solution SMEs preferred bank credits, borrowing money from relative or friends, and capital increase, respectively. In addition to this, difficulties in obtaining loans and high credit costs rank among the most important problems encountered in financing. Another study targeting small-scale hotels (Özer ve Yamak, 2000) concluded that corporate borrowing was invalid both during the establishment and business season and that funding requirements were mostly

met with personal savings and retained earnings. According to a new study conducted by Karadeniz et al. (2015) on accommodation and travel in SMEs in Van province the top financial problems were high energy costs, high taxation, high interest rates, lack of business capital, and low profit margins.

The dominant role of financial problems in SMEs is relevant for SMEs outside the tourism sector as well (Yıldız and Özolgun, 2010). In a study conducted by Met (2011) in which the financial problems of SMEs in Kyrgyzstan were investigated, SMEs evaluated credit conditions as inconvenient. In another study conducted in Turkey by Yörük (2007) the most preferred finance sources for SME businesses were equity capital (37.3%), commercial bank loans, and postdated checks and bills, respectively. According to a study conducted by Bekçi & Usul (2001) 2/3 of the SME business use liabilities, however, 4/5 of the liabilities come from commercial banks and 1/5 from the popular bank. These types of credits do not present efficient results to meet the investment and business capital of SMEs since liabilities SMEs prefer apart from equities are short-termed. The same study found that difficulties SMEs face while obtaining liabilities are listed, by their importance, as such: high credit interests, short-terms, high loan guarantee rates, inadequate credit amounts, and bureaucratic obstacles. According to certain studies targeting SMEs in Turkey (Bekçi & Usul, 2001; Demir & Sütçü, 2002; Korkmaz, 2003) the main difficulty SMEs face is financial inadequacy. The underlying factors behind the financial problems are the inability to conduct cash sales and collect debts when they are matured (Topal et al., 2006). Furthermore, on credit purchases have shorter terms than on credit sales (Bekçi & Usul, 2001). As a result, businesses mostly experience business capital issues. The most preferred sequence in financial resource obtainment is (1) commercial bank loans and (2) equities (Demir & Sütçü, 2002; Topal et al. 2006; Korkmaz, 2003; Bayraktar & Köse, <http://www.emu.edu.tr,10.03.2010>). Most of the SME businesses utilize incentives, but most of them also find incentives inadequate (Bekçi & Usul, 2001). Yörük's (2007) study found similar results. Major financial problems SMEs encounter belated debt collections, excess credit sales, equity inadequacy, and high expenses. SMEs do not know about and are unable to utilize the modern finance techniques such as factoring, forfeiting, leasing, venture capital, as well as they are unable to take advantage of traditional money and capital market devices (Bekçi & Usul, 2001; Topal et al., 2006; Zor and Akın, 2008). When SMEs cannot overcome their own financial obstacles the need for government fundings and regulations becomes a necessity. These supports and regulation may come as direct financial resources as well as information transfers and training as to where and how to find financial resources (Tokay qtd. in Demir & Sütçü, 2002).

PURPOSE AND METHOD OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of this research is to determine financial problems that accommodation businesses face and offer suggestions as to their solution. For this purpose, the research took place in Marmaris, a major tourist center of Turkey, in July-August of 2015. The research includes -star hotels with a tourism operation license. A list that comprises all the hotel businesses within this range was requested from Muğla Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism. According to data from July 2015 a total of 89 tourism businesses with an operation license are registered in the directorate with 15 five-star, 22 four-star, 34 three-star, 17 two-star and 1 one-star. This number formed the research population. If holiday resorts, boutique hotels, etc. are included in the list of accommodation businesses, the population can be regarded as larger. "Quota sampling method" was applied in sampling selection and a fifty percent proportion of hotels in each star-group were decided for inclusion. However, due to both a short time-span and the fact that some hotel managers were unwilling to interview, this proportion was not reached. As a result, 6 five-star, 8 four-star, 11 three-star, 6 two-star and a single one-star - a total of 32 - we have taken into the study. Considering the population, this sampling represents 32% of the population.

The research utilized an in-depth interview and qualitative data gathering methods. With this method, the goal was to determine the financial problems that hotel businesses face by conducting interviews

with structured questions. Interviews were made using a form with both close- and open-ended questions. In some hotels because the manager was not available at the time, the questionnaire was left in the establishment to be received later with the questions answered. The questionnaire consists of two sections. The first section contains questions purposed to determine profile properties of hotel businesses and the second section targeted financial issues. In the tables, percentages and frequencies of the answers of hotel managers were given and interpreted.

Profile Properties of Investigated Hotel Businesses

Table 1 offers certain properties of hotels contained in the research. The status of the research topic requires answering managers to be of high rank and certain quality. Participating hotel managers carry in average the titles of “general manager”, “financial manager” and “accounting manager” and each represents a ranking of similar status among them. Of the included hotels in the research almost all of them are between 5 to 2-star range, with only 1 being one-star. Three-star hotels make up 1/3 of all hotels (11 in total). Most of the hotels that were investigated targeted foreign markets. The client portfolio of these hotels comprised at least 80% foreign guests. Most of the investigated hotels were equity corporations (corporation and limited) with some operated under sole proprietorship. In management types, hotels that were run by their sole owner and by professional managers were almost equal in number. While sole proprietors ran 13 hotels, professional managers managed 14. Renters ran a small portion (5) of these hotels. An important proportion of the investigated hotels (12) operate between 51 to 100 rooms. The rest operate 50 rooms more or less. All of the hotels in this study were independent businesses. In other words, they were not part of any larger chain. Half of the investigated hotels classify as small business as they employ less than 50 staff members. Among the businesses that participated in this study, a hotel with over 200 staff members was included. But because EU criteria considers any establishment with under 260 employees SME (Özkanlı & Namazalieva, 2006), we can say that the investigated hotels were all classified as SMEs, which in turn classifies this research as SME study. Hotels that were investigated had high occupancy rates. Almost all of them had over 70% occupancy rate. However, because most of the hotels (27) included in the study are only active in season, certain discrepancies arise as to whether the occupancy rates represent a yearly table or only display the numbers during seasonal activity. Acknowledging the occupancy rates as high offers a hint about the financial performance hotels have.

Table 1. Profile Properties of Investigated Hotel Businesses

Variables	f	%	Variables	f	%
Titles of Replied Manager			Room Numbers of Hotels		
Financial manager	11	34,4	1-50	3	9,3
Accounting manager	9	28,1	51-100	12	37,5
General manager	12	37,5	101-150	6	18,8
Total	32	100,0	151-200	5	15,6
Star Numbers of Hotels			201 over	6	18,8
5 Star	6	18,8	Total	32	100
4 Star	8	25,0	Independent or Member of A Chain		
3 Star	11	34,4	Independent (Single)	32	100
2 Star	6	18,8	Native chain	-	-

1 Star	1	3,1	Foreign chain	-	-
Total	32	100,0	Total	32	100
Customer Structure			Number of Employees		
Foreign 95% - 5% Domestic	15	46,9	1-50	16	50,0
90% Foreign 10% - Domestic	10	31,3	51-100	4	12,5
Foreign 85% - 15% Domestic	5	15,6	101-150	9	28,1
Foreign 80% - 20% Domestic	2	6,2	151-200	3	9,4
Total	32	100	201 over	32	100,0
Legal Status of Hotels			Total		
Sole proprietorship	6	18,8	Occupancy Rates in Recent Years		
Corporation	18	56,2	%50-%70	1	3,1
limited company	8	25,0	%71-%85	9	28,1
Total	32	100,0	%86-%100	22	68,8
Management and Ownership Types of Hotels			Total		
Operated by the owner.	13	40,6	Period of Operation		
Run by professional managers.	14	43,8	Seasonal	27	84,4
Operated with rentals.	5	15,6	Yearly	5	15,6
Total	32	100	Total	32	100,0

Financial Problems of the Investigated Hotel Businesses

Two basic questions were asked of hotels included in the study in order to determine their financial problems. By listing all possible financial problems, the first question aimed to determine general financial problems and their degree of importance by directing a five-scale question ranging from “most” problems to “least”. Possible financial problems are shown in Table 2 including the classifications of the answers. The second basic question was meant to determine (sub) problems that would lead to the determination of “difficulties encountered in credit financing” which hold an important place among financial issues. Financial problems and their answers are listed in Table 3.

Answers regarding financial problems can be grouped under three headers including 1) the most important financial problems, derived from the combination of “the most” and “very much”, 2) the least important financial problems, derived from the “less” and “the least and 3) insignificant financial problems. According to this the most important financial problems that the hotels of the study face are listed as “high fixed costs”, “high material costs”, “impact of exchange rates”, “high labour costs”, “lack of government incentives and support” etc.

By degree of importance, the least important financial problems that hotel businesses are “difficulties, delays in debt collection and non-paying receivables”, “insufficient internal finance sources”, “insufficient sales income”, “high investment costs”, “non-cash sales”, “equity capital inadequacy”, “inadequate operation income”, “inadequate seller’s credits”, “difficulties in loan obtainment”, “cash-deficiencies and shortage” etc. Most of the hotels are gathered in this group.

Insignificant financial problems are, as evaluated by the businesses: “loss of sales opportunity due to shortages in stocks”, “difficulties faced during loan obtainment”, “cash-deficiency and shortage”, “inadequate seller’s credits”, “uncertainty of future during financial plannings”, “uncertainty and risks of investments” etc.

Some of the financial problems were found in more than one group while the groups were formed. For example “difficulties in credit obtainment” was included in both the least important and insignificant group, as some hotels consider this problem as less important and some as insignificant. Difficulties faced in credit obtainment were scored as less important by 10 hotels while 22 answered it was insignificant. Therefore, the importance of a financial problem varies by each establishment. Groupings and linings reflect the importance (or insignificance) of the questions.

Table 2. Financial Problems

Financial Problems	Very Important				Less Important				Insignificant	
	Most		Much		Less		Very Few		None	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Cash-deficiencies and shortage	-	-	1	3,1	5	15,6	5	15,6	20	62,5
Difficulties, delays in debt collection and non-paying receivables	-	-	3	9,4	11	34,4	9	28,1	9	28,1
Loss of sales opportunity due to shortages in stocks	-	-	-	-	1	3,1	4	12,5	27	84,4
Uncertainty of future during financial plannings	-	-	2	6,2	8	25,0	3	9,4	19	59,4
Risks and uncertainties of investments	-	-	3	9,4	9	28,1	2	6,2	18	56,2
Equity capital inadequacy	-	-	3	9,4	5	15,6	8	25,0	16	50,0
Insufficient internal finance sources	-	-	-	-	7	21,9	12	37,5	13	40,6
Difficulties in loan obtainment	-	-	-	-	9	28,1	1	3,1	22	68,8
Inadequate operation income	-	-	5	15,6	4	12,5	7	21,9	16	50,0
Insufficient sales income	-	-	1	3,1	9	28,1	7	21,9	15	46,9
Inadequate seller’s credits	-	-	-	-	4	12,5	8	25,0	20	62,5
Non-cash sales	1	3,1	4	12,5	8	25,0	6	18,8	13	40,6
High investment cost	-	-	2	6,2	11	34,4	4	12,5	15	46,9
High labor costs	7	21,9	11	34,4	5	15,6	2	6,2	7	21,9
High material costs	3	9,4	19	59,4	2	6,2	1	3,1	7	21,9
High fixed costs	7	21,9	16	50,0	-	-	1	3,1	8	25,0
Lack of government incentives and support	9	28,1	6	18,8	2	6,2	-	-	15	46,9
High tax rates	11	34,4	14	43,8	-	-	-	-	7	21,9

Impact of exchange rates	2	6,2	18	56,2	2	6,2	3	9,4	7	21,9
Intense competition in the sector	15	46,9	10	31,2	-	-	6	18,8	1	3,1

When the internal financing sources of businesses (earnings and expenses that do not require cash outflow such as amortization) are inadequate, credit financing becomes an option. Despite that “difficulties in credit obtainment” are not regarded as an important financial problem, credits are a frequently applied option in overcoming financial problems. Difficulties in credit obtainment and the evaluations of hotel managers are given in Table 3.

The most encountered and important financial problem during credit obtainment in hotels that need a loan is “high credit interest rates” (65.6%). “Load of contract conditions” is another problem accepted as less important. Credit term, amount, guarantees, financial tables, business record, equity and problems as such were considered insignificant in hotel financing with loans.

Table 3. Encountering Difficulties in Credit Obtaining

Financial Problems	Very Important				Less Important				Insignificant	
	More		Much		Less		Very Few		None	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Inadequacy of loan amount	-	-	4	12,5	2	6,2	5	15,6	21	65,6
Lack of loan maturity	-	-	4	12,5	1	3,1	5	15,6	22	68,8
High credit interest rates	10	31,2	11	34,4	4	12,5	-	-	7	21,9
Load of contract conditions	4	12,5	6	18,8	8	25,0	4	12,5	10	31,2
Collateral problems	4	12,5	4	12,5	2	6,2	1	3,1	21	65,6
Inadequacy of the financial statements and information that show the company	-	-	4	12,5	2	6,2	4	12,5	22	68,8
Previous negative record	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3,1	21	65,6
Inadequate equity ratio	-	-	4	12,5	2	6,2	2	6,2	24	75,0
Muchness of credit formalities	4	12,5	5	15,6	7	21,9	4	12,5	12	37,5
Lack of grace period	8	25,0	3	9,4	7	21,9	4	12,5	10	31,2

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Including 32 hotels in Marmaris and done by qualitative methodology this study concluded that financial problems of these hotels are not often fundamental. On the contrary, less important financial problems are encountered widely.

While looking over the financial problems that most of hotels reported as being very important, it is absolutely seen that these problems are regarding certain characteristics of tourism sector. For example: high tax rates, fierce competition environment, high fixed incomes, exchange rates, high labor costs, etc. These problems are the general characteristics and structural features of the hospitality industry. That the hotel managers see these problems as significant is evaluated as they

hope for more positive standards in sectorial areas. The mission of hotel managers is to be successful in spite of these challenging problems.

The financial problems that are seen as less important by most of hotels are related to actual financing problems. The less important problems of examined hotels are the delay in debt collection or non-paying receivables, insufficient internal finance sources, insufficient sales revenues, huge investment amounts, sales made mostly in cash, lack of stockholder's equity, inadequacy of operating profit, etc. These problems are real financing problems and they are actually solvable. Following that, it's stated that these financial problems are recorded less important and these are faced by a small portion of hotels.

Among the problems related to the process of getting credit, high loan rates are the only financial problem that a majority of hotels see as the most important. Other credit terms are seen as unimportant by the hotels.

The conclusion of this research is similar to the conclusions of other studies (Karadeniz et al., 2015; Ceylan & İlban, 2005; Yılmaz, 2007; Met, 2011).

Hotel businesses don't encounter many critical problems in an environment in which touristic demands are continuously rising. But this is valid before 2016. Falling demands of inbound tourism, especially in 2016 may create difficult financial problems in the near future.

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TOURISM SECTOR AND TRADE CREDIT: A QUANTILE REGRESSION APPROACH IN SMEs

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ABSTRACT

This paper analyses the determinants of the trade credit in Spanish tourist SMEs from a new perspective. More specifically, we focus on the relationship between trade credit and other important financial resources: bank credit and self-financing, and a quantile regression approach is used to analyse trade credit in the tourism sector. This methodology takes into account the heterogeneity of firms in different quantiles of trade credit distribution. Our results show that smaller, younger and less self-financed firms use more trade credit to compensate their financing problems.

Key words: trade credit; bank credit; SME; tourism sector; quantile regression.

JEL. G32

TOURISM SECTOR AND TRADE CREDIT: A QUANTILE REGRESSION APPROACH IN SMEs

Abstract

This paper analyses the determinants of the trade credit in Spanish tourist SMEs from a new perspective. More specifically, we focus on the relationship between trade credit and other important financial resources: bank credit and self-financing, and a quantile regression approach is used to analyse trade credit in the tourism sector. This methodology takes into account the heterogeneity of firms in different quantiles of trade credit distribution. Our results show that smaller, younger and less self-financed firms use more trade credit to compensate their financing problems.

Key words: trade credit; bank credit; SME; tourism sector; quantile regression.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The tourism sector is one of the most important in the Spanish economy. This is due, on the one hand, to its higher contribution to the formation of the GDP, reaching between 10% and 11% in the period 2008-2012 according to the National Institute of Statistics. On the other hand, it is also among those sectors with a larger number of companies, approximately 283,000 in 2013, small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in their great majority. This type of company is the most vulnerable to obtaining financing, which accentuates their dependence on bank financing and trade credit (Berger and Udell, 1998). Therefore, the previous literature, has analysed the determinants of trade credit and has particularly focused on the relationship between trade credit and two other essential financial resources: bank credit and self-financing.

Firstly, with regard to the relationship between trade credit and bank credit, there are two alternative hypotheses that help to explain this important question: the substitution hypothesis and the complementary hypothesis. The substitution hypothesis holds that that firms tend to employ trade credit to a greater degree when credit from financial institutions is constricted, and and suppliers may agree to lend due to their customers closeness (Petersen and Rajan, 1997). Thereby, this hypothesis predicts a negative relation between the two resources (Atanasova and Wilson 2003, Carbó-Valverde *et al.* 2012, Kestens 2012).

The complementary hypothesis holds that the level of trade credit is positively related to the level of lending by banks. Therefore, the two resources move in the same direction, a decline/rise in bank credit is followed by a decrease/increase in trade credit usage, thereby amplifying the impact on small businesses of any financial contraction or expansion (Cook 1999, Ono 2001, Uesugi and Yamashiro 2008). In this case, the use of trade credit acts as a signal and reveals supplier's information to the banks that cannot always assess the financial quality of a firm when this one appears informationally opaque to them (Biais and Gollier, 1997).

Secondly, the relationship between trade credit and internal financing has been explained by the Pecking Order Theory. This theory posits that firms generating more internal funds use less financing from suppliers (Niskanen and Niskanen, 2006, Garcia-Teruel and Martínez-Solano, 2010a,b). However, it also possible that companies that generate more internal resources enjoy better access to financing from their suppliers (Petersen and Rajan, 1997).

All in all, the explanation of the relationships between trade credit and bank credit and self-financing is not conclusive due to the mixed results of the above empirical evidence. Following Berger and Udell (1998) research, it is necessary to consider the interconnection of small firm resources according to the financial growth cycle paradigm. In this paradigm, the capital structure of the company varies with firm size and age, and the relation between the financial resources may also vary. However, previous evidence has considered firms samples as homogeneous, which could explain the diversity of results in the financial literature. The question is whether these relationships can be considered homogeneous for all firms or vary depending on their size and age characteristics.

Bearing the above idea in mind, this article pretends to study about the true nature of the relationships of trade credit with bank credit and with self-financing, using the methodology already employed by Canto-Cuevas *et al.* (2016c). Specifically, we use the quantile regression approach, which takes into account the heterogeneity of SMEs in different quantiles of trade credit distribution. According to the financial growth cycle paradigm, the level of trade credit can be taken as a proxy for the age and size of the firm. The smallest and youngest firms are forced to rely more on trade credit: first, due to their lack of available information and to their greater opacity, which leads them to credit rationing (Stiglitz and Weiss, 1981); and second, due to being subjected to greater limitations in the self-generation of resources.

In order to extend the line of study started in the tourism sector with Canto-Cuevas *et al.* (2016a), the empirical analysis uses a sample of Spanish SMEs belonging to this

relevant sector, which is characterized by the scarcity of studies in trade credit. Furthermore, due to this sector is one of the most affected by the economic situation (González-Romo, 2011), we chose the period is 2004-2011, which is distinguished by years of economic growth and depth crisis.

The remainder of the article is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the data and constructs the empirical framework. Section 3 presents results. Section 4 concludes.

II. DATA AND MODEL

The sample used was obtained from the SABI (Sistema de Análisis de Balances Ibéricos) database. Specifically, the sample contains Spanish tourists SMEs, whose parameters are within the European Commission definition for every year under consideration: number of employees between 10 and 250, sales between 2 and 50 million of euros, and total assets ranging from 2 to 43 million euros. Finally, the sample give an unbalanced panel of 986 observations over the period 2004-2011.

Our estimation method is the quantile regression estimator developed by Koenker and Basset (1978). Unlike the standard regression estimator, which only provides a partial view of the relationship between the dependent variable and the set of regressors, quantile regression facilitates the study of the complexity of the interactions between the factors that determine the data with unequal variation of a variable for different ranges of another variable. This methodology has been used previously in the context of SMEs trade credit by Canto-Cuevas et al. (2016c). The following equation specifies our function:

$$\text{Quant}_{\theta}(y_{it}|x_{it}) = \alpha_0 + \beta_{\theta} x_{it} + \gamma z_t$$

Where y_{it} is the dependent variable at quantile θ (*TRADECREDIT*), defined as the ratio of accounts payable to total assets¹. The vector x_{it} includes the determinants of trade credit. Firstly, we introduce the independent variables related to financial resources considered. Bank credit is defined by two variables: *STDEBT* which is short-term bank debt to total assets; and *LTDEBT*, which is long-term bank debt to total assets. *NETPROF* is the proxy of self-financing and is measured as net profit over total assets.

Secondly, classic determinants of trade credit are also considered as control variables. Size (*SIZE*) and age (*AGE*) are calculated as the logarithm of the total assets and the logarithm of years of life of the company, respectively. Current assets (*CURRAS*) is the current assets to total assets of the company. Lastly, due to the influence of economic situation over trade credit (Schwartz 1974), we introduce the average annual growth rate in GDP (*GDPGROWTH*) which is obtained from World Bank.

Table 1 presents the means of the firm characteristics at different quantiles of trade credit distributions and for the whole sample. This preliminary analysis shows that younger and smaller firms, which usually present more asymmetric information problems and generally experience greater difficulties in obtaining finance from financial institutions, use trade credit more, and therefore, that the level of trade credit can be effectively taken as a proxy of age and size of firms.

¹ The dependent and independent variables are defined according to previous empirical literature on trade credit.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics

Variables	<10% Mean	10-25% Mean	25-50% Mean	50-75% Mean	75-90% Mean	>90% Mean	Overall Mean
TRADECREDIT	0.004	0.019	0.023	0.046	0.090	0.214	0.054
STDEBT	0.048	0.053	0.053	0.058	0.057	0.060	0.055
LTDEBT	0.284	0.249	0.244	0.249	0.220	0.233	0.247
NETPROF	0.029	0.023	0.025	0.031	0.055	0.018	0.030
SIZE	9.775	9.661	9.628	9.473	9.066	8.896	9.460
AGE	3.324	3.149	3.091	3.121	3.211	2.899	3.144
CURRAS	0.170	0.191	0.202	0.185	0.274	0.352	0.216

III. EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Table 2 presents OLS regression (column 1) and the results of quantile regression (columns 2-6). Specifically, we define five quantiles, namely Q10, Q25, Q50, Q75, and Q90.

Table 2 Regression results for trade credit

Variables	OLS	Q10	Q25	Q50	Q75	Q90
STDEBT	0.025 (0.025)	0.002 (0.016)	0.014 (0.017)	-0.007 (0.026)	0.042 (0.059)	0.025 (0.059)
LTDEBT	-0.010 (-0.010)	-0.006 ** (0.004)	-0.003 (0.005)	-0.009 (0.008)	-0.012 (0.018)	0.003 (0.019)
NETPROF	-0.138 *** (-0.138)	-0.011 (0.017)	-0.018 (0.017)	-0.023 (0.017)	-0.097 ** (0.044)	-0.173 ** (0.069)
SIZE	-0.041 *** (-0.041)	-0.011 *** (0.001)	-0.015 *** (0.002)	-0.027 *** (0.002)	-0.035 *** (0.003)	-0.043 *** (0.008)
AGE	-0.027 *** (-0.027)	-0.008 *** (0.001)	-0.008 *** (0.001)	-0.014 *** (0.003)	-0.019 *** (0.007)	-0.035 *** (0.011)
CURRAS	0.109 *** (0.109)	0.020 *** (0.007)	0.030 *** (0.004)	0.044 *** (0.010)	0.085 *** (0.019)	0.272 *** (0.067)
GDPGROWTH	0.007 *** (0.007)	0.002 *** (0.001)	0.003 *** (0.001)	0.004 *** (0.001)	0.006 *** (0.001)	0.007 *** (0.001)
Constant	0.498 *** (0.498)	0.136 *** (0.017)	0.180 *** (0.021)	0.328 *** (0.029)	0.428 *** (0.042)	0.567 *** (0.075)
<i>Pseudo-R</i> ²		0.099	0.129	0.167	0.214	0.286
<i>R</i> ²	0.366					

Notes: Bootstrapped standard errors in parentheses except for the OLS equation where figures in parentheses are robust standard errors. The number of observations is 986 for OLS and all quantile regressions. *, **, and ***, indicate significant at the 10, 5, and 1% level, respectively

Regarding bank credit, short-term debt (*STDEBT*) suggest a complementarity relation with trade credit due to the positive coefficients showed in the majority of quantiles, while the majority of negative coefficients of long-term debt (*LTDEBT*) suggests the opposite, a substitutive relation with trade credit. However, the absence of significance of these coefficients does not confirm the results about the relation between trade credit and bank credit. Self-financing (*NETPROF*) has a negative influence on trade credit, with more significance in all the sample and the highest quantiles. This evidence that SMEs experiencing more limitations in generating self-financing, use more supplier financing.

Control variables are significant in explaining trade credit. While the sign of the coefficients remains unchanged across the quantiles, their magnitude is greater in the highest quantiles. *SIZE* and *AGE* show a negative coefficient, evidencing that bigger and older firms use less trade credit, while the positive coefficients of *CURRAS* evidences that firms use trade credit to finance their current assets. The positive coefficient of *GDPGROWTH* confirms the cyclical effect of the economic situation in all the quantiles of trade credit, which increases in the period of economic boom, and contract during a period of crisis (Canto-Cuevas *et al.* 2016b).

IV. CONCLUSION

This research is focused on the determinants of the trade credit on Spanish tourist SMEs, and specifically on the relationships between trade credit and two other financial resources: bank credit and self-financing, using a quantile regression approach.

Our results show that the use of trade credit is negative related with the size and age of a firm, evidencing the growth cycle paradigm. In addition, the relationship of trade credit with self-financing is substitutive for the tourism sector, therefore, firms less self-financed use more trade credit.

It is note of worthy that the results obtained for the tourism sector, unlike other works, show that short-term bank credit and trade credit move in the same direction, suggesting a complementary relationship. While the results of trade credit with long-term bank credit, which has more weight in the financial resources, suggests a substitutive relation that let firms to employ trade credit to a greater degree when credit from financial institutions is constricted.

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Title : An analysis of the increase in the per capita GDP and the number of Departures in India.

Abstract:

It has been predicted by the UNWTO that the Indian outbound tourism will increase to 50 million by 2020. Departures from India for travel and other purposes have increased over the last few years.

Simultaneously there has been an increase in the per capita GDP of the country. Hence the main objective of the paper is to establish an association with the per capita GDP and the departures. The increase in the departures means that these are the potential travelers to different countries. This is a largely untapped market for the countries where tourism is a major sector.

The paper reveals that there is an association between the departures and the rise in per capita GDP. It reveals that with the growth in the income level, the Indian citizens are fulfilling their dream for travelling to different countries. The statistical analysis is able to establish this connection.

Key words: Per Capita GDP, Departures, outbound tourism

Introduction:

It has been predicted by the UNWTO that the Indian outbound tourism will increase to 50 million by 2020. India is currently the second most populated country and it is estimated that there are about 62 million passport holders in India. India ranks third in issuance of passports. These are all potential travelers. According to the Ministry of Tourism and the World Bank report, the numbers of Indian nationals departing from India were 20.38 million in the year 2015 as compared to 18.33 million, during 2014, thus there was a growth of 11.1% over 2014 and in 2013 the number of outbound travelers was 16 million. In the last few years India witnessed a growth in the Gross domestic product. It was growing over 7%. It was 7.9% in the year 2015. The annual GDP growth reached as high as 10% in 2010 as per the World Bank database. As per the World Bank forecasts it is going to be above 7% in 2019.

Indian travelers travel for various purposes such as business, religious reasons, visiting family and friends, education and leisure. As the per capita income and GDP growth rate increased in the past few years the number of Indian travelers for leisure has increased. These tourists have been travelling to different destinations such as the United States, Australia, New Zealand, African countries as well as the European countries. The purpose of the paper is to focus on the trends of the Indian tourists to the European countries. Also the paper focuses on the travelers for leisure.

Review of Literature

A study identifies six activity based clusters for the tourists such as short haul holiday, healthy winter experience, social encounter, new place experience and seniors' experience. (Finsterwalder, J., & Laesser, C. (2013).

Studies should be undertaken to understand the behavior of tourists and their overall satisfaction (Correia, A., Kozak, M., & Ferradeira, J. (2013).

The trend of China's outbound tourism is clear. Chinese have become one of the more important markets in outbound tourism, particularly over the past five years. Additionally, Chinese outbound tourism is far from a homogeneous phenomenon, the connections between tourist behavior and destination characteristics expand the diversity of this field. For Chinese tourists the destination attributes such as natural scenery, customer service are the excellent experiences. (Lin, Z., He, G., & Vlachos, I. P. (2015).

For tourists the important experiences are cultural knowledge, natural environment, good food, shopping, overall it is a learning experience. (Lu, H., & Pearce, P. L. (2016)

A study suggests that as a tourist experiences different culture and at the same time the tourist also impacts the destination. (Marshall, R., & Villiers, R. D. (2015).

The key cultural factors influencing Japanese holiday experiences in Australia, are culturally determined perceptions of service and interpersonal relations with hosts(Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. (1999).

Statement of Problem

During the decade between 2004 and 2014, there was a increase in the per capita GDP in India. the GDP growth during this period had reached as high as 10% in the year 2010. The period coincided with the rise in development of India in software and other business areas. Correspondingly there was also a rise in the number departures of Indian nationals to other countries. This may be due to the fact that with rising incomes fueled the dream of an Indian to visit different countries as a tourist. The paper tries to delve into the possibility of whether there is any link between the rising income between these periods and the corresponding rise in tourism. In order to understand the rise in tourism outside India, number of departures is used.

Description of Data

Per capita income is a representation of the income earned on an average per person.

Gross Domestic product is one of the indicators of the economic performance of a country. Per capita GDP represents the standard of living. Hence a high per capita GDP indicates a higher standard of living. Hence for the current paper the per capita GDP is taken to represent the rising standard of living for an Indian. The other important data for the purpose of analysis is the number of departures from India in millions. The Indian tourists travel for various reasons such as business, meeting family and friends living in different parts of the world and for leisure. Both the GDP per capita in US \$ and Departures (in Millions) were taken for the Years from 2004 to 2014.

Methodology

Simple regression analysis is carried out to understand the linkage between the two variables: per capita GDP and the number of departures from India. The per capita GDP and the departures were used for this purpose, in order to find out any association between the two variables. The per Capita GDP is independent variable and the departures is the dependant variable.

Hypothesis

India witnessed a growth in the per capita GDP and also it can be observed that there is a corresponding rise in the departures.

The hypothesis is as follows:-

Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the Growth in the per capita GDP and the rise in the number of departures.

H0: There is no significant linear relationship between the independent variable which is per capita GDP and the dependent variable number of departures

H1: There is a significant linear relationship between the independent variable which is per capita GDP and the dependent variable number of departures

As the per capita GDP has increased in India, so has the departures, the per capita GDP is a representation of the standard of living of the citizens, as the income levels of the citizens have increased, this has led to the increase in the number of individuals leaving the country for tourism and business. The hypothesis is tested using the F test, the P value is 0.000 which is less than 0.05. Hence the H1 is accepted and H0 is rejected. It means that there is a significant linear relationship between the independent variable which is per capita GDP and the dependent variable number of departures

Findings and Analysis

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
GDPperCapita	11	820.78	640.60	1461.38	1131.2068	315.46052
DeparturesM	11	12.12	6.21	18.33	11.8464	3.89788
Valid N (listwise)	11					

Table 1

The mean for the GDP per capita is 1131.2068 and the departures are 11.8465. The standard deviation is 3.89 for departures and it is 315.46052 for the GDP per capita

		DeparturesM	GDPperCapita
Pearson Correlation	DeparturesM	1.000	.950
	GDPperCapita	.950	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	DeparturesM	.	.000
	GDPperCapita	.000	.
N	DeparturesM	11	11
	GDPperCapita	11	11

Table 2

The p value in the table is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 suggesting a correlation between the rise in the GDP per capita and the number of departures.

The ANOVA table, which reports how well the regression equation fits the data (i.e., predicts the dependent variable) and is shown below:

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	137.057	1	137.057	82.907	.000 ^a
	Residual	14.878	9	1.653		
	Total	151.935	10			

a. Predictors: (Constant), GDPperCapita

b. Dependent Variable: DeparturesM

Table 3

This table indicates that the regression model predicts the dependent variable significantly well. Here, $p < 0.000$, which is less than 0.05, and indicates that, overall, the regression model statistically significantly predicts the outcome variable (i.e., it is a good fit for the data).

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.950 ^a	.902	.891	1.28574	.902	82.907	1	9	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), GDPperCapita

Table 4

The table provides the *R* and *R* square values. The *R* value represents the is 0.950 (the "**R**" Column), which shows a high degree of correlation. The *R* square values (the "**R Square**" column) indicates how much of the total variation in the dependent variable departures can be explained by the independent variable per Capita GDP. In this case, 90% can be explained, which is very large.

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	-1.429	1.509		-.947	.368
GDPperCapita	.012	.001	.950	9.105	.000

Table 5

The **Coefficients** table provides us with the necessary information to predict departures from Per Capita GDP.

Significance

The per capita GDP has increased along with the increase in the number of departures. Hence a high per capita GDP indicates a higher standard of living for individuals. These departures happened for reasons such as business, study abroad and also tourism. It is expected that the number of tourists will rise in the future. As per the World Bank forecasts the GDP growth is going to be above 7% in 2019. Hence it can be said that the number to departures will continue to rise in the future as well. The rising Per capita GDP means there are potential Indian tourists, the Indian tourists market is a big potential.

Conclusion:

It can be observed that there is a correlation between the per capita GDP and the departures, Indian tourists can prove to be important for the tourism industry, as it seems to be a large untapped market. As per the World Bank forecasts GDP in India is going to be above 7% in 2019.

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TOURISM, HERITAGE AND HISTORICAL CENTERS. CULTURAL MARKETING STRATEGIES IN MÁLAGA

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Abstract

TOURISM, HERITAGE AND HISTORICAL CENTERS. CULTURAL MARKETING STRATEGIES IN MÁLAGA

Nowadays, the recovery of historical centers has become a key reference to stimulate tourism and the development of this sector as an economic engine and source of wealth. Specifically, for Málaga, this has been a key factor to fuel tourism and economic development which apparently revert in a significant benefit for the municipality. Within the last decade Málaga has achieved to outstand among the most important cultural tourism destinations in the world thanks to a strong political push and the project leaded by the brand "Malaga City Museums". We propose the following communication analysis of the main actions that contribute to the financial recovery of Málaga taking advantage of a factor of great importance as it is tourism, given that we talk about the capital city of the Costa del Sol, and most importantly, its direct and potential impact on the economic activity.

Keywords

Tourism, cultural heritage, historical centers, Málaga, Cultural Marketing, Museums.

TOURISM, HERITAGE AND HISTORICAL CENTERS. CULTURAL MARKETING STRATEGIES IN MÁLAGA

Introduction

Mass tourism in historical centers is not a recent issue at all, however, the intensity of tourists who visit historic cities and their monuments on a daily basis does become a matter of enormous interest for conservation and heritage management. The host capacity overflow affecting heritage destinations causes an irreparable damage to those cultural resources when turned into the base of the current tourist activity (Troitiño, 2016). As a result, the profusion of documents and research carried out over the past decades has resulted, among other things, in a change in the tourism model and in the management of its resources. A model designed in such a way that in the historical centers the problems of any urban agglomeration are concentrated, but at the same time they are elevated to a category in which it is easy to detect conflicts and tensions as a consequence of the concentration of tertiary activities in some areas, versus its nonexistence in other areas, combined with the aging of the population and depletion of an extremely fragile cultural heritage.

A new situation that places cities facing new uses and their recognition as an urban space that is transformed to meet cultural and touristic objectives, being these at the same associated time with the values of the historical city. However, there is a thin and delicate line separating tourist enjoyment -and therefore the positive effects received from such activity- of certain dark and negative issues associated with a phenomenon such as the heritage tourism. In the recent times' panorama, the historical city of Málaga has become a clear example to turn to as a case of study for the understanding of a phenomenon that starts with the creation and invention of a cultural destination with its own brand, and is now starting to reap the rewards.

Heritage and Urban Landscape

*Carta de Quito de 1967*¹, Historical landscape in cities became for the first time a matter of attention in the 1964 Venice Charter, while the 1967 Quito Charter would expose the need to reconcile the demands of urban progress with the safeguarding of environmental values. According to the European Landscape Convention 2000 signed by Spain in 2007, "Landscape" means any part of the territory as perceived by the population, and which character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and / or human factors. At the same time, measures of "protection, management and landscape management" have to be treated differently. On the other hand, the Vienna Memorandum of 2005 extends the patrimonial framework to the "urban landscape", understood beyond the traditional "historical center", "set" or "surroundings" and also, in relation to the historical nature of the city, demands to the new architecture a commitment for "complementarity".

With all that (guidelines of the Vienna Memorandum, the Zacatecas Charter and other recent international documents), the Urban Historical Landscape surpasses the idea of the building itself, in order to consider the place, the profile of the city, the visual axes, the lines and types of buildings, open spaces, topography, vegetation and all infrastructures (Rivera, 2013). The heritage of our cities and in particular that of the historical centers cannot, in this way, be restricted to the mere achievement of several elements selected in isolation and exalted capriciously as a bulwark, since all of them obey a historical and cultural logic that defines in a much more complex, more plural and at the same time fragile manner, the value of such certain Cultural Heritage which identity burden is what really makes it unique.

Historical city as a destination

We cannot properly speak about tourism as an activity and social phenomenon until the end of the Old Regime, since one of the most important characteristics that we will associate with the tourist

¹ Conservación y Utilización de Monumentos y Lugares de Interés Histórico y Artístico. 1967. Quito, 1967.

displacements is the question of leisure and the consideration of the time for enjoyment (Royo, 2013). In this way, the Grand Tour is considered to be the first antecedent of current tourist trips (Grande, 2001, Moreno, 2007, Valls, 2003) and the first half of the 20th century when the first tour operators make appearance. During that period, the towns and their monuments became the preferred destinations, with a foreground intention of cultural knowledge that little by little would give way to the first resorts and sun and beach destinations. It is the second half of the 20th century when the increasingly incipient sun and beach tourism will lead to a loss of protagonism of cities as a destination. The coast and its by then considered benefits would eclipse any other attraction for the modern tourist, with the arrival of an economic recovery and national period growth that in the Spanish case would reach the eighties.

From that moment until now, monumental cities have been acquiring more and more protagonism, to the point of being the destination par excellence for the tourism chain worldwide. Driven by tourism, the monumental cities' heritage transcends its cultural dimension, as a historical legacy and collective memory, and becomes a productive resource itself (Calle and García, 1998). A resource to which many cities direct their programs and investments in an increasing effort to make their assets more profitable, thus becoming the main protagonist and generating itself other additional touristic and economic resources. Under this situation, and following the introduction of tourism, the heritage of cities, carrying dimensions or functions of diverse nature (cultural, social, symbolic...) acquires a great value as a product. Such circumstance is evident since the 2009 Charter of Brussels, in which the economic consideration of culture has led to an assessment of the city as a good and as a further factor of territorial development (Morate, 2013). Resuming the story line, the heritage of our cities is not only important because of its inherent historical value and because being a support for the identity of the people, but also for being a resource for development.

Mass tourism and historical centers. New strategies for cultural marketing

The considerable volume of contributions to the scientific literature on this subject (Catro, 2005; Toselli, 2006; De Esteban, 2008; Velasco, 2009; Martos, 2016) focus the attention on the positive and negative aspects of the use and abuse of cultural heritage in historical cities. In fact, the tourist city is concentrated in a very small part of the historical city and factors of diverse nature: historical, promotional, symbolic, urban, etc. influence its configuration (Calle, 2002). Although there is progress in the valorisation and interpretation of cultural heritage as a tourist resource, there are also serious difficulties to adapt historical centers to the tourist function, since undoubtedly the tourist city is a part of the historical city not always well managed, but with close connections with the great landmarks of cultural reference. Such is the case that one of the greatest opportunities offered to historical centers by tourism is the recovery and enhancement of a previously devaluated urban heritage.

New situations in front of which we must seek for a certain balance in order to avoid the conflicts that often arise between tourism and heritage conservation, in this case affecting the historical city centers. Their maintenance constitutes a challenge for their survival as a social reality, although we detect how such issues are not easy to mitigate as long as the integrated policies of recovery, beyond the architectural dimensions, do not face a number of functional and social aspects deeply enough in order to avoid turning historical centers into mere urban sceneries or large open, outdoor museums.

This re-discovery of historical centers and its relationship with cultural tourism has resulted in a new emphasis on the regeneration and rehabilitation policies as well as the searching for specific finance sources in parallel to a patrimonial recovery that in an evident way reinforces the image and the identity of a destination, trying to establish a differential value through a patrimonial mark. Of particular importance in this context are the European Regional Development Funds (ERDF), which

over two decades have provided economic resources to especially weak European regions, notably Andalusia and, more specifically, the historical centers of the Andalusian cities.

It is at this point that we address the appearance of the cultural marketing strategy already mentioned (Richards, 2006), applied directly for the benefit of the tourism industry so that urban heritage, culture and image come together to offer a complete product, attractive and unequivocally focused towards the dissemination of a very specific interpretation of the patrimonial reality of the historical centers considered. It is then when the cultural sector is forced to renew its old management practices, searching for an integration of professionalization with entrepreneurial orientation, and at the same time directing efforts to avoid the loss of its own identity due to a renewed patrimonial discourse, which seeks and prioritizes economic objectives and therefore the return of public and private investment.

Marketing applied to culture or cultural marketing is then presented as a necessary and essential business management tool for the design of new promotion, marketing, dissemination and communication strategies and policies. In this new scenario, the tourist appears as a great consumer of cultural goods and services and his presence dynamizes the various activity sectors that generate wealth and employment while introducing new modalities in the consumption and use of cities, developing branches such as hotel business, catering, transport, commerce, leisure or recreation services as well as other second order sectors of activity oriented to the tourist.

“Málaga ciudad de Museos”. Málaga`s positioning in cultural tourism at an international scale

The work of the I PEM² (*Plan Estratégico de Málaga*) starts in 1992 with a trend scenario in which Málaga is not recognized as the capital of the Costa del Sol and for instance, congresses are held in bordering municipalities due to lack of adequate facilities. The main objectives of this strategic project were centered in the development of the coast, the restoration of the historical and monumental legacy of the city along with the development of new tourism segments (congress, cultural, sports, etc ...) capable of improving the attractiveness of Málaga to target international markets. The idea is to build a program capable of turning Málaga into an "European tourism, cultural and leisure capital". In order to join efforts in this direction, the Delegation of Tourism in the City of Málaga was created as a new specific municipal government area. As it appears in the *Evaluation Document of the I Strategic Plan of Málaga*, following the execution of this I Strategic Plan "Málaga improves its competitive position in the regional and national market, but still needs a solid city image that will reaffirm it with advantage in the European and international markets. It needs to improve both the tourism and cultural conditions as well as the coordination of its offer"³. In this same line of work the *Plan of Tourism Development of the City of Malaga* would make appearance in 1996, meaning a clear bet for the development of the cultural tourism in the city. In 2002, the II Strategic Plan of Málaga⁴ was truly initiated and implemented until 2004. During these years, some reports accompanied the implementation of the process and part of the expected conclusions, needs detected and work reports were published⁵.

Among these, we consider worth mentioning a specific report published as preliminary material prior to the elaboration of the II Strategic Plan, report in which some of the strategic keys related to

² Strategic Plan of Málaga (1993- 1996). Málaga on the Costa del Sol.

³ I Strategic Plan of Málaga: <http://www.ciedes.es/> [Last query 20/03/2017]

⁴ II Strategic Plan of Málaga (2000- 2004). Málaga “metrópoli abierta”.

⁵ Among the most outstanding reports we can count *Evaluación del II Plan Estratégico de Málaga; Transformando Málaga. 1994-201; Nuevos Rumbos. Reflexiones del II PEM para el 2020; Málaga, Metrópoli Abierta". II Plan Estratégico de Málaga; Málaga Metrópoli Abierta - Avance de Proyectos Estrella del II Plan Estratégico de Málaga o La Aventura de diseñar el propio destino. Plan Estratégico de Málaga*, All edited by the CIEDES Foundation and consulted in <http://www.ciedes.es/> [Last query 20/03/2017]

tourism and culture are discovered. Thus, in the “Analysis of the evolution of the city”, some of the most important "Challenges of Economy" are concentrated in which culture appears already to be the main motor of the long awaited and persecuted development.

The positioning of Málaga on an international scale as a cultural tourism destination stands out among some of the main objectives set, while it is also mentioned the consolidation of the revitalization process of the Historical Center of Málaga and the recovery of the city as the capital of the Costa del Sol. In summary, the II Strategic Plan of Málaga proposes 4 strategic lines and 10 star projects: "A metropolis that looks to the sea", "The Málaga of Picasso, cultural and attractive", "A metropolis in the vanguard of the knowledge society" and “A renewed city for its citizens and visitors ". These strategic lines are arranged according to 4 visions of Málaga with its consequent projects: "Málaga city littoral", "Málaga city of culture", "Málaga city of knowledge" and "Málaga urban revitalization" (Royo, 2015).

Within the binomial that merges Málaga with its culture as elements capable of boosting the economy and becoming a real motor for development, widening its spectrum to convert tourism as the main factor, it is striking the enormous political effort made during these years as well as the interest to carry out the specific strategic line "The Málaga of Picasso, cultural and attractive". Among the most important star projects to be highlighted is also the *Mediterranean Agora: The city as a cultural space*, in reference to the design and recovery of public spaces part of a process of revitalization of the Historical Center where Málaga's history and culture are defended as a source of wealth and employment. However, it has to be mentioned that the result of all the above has led to a cultural invention that is officially born under the definition of “*Megamuseum*” and the brand “*Málaga City of Museums. Where art lives in*”, representing the pinnacle reflection of a very much defined model that fits as a cultural and artistic commitment but remains disconnected from the historical value of the Málaga’s heritage itself.

With a range of 36 museums and exhibition centers, the cultural offer present in the city shines at the moment as the most competitive at national level. In fact, Málaga is the fourth destination of Spain in number of visits received -more than 850,000 during 2016. The capital registers 81,4 visits to museums for every one hundred overnight stays, well ahead of destinations such as Valencia, Madrid, Barcelona or Seville. Málaga hosts cultural centers such as the Center Pompidou, the Center for Contemporary Art CAC Málaga, the Museum of Málaga In the Customs Palace, the Picasso Museum, the Russian Museum Collection or the Automobile and Fashion Museum, all of which are iconized as part of the cultural skyline that draws Málaga's identity. A city that sells culture and proclaims itself as a cultural reference.



Figure 1. Portal of Tourism Málaga. City of Museums and Brand of strategic diffusion. 2017.

The conflicts resulting from the process of "tourisation" in the historical center of Malaga

From a theoretical point of view, we know that the historical centers are characterized by being intensively lived by their citizens and present a multifunctional character, given the great diversity of activities coexisting in them, as well as the social heterogeneity resulting from the continuous over time transformations of the city itself and the associated cultural values (Troitiño, 1995). Qualities that -in relation to our case study, are disappearing due to the strong tourism process in which its historical center is immersed and which effects have affected the local economy, the

environment, the urban landscape and, above all, its daily life. These impacts caused by tourism are closely linked, on one hand, to the volume of visitors influx resulting from the growth of mass tourism (Royo, 2016) and on the other hand to the management of these activities.

The fundamental characteristic that is warning us of a problem or crisis of coexistence with the tourism activity is the disappearance of the residential life, the progressive abandonment of the dwellings in the surroundings, since the pressure of the tourism once exceeded certain limits can incite, in the case of the historical centers, the resident population to abandon them, provoking processes of de-population, ruptures of social balance and patrimonial detachment (Troitiño Vinuesa and Troitiño Torralba, 2010). A fact motivated by the continuous change of use of most of the buildings that are rehabilitated to hotel use, the lack of primary supplies shops in the area and the accessibility difficulties and consequences of the high tourist flow on public transit. The heterogeneous social structure is being deteriorated progressively, decreasing the neighborhood population in favor of the visitor-spectator and temporary consumer. In this way, the life of the neighborhood is supplanted by "theatrical scenarios" designed for the tourist-consumer with whom the citizen of Málaga is not identified. A process inevitably accompanied by a loss of quality, not only in the daily life of the resident, but for the tourist himself who cannot even enjoy the experience, since the physical structure of the street does not have enough capacity to host the high number of pedestrians, cars, buses, bicycles and segways that have to share this limited space in some sections of the historical center of Málaga.

All these conditions have led to the proliferation of a certain "junk tourism" generated by short-term management and an imbalance between Authorities who continue to prioritize the tourism exploitation of this environment instead of promoting its cultural possibilities. This would enhance the recovery of heritage and its collective use, since the reinforcement of the cultural dimension of

the historical center constitutes the base for the formulation of recovery politics, meaning a search for new balance between physical, social and functional realities (Troitiño, 2003).

Conclusions

Málaga is a recognized tourism destination, although its attractiveness was diluted in the last decades of the 20th century due to the increasing strength of the Costa del Sol. As a consequence, strategic planning started in the 90s would solve a large part of the detected deficiencies, in an effort to recover not only international centrality but, at a second level, the city's position as a reference for urban cultural tourism. This means that strategic planning brings to urbanism and tourism new perspectives that allow, in addition, to transfer the current designs of global urban politics to the local scale. From the point of view of urban planning, the city must be able to propose for its historical centers strategies for a complementary integration of the tourism dimension, since multi-functionality is one of the characteristics that identify the historical centers. Our historical centers have to achieve the functional re-use of their rich and diversified cultural heritage (Troitiño, 2003), taking care of the singularity of each historical center and its own internal dynamics in an individual way and at the moment of formulating and managing any policies of protection and recovery.

In order to implement or manage tourism promotion strategies in the historical center, it is necessary to establish an integrated strategy that takes into account the positive and negative effects of the actions planned in the long term, being this a fundamental step to guarantee future success. Thus, as achievements of the strategic planning and cultural marketing mechanisms studied (and currently under review after 20 years of work in the historical center of Málaga), the following results are disaggregate below:

- Existence of a city model created with which to compete in the tourist markets internationally.

- Growth of Málaga as a tourism destination has been possible thanks to the design and execution of strategic planning aimed at building a discourse in which cultural heritage and tourism go hand in hand as an economic resource.
- The restoration of the historical center is a great void in the cultural policy, which has focused exclusively on the creation of new cultural spaces (among which deserve a special mention the Picasso Museum, the Center of Contemporary Art or the Center Pompidou) . Although these confer to Málaga a great cultural and tourism capacity of attraction that differentiates it from the rest of cities, they also contribute to the loss of Málaga`s own identity and history.
- The increase in tourism and the efforts to maintain this sector in the same scenario or historical center of Málaga entails not only great advantages for socio-economic development but also serious risks that jeopardize its authenticity.
- We believe that it would be necessary to establish previous reserves in which historical and heritage criteria are used to determined which spaces of the historical city are susceptible of being converted or adapted for the tourism routes and which not, reinforcing the leading role of Málaga as a reference city of urban cultural tourism.

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**THE PERCEPTION OF DEVELOPMENT STAGE OF TOURISM GENTRIFICATION AND
RESIDENTS' ATTITUDE¹**

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**A STUDY ON THE DEVELOPMENT STAGE OF TOURISM GENTRIFICATION AND THE
RESIDENTS' ATTITUDE TO THE WORLD CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM: FROM
THE PERSPECTIVE OF MACAO RESIDENTS' PERCEPTION**

ABSTRACT

The concept of tourism gentrification aroused the interests of scholars all around the world. In the existing research, most of the scholars adopted qualitative research methods to determine the development stage of the tourism gentrification. There is few research use quantitative research method, not to mention to analyze the gentrification's impact on other variables. This study takes the Macao's historic center (World cultural heritage) as example, tries to judge the development stage of tourism gentrification through the questionnaire survey from the perspective of residents' perception. Finally, the quantitative method proposed has been proved to be feasible. In addition, it is found that the higher the degree of tourism gentrification, the stronger the perception of the negative impact of tourism on local community, and also the stronger the negative attitude towards the development of tourism.

KEYWORDS: Tourism gentrification, Development stage, Perception, Attitude, Macao

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1. INTRODUCTION

"Gentrification" is a new phenomenon in some developed cities after experiencing suburbanization. Its concept was first introduced from "gentry" (Glass, 1964), meaning that the middle class gradually immigrated into the district where the original residents were people with relatively low-income. As a result, the buildings in the district were renovated and landscape optimized. Finally, there were big

changes in the social characteristics due to the changes in the structure of the residents (Schaffer & Smith, 1986).

Scholars have employed the concept of "tourism gentrification" as an important perspective to study the influence of urban tourism.

By reviewing the literature, we can find that in the field of tourism gentrification, the research methods adopted were basically qualitative research methods represented by case study and field work. Most of the data used in the previous studies were second-hand information or field observation or interviews. Few studies have linked tourism gentrification with other variables to carry out further quantitative analysis.

This study attempts to analyze the status quo of the tourism gentrification in Macao's world cultural heritage destination from the perspective of residents' perception, by adopting the questionnaire survey, and furthermore explore the relationship between the local residents' attitude towards the development of heritage tourism and their perception of tourism gentrification.

2. THE PHASE OF TOURISM GENTRIFICATION

Gentrification and Tourism Gentrification

Gentrification is an important concept in urban development. It was originally proposed by Western scholars in the 1960s (Glass, 1964). Initially the proposed gentrification was called Classic Gentrification, which referred to the high-income class displaces the low-income class by moving to the central city.

Then, came the concept of traditional gentrification, besides the replacement of low-income class, ,

the government and private sectors are also involved in the traditional gentrification. At the same time, residence is no longer the only function of the relevant area, the commercial function began to appear.

The concept of modern gentrification was raised after year 2000. It highlights the following connotations: (1) the replacement of the low-income class; (2) the regional function changed from residence only to commercial purpose or multi-function; (3) The location of gentrification is gradually diversified, it can be the Waterfront area (Hoyle, 1988), suburbs (Badcock, 2001; Hackworth & Smith, 2001), or rural area (Hines, 2007, 2011; Phillips, 2010) and Historic District (Shin, 2010).

More and more cities transform the local tourism resources into tourist attractions, these tourism projects will be sure have an impact on the city (Zhao et al., 2006). The concept of tourism gentrification was then proposed by Gotham (Gotham, 2005), referring to the development of leisure and tourism makes the surrounding communities where the middle class live grow into a relatively affluent and proprietary region.

Commercialization and urbanization of tourism destination are the focuses of recent research on the influence of urban tourism (Russo, 2002; Bao & Su, 2004; Mullins, 1991). Majority of the researches are case study based on description or observation. For example, Liang & Bao (2015) conducted a case study on Tourism gentrification in Shenzhen, Shin (2010) conducted a case study of Nanluoguxiang in Beijing. Zhao, Kou, Lu, & Li (2009) made a qualitative research on the neighborhood around the Presidential Palace in Nanjing. In addition, many cities around the world

became the targets of the case study about the tourism gentrification, such as Los Angeles Chinatown (Park, K., & Lin, J., 2008), Salvador da Bahia in Brazil (Nobre, E. A., 2002), Australian island (Jackson, R., 2006), Delhi (Holst, T., 2015) and New Orleans (Gladstone, D., & Préau, J., 2008).

Few scholar carried out empirical studies on the tourism gentrification (Zhao et al., 2006). Xu (2013) is one of the typical researchers who explores the mechanism and influencing effect of the gentrification in Lijiang city by quantitative method.

Ap (1992) argues that "local residents are the direct recipients of tourism impacts, and their cognitive attitudes towards tourism are likely to be an important planning and policy element for the development, marketing, operation of existing or future tourism projects." In fact, the residents are the most sensitive to local changes, therefore, the residents' perception of tourism gentrification might provide a new perspective.

The Developmental Model of Tourism Gentrification

Based on the existing research, it is clear that 4-staged development model is widely recognized among scholars(Zukin ,1990; Phillips ,2005; Gotham ,2005; Donaldson ,2009; Zhao et al. ,2006). There are also some mutual opinions about the indicators that can help judge the stage. For example the residents' structure(George Galster& Stephen Peacock, 1985) , real property values, tourism development level, culture and lifestyle(Donaldson, 2009), business pattern, living environment (Zhao et al., 2006) etc.

The table below shows the characteristics of 4 stages of tourism gentrification:

Table 1 Characteristics of different stages of tourism gentrification

Stage	Business Form	Living Environment	Resident Structure
Sprout	serve the local residents	no change	Majority are aboriginal
Development period	Serve both the local residents and visitors	land appreciation, the environment is increasingly optimized	high-income class began to move out
stable period	The visitors are the target market, consumer behavior tends to high-level, professional, such as	Compared with the surrounding area, the land value is the highest, the living environment is the best	The middle and high income classes replace the aborigines

boutiques stores, etc.

Transition period	Business suffer recession	Land and residential value decreased	Middle and high income people gradually move out
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Source: compiled by the authors

Although scholars have already explored the development stage of tourism gentrification, in the existing research, scholars have adopted qualitative research methods to describe the development stage of the tourism gentrification. There is few research classifying the tourism gentrification by quantitative research method, not to mention to analyze its impact on other variables.

Some scholars have pointed out that the tourism gentrification in mainland China has different characteristics from the Western countries, for example, the Chinese residents are more willing to stay in the city center than to move away (Liang & Bao, 2015). At the same time, the situation in the Macao Special Administrative Region is different from that of mainland China. For example, due to the protection of private property, without the permission of the owners, the government and enterprises cannot carry out any disposition of private property, consequently, the tourism gentrification in the Historic Centre of Macao is not driven by new construction project and takes diversifying forms.

3. RESEARCH DESIGN

The regions to carry out the survey

Historic Centre of Macao is a collection of over twenty locations that witness the unique assimilation and co-existence of Chinese and Portuguese cultures in Macao, a former Portuguese colony. It

represents the architectural legacies of the city's cultural heritage, including monuments such as urban squares, streetscapes, churches and temples. In 2005 the Historic Centre of Macao was inscribed on the UNESCO World Heritage List, making it the 31st designated World Heritage site in China.

In this study, 24 historical buildings on UNESCO World Heritage List (Macao Cultural Relics Network, 2011b) are selected as the sites to carry out the survey. By referring to China Tourism guidance Signage System, the tourism guidance Signage is usually set within the distance between 50 and 200 meters from the attractions (Hangzhou Civil Affairs Bureau, 2006). Considering the Macao's spatial scale is much smaller, the research finally choose the communities located in 100 meters around the attractions as the range of investigation.

With the help of MapInfo, buffer zones with a radius of 100 meters around the 24 cultural heritage buildings were setup. After the spatial clustering, four major areas was confirmed to be the region to carry out the research, they are the A-Ma Temple District, the Lilau Square District, the 'Leal Senado' Building District and the Freguesia de Santo António, please refer to figure 1.

Research tools and sampling design

This study mainly refers to the definition of tourism gentrification, and its characteristics which are recognized by scholars to design the scale. Specifically, there are 3 parts in the questionnaire: the commercial pattern(12 items), living environment(18 items), and structure of residents, including residence time, relocation intention, income and other items.

Convenience sampling was conducted to collect data in November 2015. A total of 400 copies were

issued and 391 valid questionnaires were collected. The Alpha value of the questionnaires shows a high reliability. For the basic information of the respondents, please refer to Table 1.

Table 1 the basic information of the respondents

item	No.	percentage	item	No.	percentage
sex			No. of People in Family		
Male	217	55.5%	1	12	3.1%
Female	174	44.5%	2	31	7.9%
			3	75	19.2%
Length of residence			4	139	35.5%
less than 5 years	63	16.1%	5	70	17.9%
5-10 years	75	19.2%	6	49	12.5%
11-15 years	87	22.3%	7	9	2.3%
16-20 years	59	15.1%	8	3	0.8%
21-30 years	64	16.4%	10	2	0.5%
More than 31 years	43	11.0%	12	1	0.3%
Education level			age		
Primary school or below	47	12.0%	Below 18years old	55	14.1%
Junior high school	105	26.9%	18-25 years	90	23.0%
Senior high school	110	28.1%	26-35 years	83	21.2%
Bachelor	118	30.2%	36-45 years	62	15.9%
Master	10	2.6%	46-55 years	51	13.0%
Ph.D.	0	0%	56-65 years	38	9.7%
others	1	0.3%	66 years or above	12	3.1%
occupation			Family monthly income		
Frontline staff	67	17.1%	Less than 10,000	49	12.5%
Technical staff	44	11.3%	10,000-30,000	182	46.5%
Management	40	10.2%	30,001-50,000	104	26.6%
Clerk	38	9.7%	50,001-70,000	31	7.9%
Freelancer	28	7.2%	70,001-90,000	14	3.6%
Owners	20	5.1%	More than 90,001	11	2.8%
Student	99	25.3%			
Retired	38	9.7%			
others	17	4.3%			

Data Source: the investigation, compiled by the authors.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The evaluation of tourism gentrification stage relies on three aspects: commercialization, environmental impact and population structure change. The factor analysis was adopted to extract the main components of the perceived impact of the tourism. Four principal components were extracted, they were 'living environment', 'life comfort', 'living cost' and 'commercial quality'.

Subsequently, the four principal components were integrated with the selected four kinds of individual information, and K-means clustering was carried out in SPSS. It is found that when the

number of clusters is chosen as 3, the significance (Sig value) of each index is less than 0.05, which means the respondents can be divided into 3 Categories.

Table 2 Final Cluster Centers

	1	2	3
Education	3.12	2.92	2.46
Family income	3.01	2.26	2.33
Length of residence	3.51	1.73	5.21
migration intention	1.88	1.75	1.84
living environment	-.35289	.13547	.20758
life comfort	.36034	-.07289	-.30194
living cost	.17299	-.03122	-.15014
commercial quality	.42363	-.12143	-.30584

Source of data : compiled by the authors

The features of the first group of people include: high level in education and income, middle range of length of residence in the present community, the lowest desire to migrate. For the environment, they have the lowest satisfaction with the current living environment, the highest comfort of life, the highest satisfaction with the cost of living, the highest satisfaction on commercial quality. This group can be named as immigration people with high level income and education.

By the same method, the second group of people can be named as out-moving group of people with lowest income and middle level of education. And the third group of people can be named as aboriginal groups with lowest income and education. Details please see the table 2.

The respondents of the above categories were aggregated based on the regions where they live, the results have been shown in table 3:

Table 3 the distribution of the various groups in different regions

Region	Immigration people with high level income and education	Out-moving group of people with lowest income and middle level of education	Aboriginal groups with lowest income and education
the A-Ma Temple District	38.1%	27%	34.9%
the Lilau Square District	35.5%	42.1%	22.4%
the 'Leal Senado' Building District	25%	45.3%	29.7%
the Freguesia de Santo António	33%	38%	29%

Source of data : compiled by the authors

As some scholars have pointed out, along with the tourism gentrification, the regional commercial pattern and living environment will be changed at the same time. And these aspects are the important indicators to measure the process of tourism gentrification (Zhao, 2006; Zhao, 2009;, Chen& Zhao, 2010). The commercial pattern and the development level of the living environment are measured in terms of mean value analysis of the relevant questions. Please see table 4.

Table 4 the scores of commercial pattern and the living environment

Item	Region			
	the A-Ma Temple District	the Lilau Square District	the 'Leal Senado' Building District	the Freguesia de Santo António
Subtotal of commercial pattern part	3.484	3.522	3.517	3.444
Subtotal of living environment part	3.802	3.892	3.959	3.785

Source of data : compiled by the authors

From the above table, it is clear that there is only small difference in the commercial pattern between the four areas, the value of commercial pattern in the Freguesia de Santo António is relatively lower than the others. But obvious difference existed in living environment part, where the 'Leal Senado' Building District has the highest value and the Freguesia de Santo António has the lowest value. Take the category of the residents, intention of migration, business pattern and living environment into consideration, the A-Ma Temple District and the Freguesia de Santo António are in line with the

characteristics of the first stage of tourism gentrification, the Lilau Square District can be regarded as on the development stage of gentrification, and 'Leal Senado' Building District is found on the stable stage. Figure 2 shows the characteristics of the different regions in terms of tourism gentrification and the stage in which they are located.

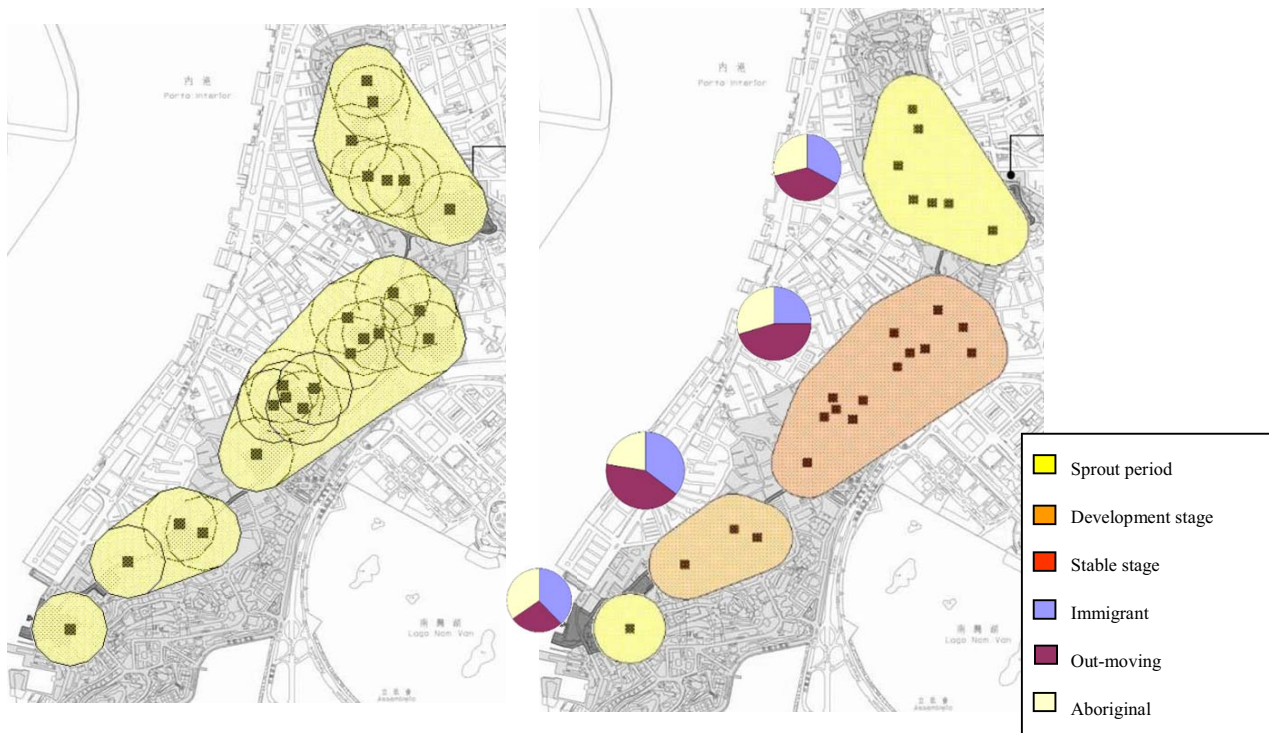


Figure 1 the characteristics and the stage of tourism gentrification for research area

The stages of tourism gentrification and residents' attitude to heritage tourism

Based on the above conclusions, this study further explores the attitudes of respondents in different stages of gentrification to the development of cultural heritage tourism. Through the correlation analysis, it is found that the higher level of the gentrification stage, the stronger the negative perception of tourism development's impact, and the more intense of negative attitude towards the tourism industry can be observed. Detailed data can be found in Table 5.

Table 5 the correlation between the gentrification stage attitudes to the tourism industry

	Stage		
	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
Brought a lot of noise pollution	.120*	0.017	391
Increased the price level	.146**	0.004	391
Disturbed your original quiet life	.101*	0.047	391
Support cultural heritage tourism	-.137**	0.007	391

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source of data : compiled by the authors

5. CONCLUSION

Although the existing tourism gentrification study mostly adopts qualitative research methods, this study tries to judge the development stage of tourism gentrification through the questionnaire survey from the perspective of residents' perception. Based on the above analysis, this study has the following conclusions:

(1) The characteristics of modern tourism gentrification are verified. The results of the study conducted in the Macao show that there are significant differences among the different regions in Macao historic center. (2) It is feasible to use quantitative analysis method to judge the development stage of tourism gentrification from the perspective of residents' perception, and on this basis, further study can also be carried out. (3) In this study, it is found that the higher the degree of tourism gentrification, the stronger the perception of the negative impact of tourism on local community, and also the stronger the negative attitude towards the development of tourism.

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REFUNCTIONING OF ALAÇATI HOUSES WITH CULTURAL HERITAGE AS BOUTIQUE HOTELS

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ABSTRACT

The accommodation industry seems to be in a change in the direction of changing world and changing consumer preferences. In recent years, depending on this change, many countries refunction historical houses, which are cultural heritage sites, as boutique hotels. Located in the west of Turkey, Alaçatı is also a tourist destination that has preserved its unique traditional style. In this study, traditional houses converted into boutique hotels in Alaçatı and their properties were evaluated. Tourism investors also contributed to the information shared in this study.

Keywords: Boutique hotels, Alaçatı, Cultural Heritage, Tradinational House

INTRODUCTION

Throughout history, accommodation needs that have arisen as a result of people's travels for different purposes led to the creation of inns and caravanserais. Over time, accommodation facilities have started to operate in the tourism sector in line with the development of tourism in the countries, changing tourist demands, and technological progresses. On the other hand; nowadays, the accommodation facilities are no longer the places where people spend the night and meet their basic needs. Various types of accommodation facilities have come to fruition to meet the changing needs of people. Boutique hotels are also one of the types of accommodation facilities. Their structural features, architectural design, decoration and authenticity of the materials used make boutique hotels different from other hotels and meet different tourist demands. The number of boutique hotels in Turkey is also increasing. Alaçatı is one of the areas where the number of boutique hotels is very high and is making progresses in tourism. Alaçatı, with its houses transformed into boutique hotels with the re-functioning of traditional houses, has the feature of being an important destination in Turkey by protecting both the historical texture and the new structures harmoniously with this texture. The purpose of this study is to bring the traditional houses forward converted into boutique hotels by refunctioning with their properties in Alaçatı, which is a touristic city. The scope of the study included the concept of boutique hotel as the accommodation facility and its architectural characteristics. As a result of the study, tourism investors and planners in other countries have made various sharings about the re-functioning of traditional houses.

Boutique Hotels

The concept of boutique hotel is a practice of tourism management which is spreading in the world. Behind the popularity of these types of hotels lies the reasons such as the ability of the customers to combine elegance and comfort, to provide high quality personalized service to customers, to make them feel at home, and to earn high income as a result of attracting tourists from upper income groups, even though they have a small number of room capacity.

Boutique hotels have two types in the world and in our country in terms of its architectural features. One type is built as boutique hotels. The other type is the boutique hotels made by re-functioning of the old buildings. The ones built as boutique hotels are those built with modern technology and materials to meet the accommodation needs. It is easier to create such a concept of boutique hotels. The hotel is shaped in line with the desires of the designer and the operator. In the second type of boutique hotels, the newly functioning structure must include the necessary systems in accordance with the desired physical environment conditions, provided that the interventions are limited. It needs to be formed in such a way as to give the least damage to the old tissue. When the new function is loaded, care must be taken to ensure that the structure is in harmony with the environment without losing its originality. In order to meet the requirements of the new function, spaces should be analysed and major changes should not be made.

There are two reasons why it is necessary to re-use an architectural structure without destroying it; the fact that the buildings lose their original functions, and functionally become old. The second reason is that the building types such as inns and madrasas related to social and cultural changes are not used properly for the purpose of construction and lose their original function and the building cannot meet the technological, technical and functional necessities of the day (Ahunbay, 2004).

Interior planning of boutique hotels is similar to other hotel constructions. However, there is a limit to the space diversity as it is a smaller concept hotel. Since boutique hotels are smaller in size, there may not be such units as acceptance hall, breakfast hall, male and female hairdresser, sales stores, etc. that can be found in other hotels. The traditional textures, which have been converted to boutique hotels by re-functioning, give the customers a feeling of being in different times with the design of the space. Therefore, this type of hotel is generally preferred by domestic and foreign tourists.

Alaçatı

Alaçatı is a province of Çeşme, İzmir located in the west of Turkey. The population of Alaçatı is ten thousand. But in the summer this population reaches sixty thousand (Çelik, 2010).



Picture 1. Alaçatı

The name of Alaçatı was found in the borders of Erythrai in the north-east of İlica in the year 3000 BC (Gezgin, 2007). Erythrai is one of twelve Ionian cities. Areas of Erythrai and Çeşme belonging to the Byzantine Empire in the Middle Ages were taken by the Turks in the second half of the 14th century and became a part of Aydınoğulları Beylic (Baykara,1980). Alaçatı is named as "Alacaat" in "Çesme Lawbook" prepared in 1530. It is written in the lawbook that there are 211 houses in Çeşme, 60 houses in İldırı and 127 houses in Alacaat (Özgönül, 1996).

The physical structure of the town consists of three areas. The first area is located in the centre of Alaçatı, the one that houses the traditional texture. The second area covers the new settlement area. The third area is the newly emerging tourism area in the south of the town. The first area, which is the first settlement area of Alaçatı having the traditional texture in the centre of town, includes Hacı Memiş Neighbourhood, in the southwest of the settlement which is the oldest neighbourhood in Alaçatı today, Tokoğlu Neighbourhood and finally Yeni Mecidiye Neighbourhood according to the historical process.

Especially, Hacı Memiş Neighbourhood is the place which carries the features of Greek architecture and has the majority of the old stone structures and best reflects the historical street character . The structures in this area form the traditional characteristic architectural samples. Two-storey buildings in Turkish and Greek architectural styles, masonry stone structures made of stones from the town, narrow streets and windmills which are the symbols of the area are located in this area (Karatosun, 2010). This area, which is located in the center of the settlement, was declared as an Urban Archeological Site and was taken under protection as a result of the decision taken on July 1st, 1998 (Dalkıran and Bal;2007).

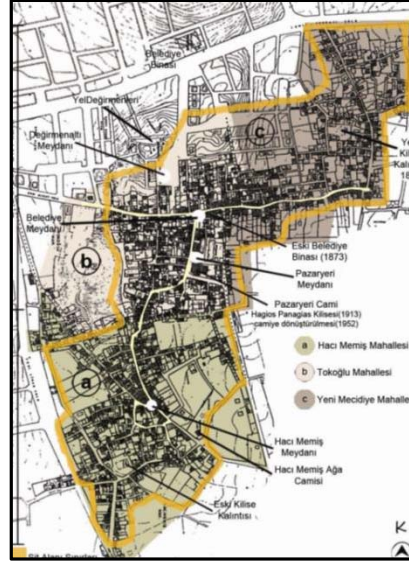


Figure 1. Traditional touch area (Kocamanoğlu, 2010)

The second area is the one where the second houses in the northern part of Alaçatı are located. This area has a plan that is formed with a modern planning concept and used as a summer house far away from the traditional texture. There are contrarian structures that were formed without being bound to the architectural characteristics of existing buildings in the urban archeological site in the centre of Alaçatı.

The third area is the newly formed tourism area in the southern part of town. This area differs both from the traditional area, and from the second newly developing area in terms of its function type and features. The area also includes the part that allows windsurfing, which has an important place in winning a name for itself.

The influence of tourists from İstanbul is quite considerable in the development of Alaçatı. Around the 1950s, a surfing centre was established with the discovery that Alaçatı was in an area suitable for surfing sports. From this date, as the number of tourists increased, historical stone houses began to be restored. Over time, with the increasing interest of tourists in stone construction, these constructions have been transformed into cafes, restaurants and hotels in line with needs of the city (Çelik, 2010).

Refunctioning of the Traditional Houses in Alaçatı as Boutique Hotels

The hotels in Alaçatı generally have 5-10 rooms and a total capacity of 600 beds (Anonymous, 2009). The boutique hotels, which are the results of refunctioning, reflect the influences of Turkish and Greek architecture because it is the transformation of the ancient Greek and Turkish houses. It is more accurate to call these constructions as the synthesis of the Turkish house and the Greek house. The reason why the structures reflect two different architectural elements is the influence of the Greek culture which was effective in spatial formation in the 1800s and the Turkish culture after forced migration since 1920s (Atilla and Öztüre, 2006). The stone houses were made of white stones removed from the site and hardened. The stones yellowing over time reflect the age of the buildings. Outside walls are

painted with whitewash in white and yellow oxide tones. Door and window edges are mostly contoured with indigo blue colour (Anonymous, 2009).

Houses in Alaçatı are generally two-storey, adjacent, facing side street, and with a back or side garden. While the lower floors of houses constructed separately as ground floor and the first floor are used for commercial function, the upper floors are considered as living areas. This floor has terrace areas defined as living areas. There is a small sofa and rooms that open to this sofa (Çelik, 2010).



Picture 2. Alaçatı overview (<https://tr.pinterest.com/hsyntmlh/turkey/>)

After 1955, as the city gained importance in terms of tourism, traditional houses were restored and brought into service as boutique hotels firstly in 2001. In general, the ground floors of the houses are divided into entrance and lobby area, kitchen and restaurant area.

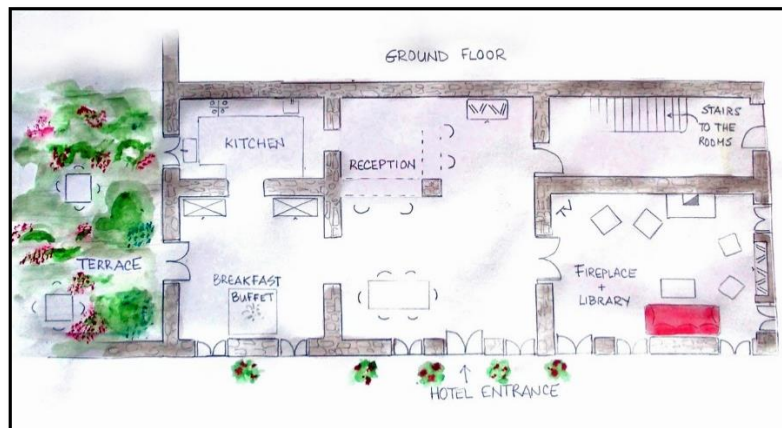


Figure 2. Ground Floor (<http://tasotel.com/otel-plani>)

There are bedrooms on the upper floor. Each room has a special name for the place.

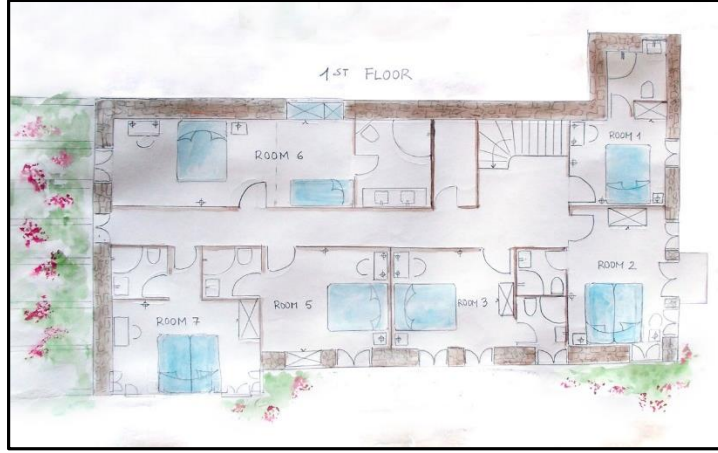


Figure 3. 1. Floor (<http://tasotel.com/otel-plani>)

Results of evaluations made in a study conducted for Alaçatı destination in 2015 showed that the restoration of the old stone houses into small hotels created a destination image and helped Alaçatı earn reputation (Alkan, 2015).

CONCLUSION

Alaçatı has an important place in our country in terms of tourism. It is one of the finest holiday destinations in our country with its location, unique architecture that reflects the traces of the past, the windmills dating from a hundred years and gum gardens, the sea that allows windsurfing, and cobblestone pavements. It is important to preserve the existing texture and to construct structures of the same quality in order to transfer this texture formed by the accumulation of centuries to future generations. In addition, all the traditional architectural samples of Alaçatı have been preserved without harming the historical texture. Refunctioning of the traditional houses as boutique hotels is an important tourism movement. The worldwide recognition of these hotels is due to their ability to protect the traditional texture. The town, which can be a good example for other places, is increasing the number of tourists with the correct tourism movements.

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<http://tasotel.com/otel-plani>

Destination Governance in a Tourist-Historic City

Dr Brendan Paddison

Extended Abstract

Destination governance continues to engender much interest and debate in the development of sustainable tourism, with notions of destination management and stakeholder engagement of particular interest. As a result of the broader political transition from *government* to *governance* (Stevenson, Airey and Miller, 2008), local authorities became more strategic, developing and implementing public policy in collaboration with key stakeholder and interest groups (d'Angella, De Carlo and Sainaghi, 2010; Ruhanen et al., 2010). This reorientation of local government, brought about in part by a recognition of the economic significance of tourism, facilitated new forms of tourism management (d'Angella, De Carlo and Sainaghi, 2010; Fyall and Garrod, 2005; Hall, 2011; Spyriadis, Fletcher and Fyall, 2013). Tourism was now considered an important stimulus for urban regeneration (Thomas and Thomas, 1998) and local government agencies sought to increase the economic potential of tourism through collaboration with the private sector. Governments at all levels, therefore, assumed greater responsibility for and involvement in tourist destination planning and development (Ruhanen, 2013). Consequently, different types of tourism governance emerged (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010; Hall, 2011), and continue to change as those responsible search for more suitable or effective forms by adjusting to specific contexts and situations (Bramwell and Lane, 2011).

Although collaboration and partnerships in a broad sense are recognised as an effective collaborative method of involving all, or at least the majority of relevant stakeholders in destination management (Carley, 2000; Greer, 2001), there can be difficulties in accommodating a wide variety of interests, potentially leading to or further cultivating conflict and power imbalances between stakeholder groups (Bornhorst, Ritchie and Sheehan, 2010; Greasley, Watson and Patel, 2008; Hall, 2000; Mordue, 2007). For example, Augustyn and Knowles (2000) highlight how a dominant private sector stakeholder may represent their corporate strategies and priorities more strongly than the key interests of the locale. In order to improve the nature of participation in tourism, an examination of the governance structures and their repercussions for tourism decision making and stakeholder engagement is therefore required (Kimbu and Ngoasong, 2013). Appropriate structures and representation mechanisms need to be in place to create a balanced perspective and effective representation of the destination community.

With further reference to the potential difficulties in establishing collaborative initiatives or partnerships, Hall and Jenkins (1995) explicitly focus on the creation of partnerships between the public and private sector. They argue that, rather than being inclusive, often these partnerships, i.e. specifically between local government and industry groups, might in fact result in a 'closing up' of the policy process to other stakeholders. Bramwell and Lane (2000) note that a concern with partnership arrangements is ensuring that relevant stakeholders from government, business and voluntary sectors are engaged in decision making which is based upon mutual respect and knowledge sharing. This is supported by Hall (2000), who suggests that there is a need for partnerships and collaboration to be based within the context of the public interest, as opposed to corporate priorities, with the selection of key stakeholders who represent various community interests (Garrod, 2003; Getz and Timur, 2005; Kimbu and Ngoasong, 2013; Timothy, 2007). Partnerships need to be challenged by focusing on who is involved and who is excluded from the decision making process (Hall, 2000). Consequently, collaborative approaches to tourism management need to be examined within broader ideas of governance, with an evaluation of the appropriate role of government and the changing relationships and expectations between government and local communities.

The multifaceted and dynamic environment of many tourist destinations requires effective governance in order to effectively manage their complexity, particularly in the coordination and engagement of stakeholders (Palmer, 1998). Frequently, therefore, Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) assume a leadership role that goes beyond the marketing and promotion of a destination but also facilitates inward investment and product development (Howie, 2003; Spyriadis, Fletcher and Fyall, 2013; Svensson, Nordin and Flagestad, 2005). Whilst the engagement of a range of stakeholders is evident within the ideals of destination management, in practice often management is centralised, typically around a public-private sector partnership, potentially prohibiting full engagement of all stakeholders (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010; Spyriadis, Fletcher and Fyall, 2013). It is for this reason that d'Angella, De Carlo and Sainaghi (2010) argue that certain features of a destination management organisation, such as the business model and the nature of stakeholder involvement in the management and activities of the organisation, need to be evaluated.

For Pratchett (1999), local government, as the democratic institution of the local community, has a significant role in ensuring democratic accountability within these emerging governance structures. In this context, accountability refers to the extent to which actors acknowledge and take responsibility for actions and decision making (Huse, 2005). In other words, decision making is transparent and accountable (Dredge and Pforr, 2008; Midwinter, 2001). Whilst it is purported that democratic accountability should be sought

through local government (which may be democratically elected) (Bramwell and Sharman, 1999; Godfrey, 1998), Dredge (2006) argues that local government representatives claiming that they represent the views of the resident community is problematic in that often they do not represent broader resident interests. Rather than solely being an issue of democracy, benefits of wide-spread local engagement for the destination also exist. Thus, it has been suggested that there is significant social capital to be gained from engaging residents in the governance of their own communities (Pratchett, 1999). For successful and sustainable tourism development, participation in the decision making processes is regarded as vital (Marzuki, Hay and James, 2012). Yet, not all community groups have equal opportunity to participate in tourism planning and decision making (Khazaei, Elliot and Joppe, 2015).

Studies of sustainable tourist destination development abound (Mihalić, Šegota, Cvelbar and Kuščer, 2016) Yet, despite the observance of various approaches to tourism governance, few studies exist which offer an analysis of issues within destination governance in relation to their impact on local community involvement and representation (Beaumont and Dredge, 2010; Bramwell and Lane, 2011). There is a lack of research concerned with application of theory and its development in relation to local governance structures (Dredge, 2006). The purpose of this paper is to interpret collaborative approaches to tourism in the tourist-historic city of York, addressing the need to understand the implications for stakeholder representation and participation in these emerging governance structures (Scott et al., 2011). Through an evaluation of the tourism governance approach in York, the paper concludes by highlighting how the structures and representation mechanisms in place appear to be crucial in enabling relevant and effective engagement of destination stakeholders. The paper provides a unique insight into how public policy discourses manifest themselves at the local level with implications for tourist destination governance. A critique of destination management is offered which extends our understanding of tourism governance structures and stakeholder engagement, with implications for sustainable tourism development discussed.

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Prospects and opportunities for sustainable tourism development and tourist infrastructure of Russia¹

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Tourism is one of the most promising and profitable sectors of the economy, while the tourism industry, as a branch of the national economy, has a huge impact on the indicators of the welfare and prosperity of the country both economically and socially

Already now about 40% of all countries in the world have the main source of income is from the tourism industry, and for more than 80% of countries tourism is one of the five main sources of replenishment of the budget.

Such countries like France, USA, Spain, China, Turkey, etc. focused primarily on the admission of foreign nationals, but considerable attention is paid also to domestic tourism (USA, China, etc.).

Russia belongs to the countries in which dominates the reception of foreigners, and the attention of domestic tourism has been given only in the last decade.

The key problem of development of the domestic tourism industry in Russia is related to the lack of incentives for the market participants, mainly related to economic and taxation fields, which make this sphere unprofitable from the point of view of investments and obtaining of a stable and high entrepreneurial income and, as a consequence, of the growth of its share in the country's GDP.

We have now Federal target program "Development of domestic and inbound tourism in the Russian Federation (2011-2018)" in the framework of the

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state program "Development of culture and tourism" for 2013-2020 years, but in connection with significant changes in the geopolitical situation in the world in 2014, the need to develop new approaches and directions of development of tourism and tourist infrastructure in Russia is predominantly based on the geo-economic approach that will provide an opportunity effectively to respond to external challenges and threats multivariate strengthen the national security of the state at the present stage of global development.

According to the latest data of World Tourism Organization (PR 17003 of January 17, 2017) in 2016, the number of international tourist arrivals increased by 3.9% and amounted in total to 1 billion 235 million. The previous year was the seventh year in a row of sustained growth after the global financial and economic crisis of 2009. Such period of continuous, stable growth was observed with the 60-ies of XX century. Tourism is one of the drivers of the world economy, providing approximately 10% of global GDP, every 11th workplace on the planet directly or indirectly depend on tourism.

The effective development of domestic tourism is of great importance for the Russian Federation, which has a huge natural, climatic, historical and cultural-cognitive potential. According to the strategy for the development of tourism in the Russian Federation for the period until 2020, the main task is the development and maximum realization of such tourism in Russia, which is regarded as a significant source of financial revenues for budgets of different levels.

Figure 1 shows the dynamics of outbound tourism of the Russian citizens and domestic tourist flows. In Russia population about 140 000 000 people.

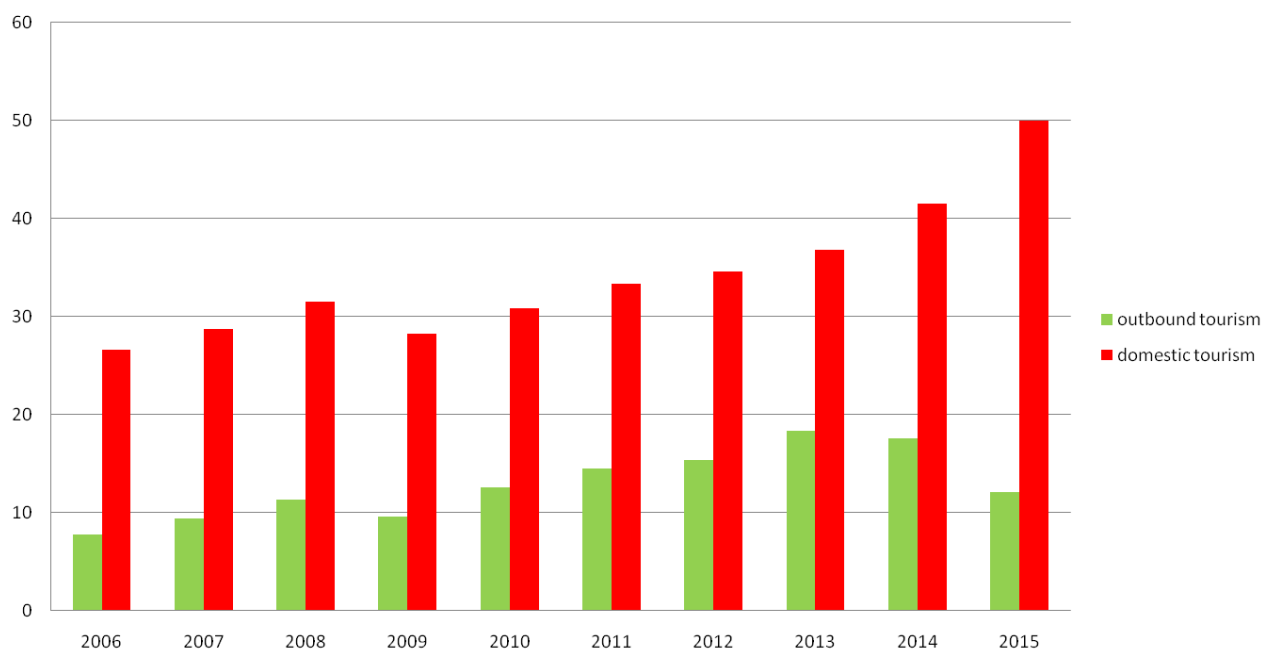


Figure 1. Dynamics of outbound tourism of the Russian citizens and domestic tourist flows over the past 10 years, mln. people

The presented dynamics shows that in the recent years, in the Russian Federation, considerable attention has been paid to the state policy in the sphere of domestic tourism. However, with quite impressive growth rates (more than 16 per cent over the last 3 years) of the domestic tourist flows, it is worth noting that in comparison with foreign countries (in the USA up to 80 per cent of the population travels inside the country), this indicator remains low.

Some indicators of activity of the tourism industry organizations in Russia are presented in Table 1.

Statistical indicators	Unit of measurement	2014	2015
Number of organizations	Unit	2 823	2 789
Average number of employees	People	1 043 285	1 273 741
Average number of employees (without part-time workers and employees, who performed their work under civil law contracts)	People	957 730	1 191 740
Average monthly accrued wages of employees	Rubles	37 713	40 044
Turnover	Bln. Rubles	1 549,8	1 754,2
Investments into fixed assets	Bln. Rubles	231,3	368,9
Revenues (excluding VAT, excises and similar compulsory payments)	Bln. Rubles	2 531,9	2 815,3
Profits	Bln. Rubles	224,7	155,0
Losses	Bln. Rubles	211,7	325,4
Balanced financial result (profits minus losses)	Bln. Rubles	13,0	-170,4
Number of profitable organizations	Unit	53 390	62 592
Number of unprofitable organizations	Unit	19 354	22 523
Availability of fixed assets at book value at the end of the year	Bln. Rubles	349,7	2 163,0
Availability of fixed assets at residual book value at the end of the year	Bln. Rubles	255,8	1 424,9
Putting new fixed assets into operation (yearly value of the indicator)	Bln. Rubles	97,2	163,8
Degree of depreciation of fixed assets at the end of the year	Per Cent	26,9	34,1
Putting new hotels into operation	Beds	10 328	11 976
Putting into operation of alternative means of accommodation for tourists (sanatoria, rest homes, tourist bases, motels, campsites)	Beds	4 984	1515]

Table 1. Indicators of activities of tourist organizations in Russia (1 Ruble about 1,5 Euro cent)

According to the information presented at the official press conference of the Executive Director of the Association of Tour Operators of Russia Maya Lomidze on the topic: “The Tourist Industry of Russia: the results of 2016 and the prospects for 2017”, the money spent on outbound trips by Russian citizens in the period from 2015 to 2016 fell by 24 per cent (from 4,3 million US dollars to 3,2 million US dollars, respectively), on the other hand, there was a significantly increase by 88 per cent of the expenditures on domestic destinations – from 5,5 million US dollars in 2015 to 10,5 million US dollars in 2016.

In Russia, for many years, domestic tourism traditionally was not given proper attention until significant changes in the conjuncture of the tourist market took place.

In Russia, since 2013, it is the first time that the share of tour operators engaged in domestic tourism exceeds 50 per cent, however, the objective factors of this situation include the reduction in the quality of life of the population, the fall

of the national currency and, in the future, the closing of the most popular destinations for outbound tourism.

All this actualizes finding ways of directions and measures to ensure sustainable tourism development in the new global conditions of social and economic development, based simultaneously on national identity and the importance of interaction between crops.

According to the report of the Secretary-General of the World Tourism Organization Taleb Rifai, tourism in recent years demonstrates the extraordinary strength and resilience despite the many difficulties, especially those associated with security issues, and continues to grow steadily and contribute to the creation of jobs and the welfare of communities around the world. In this regard, it is unacceptable to exclude Russia from the number of countries occupying a leading place in the world in the field of international tourism, as well as countries that implement a priority policy for development of domestic tourism, which is based on the use of geo-economic approach.

Following topics are suggested in the sustainable tourism in Russia:

- new approaches and directions in tourism development and tourist infrastructure of Russia, mainly on the basis of geo-economic approach;
- new paths, directions and measures to ensure sustainable tourism development in the new global conditions of social and economic development, based simultaneously on national identity and the importance of interaction of cultures;
- road map of intensive development of competitive tourist infrastructure of Russia;
- priority directions of development of domestic and incoming tourism, which will be based on the extensive use of geo-economic approach;
- the complex of organizational, legal and economic measures for sustainable development of tourism and tourist infrastructure in Russia to create a significant number of additional jobs and a significant increase in well-being as citizens of the Russian Federation and the state as a whole;

- the new concept of sustainable tourism development and tourist infrastructure of Russia, based on a fundamentally new use of a geo-economic approach taking into account the interaction of man, nature, technology and social institutions at the present stage of global development.

Thus, the study of these areas will conform to the provisions of the Strategy of scientific and technological development of the Russian Federation and contribute to, including: making the tourism industry a larger contribution to economic growth of Russia; to improve the standard of living of the population; the preservation of culture, environment; to ensure social inclusion, understanding and tolerance in society.

In order to attract private capital to domestic tourism, state support and incentives are often required. Since the state currently pays little attention to tax incentives for domestic tourism in Russia, taxation, in its current form, is a significant deterrent to the development of the tourism industry and requires revision of a number of tools and the mechanism of its implementation.

The modern Russian state seeks to create the necessary political and economic climate for successful implementation of market mechanisms, which can make it possible to regulate economic processes in the country, to respond flexibly to the dynamics of the global financial markets and to properly represent the country on the global stage.

One of the most effective market mechanisms, which have been firmly established in the theory and practice of state influence on economic processes, is taxation.

Taxes, being a part of the financial and economic system, are a key element of state regulation of the economy. Forming the country's tax system, the state pursues the goal of using it within the framework of the implemented financial policy. In this regard, it becomes a relatively independent sphere – a tax policy, which is a complex of financial, economic and legal measures of the state to create the country's taxation system for the financial provision of activities of the state and certain social groups, for supporting sustainable development of the country's

economy by means of distribution and redistribution of financial and other resources. Realization of an effective tax policy is based on interrelated functions of taxes.

To support enterprises operating in the field of domestic tourism, it is expedient to establish requirements regarding the share of revenues from domestic tourism in their total revenues.

Table 2 gives a classification of domestic tourist enterprises and requirements, the compliance with which will enable them to receive state support in the form of tax incentives.

N	Type of enterprise	Requirements and conditions for enterprises to obtain tax incentives
1	Accommodation facilities for tourists	Carry out their activities and have state registration on the territory of the Russian Federation. Serve the citizens of the Russian Federation by charging them up to 80 per cent of the fees established for persons who do not have Russian citizenship or stateless persons. The revenues in the last financial year consist of the income from citizens of the Russian Federation (not less than 25 per cent) both for accommodation and additional services provided in the accommodation facilities
2	Food service establishments for tourists	Carry out their activities and have state registration on the territory of the Russian Federation. The revenues in the last financial year consist of the income (not less than 25 per cent) from servicing organized tourist groups, in which over 50 per cent are citizens of the Russian Federation
3	Recreation facilities for tourists	Carry out their activities and have state registration on the territory of the Russian Federation. The revenues in the last financial year consist of the income (not less than 50 per cent) from servicing organized tourist groups, in which over 50 per cent are citizens of the Russian Federation
4	Transport provision of tourists	Have state registration on the territory of the Russian Federation. Carry out flights to the cities in Russia, or to the cities in Russia and abroad under the condition that at least 50 per cent of the flights cover Russian cities. The revenues in the last financial year consist of the income (not less than 25 per cent) from servicing passengers who are Russian citizens and carrying out flights within the territory of the Russian Federation
5	Tour operators	Have state registration on the territory of the Russian Federation. The revenues in the last financial year consist of the income (not less than 50 per cent) from the sale of tourist products in the field of domestic tourism to Russian citizens
6	Travel agents	Carry out their activities and have state registration on the territory of the Russian Federation. The revenues in the last financial year consist of the income (not less than 50 per cent) from the sale of tourist products in the field of domestic tourism to Russian citizens

Table 2. Classification of domestic tourism enterprises

We will present the most significant measures of tax incentives for the designated categories of the tourist market subjects in the context of domestic tourism.

1. For tourists: introduction of a “recreational deduction” to reduce the tax burden on personal income tax. The size of deduction is determined depending on the time of the year of the tourist trip. Temporary differentiation will help to

balance the tourist flows reducing the influence of seasonality in some areas and popularizing new forms of recreation.

2. For tourist firms: formation of a special tax regime, which includes as objects of taxation “revenues in the form of agency fees” at a rate of 5 per cent for travel agents and “revenues minus expenses” at a rate of 10 per cent for touroperators, provided that the income from the sale of the tourism product in the field of domestic tourism amounts to at least 50 per cent.

3. For accommodation : full exemption from property tax on the property of legal entities and from land tax on new accommodation facilities for a period of 10 years from the moment of their commissioning; also a 50 per cent reduction on transport tax rates established in the region regarding the vehicles used to service tourists.

4. For transport complex: application of the VAT rate of 0 per cent for domestic transportation of organized groups of tourists by all types of transport; and 50 per cent reduction on transport tax rates established in the region regarding the vehicles used to service tourists.

It is understood that these measures will be implemented on a step-by-step basis with mandatory approbation within the framework of pilot projects in the regions with tourist potential (the most attractive destinations, but the least developed in the tourist sense).

As a result, the development of domestic tourism in Russia will make it possible to achieve a multiplicative effect: to raise the employment of the population, to create a favorable image of the country, to increase budget revenues, to develop infrastructure and improve the living standards of the population.

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EXPERIENCE IN TOURIST DESTINATION

Abstract

The development of tourist products based on experience as the key exchange value requires an interdisciplinary approach, which, with applied marketing activities and competitive positioning by means of identity affirmation, leads to the positioning of tourist offer from the aspect of the experience economy. Experience economy facilitates the achievement of competitive advantage on the basis of differentiation by quality. The main goal of this paper is to represent how that concept reflects advantage in (tourist) experiences promotion, based on unique attributes which do not utilise the competitive destination of the area. It is due to the nature of the resource basis itself that the experience dimension of the entire tourist offer should represent a dominant direction in consolidation of the tourist offer elements. Marketing actions must omit the stress from the traditional elements of receptive tourism and focus on the exploitation and promotion of the dominant resources, whose value is exceptionally high and/or on the unrepeatable quality of the local destination identity. The authors are of the opinion that the destination's attractive elements have to be completed with additional activities while the tourist destination's quality is measured solely on the basis of experience.

Key words: Tourist destination, Tourism trends, Experience economy, Tourist, competitiveness

1. INTRODUCTION

A modern tourist product, which is adjusted to the needs of new tourists, no longer includes a tourist partnership role, but individualisation and personalisation of the experience itself. Should such a base be accepted, it is to be concluded that traditional positioning of destination tourist offers on both macro and micro levels is no longer sufficient, i.e. positioning based on comparative advantages. By traditional positioning, it is not possible to differentiate the tourist offer from the competitors' tourist offer, which ultimately implies a request for competitive tourist offer positioning, enriched by new requirements and needs. Such an approach negates the conventional attitude that the existence and availability of comparative advantages is, in itself, sufficient in order to generate tourist demand and creation of a competitive experience economy.

Global tourist trends impose new perceptions of tourism and the emergence of "new" tourists. People who get involved in tourist trends are today becoming increasingly experienced. They are expressing an increased number of needs, not only within the destination, but also during their journey to the destination. Attractive destination elements must be complemented by additional activities and the destination excellence measured by expectations and experiences, i.e. realised experience. It is this very diversification of needs and motives for which people choose visits to, and stays in, a particular tourist destination which leads to a qualitative shift from the standard tourist offer. The accent, therefore, is on tourist product quality, by which a qualitative differential factor in competitive tourist destination positioning is achieved, according to the regional and national level.

If tourism is interpreted as a social phenomenon, it is necessary to consider it not only at economic sciences level, but that consideration needs to be extended also to history, political sciences, sociology, geography and cultural anthropology (Cohen, 1995). Such a wider perception implies a lack of a one-sided perception of tourism where, as an observation base, the category of growth and not of development is taken. From that aspect, the space which represents a tourist base should not, at any time, have an exclusively tourist purpose, although it is the bearer of the tourist function. Therefore, no

method of evaluation which is used to assess spaces with a dominant tourist function is applicable, but rather the method of equilibrium between protection and tourist demand, which later also facilitates tourist offer market differentiation and positioning.

Taking into account the main, dominant, motive for travel as a need to acquire an unrepeatably, unique experience in parallel with increase in travel, we come across an expansion of an increased number of tourist products based on the experience economy. Following socio-economic trends, i.e. interpreting recorded changes in the form of a demographic societal picture, a better education and a higher standard of living, a change in the structure of demand for products and services can also be noticed. A transition from a service economy to an experience economy occurs and increasingly the purchase of objects and services is exchanged for the purchase of experiences. Such purchases represent specific exchange of values for money, which is characteristic for traditional understanding of the experience economy.

This paper contributes a review of the background literature and deals with an innovated approach to the positioning of tourist destinations. The research presented in this paper focuses on the context of the development of tourist products established on experience as the key exchange value and requires an interdisciplinary approach which, together with the applied marketing activities and competitive positioning through identity affirmation, leads to the tourist offer positioning from the point of view of the experience economy.

Setting out tourist offer concepts on the principles of experience economy represents also a regulatory phenomenon, which not only protects the resource base but also, by means of the decrease in negative external factors, affects the quality of life of the domestic population. At the global level, the concept of experience economy has still been theoretically insufficiently researched and implemented.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The development of tourist products based on experience as the key exchange value requires an interdisciplinary approach. By means of further analysis, distinction imposes between perception of experience as a separate product and the aggregate set of experience economy. The absence of

experience economy factors in the creation of a modern tourist product achieves extremely negative results. Historically speaking, the category of national economy competitiveness has suppressed the once dominant category of comparative advantage. The same situation can be noticed in observation of tourism, where added value progressively increases when competitiveness is based on experience economy (Vitasović, 2012).

De-regularised tourist offer growth irreversibly decreases the exchange value of the resource base and, accordingly, also the income from tourism (Vitasović, 2012).

The realisation of an experience and its qualification depend on motivation, perception, value, significance, satisfaction and life style. Experience represents a psychological category, thus being the subject of psychological studies. Comprehension of experience is linked to the explanation of perception.

It is possible to link experience as a psychological process to the process of perception of stimuli. Perception is, therefore, an active process of organising, integrating and interpreting of sensorial information, which facilitates familiarisation with and recognition of the meanings of objects, phenomena and occurrences in the environment. Persons do not have clear senses; they have precepts – as senses are only elements of which a complete experience is made up (lat. percipere = adopt). Perception is not only a sum of elements, but it is also the structure of those elements, active processing of all received and already existing information, their interpretation based on previous knowledge, memory, expectations, attitudes, motives, emotions and personal characteristics (Petz, 2010).

A tourist product within the tourist system represents a complex concept, which includes services, people, organisations and ideas with the aim to realise travel, stays and tourist activity away from of their familiar surroundings (Smith, 1994). Tourist product consumption affects experience realisation. Experience, therefore, depends on the type of tourist product.

Tourism and expenditure during the course of tourist activity perceives tourism as a form of expenditure. Tourism can, therefore, be observed as a specific form of expenditure in which a change in the structure of expenditure occurs (Laws, 1995). During the course of tourist activity, perception of authenticity, i.e. the authenticity of content (of purchased products and services) affects expenditure. Tourists, therefore, expect authenticity in the

destination (MacCannell, 1992) as opposed to pseudo-events (Boorstin, 1964). The search for authenticity in a tourist destination can also have negative impacts and bring pressure on sustainability and local community life. Tourist expenditure pertinent to authenticity is, therefore, observed in relation to modern and post-modern perspectives. In modern perspective, tourists are always in search of authenticity which is perceived through authenticity of the presented content, while tourists in the phase of post-modern perspective are directed to activities, entertainment and enjoyment and do not care about the content authenticity (MacCannell, 1976, Urry, 1990, Cohen, 1995). Consequently, it can be presumed that tourists consume tourist products in relation to previous knowledge, experiences and expectations which, later, in a tourist destination, leads to expenditure driven by emotions and expenditure in the heat of the moment, looking for experiences and entertainment (MacCannell, 1976, Urry, 1990, Cohen, 1995).

Tourists expect a temporary escape from their everyday lives through something unrepeatable, spectacular and unique. It can be concluded that activities for the channelling of tourist expenditure structure within a tourist destination should be directed towards tourist expectations and realisation of their desired experiences.

Experience economy represents creation of a new value (economic and social), where experience is an integral part and starting point of a product or service and not only their expansion or added benefit. Systematic impacts of the elements of offer, therefore, must enable creation of memory, which then becomes experience, i.e. in fact, becomes a product or a service. Such perceptions emanate from research on the behaviour of consumers themselves or service and product users. Initial papers define purchase as being for the purposes of a meaningful and realistic observation and thinking process (Holbrook, O'Shaughnessy, Bell, 1990). With the emergence of the criticism that cognitive models insufficiently define and explain behaviour (Hoch, 1991; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982), however, a change in the study starting point occurs. The emphasis is put on the experience and expenditure. Even Levy (1959) states that people do not purchase a specific product because of what it is intended for, but because of what they think it is, i.e., what it represents for them. Thus Holbrook and Hirschman, in 1982, define products as having two fundamental functions and that their indivisible wholeness is needed. They define usable and hedonistic product functions. Usable functions represent what a product or a service is literally intended for and hedonistic values are those which are described by users as

entertaining, fantastic and pleasant for perception. The hedonistic function, therefore, illustrates subjectivity and individualisation of both products and services. Dhar and Wertenbroch in 2000 prove that, by the usable function in the goods consumption itself, people retain a neutral position in experience consumption, while hedonistic aspects represent a method for improvement in the experiential component of the expenditure itself. Despite the quoted efforts, academic literature determines a lack of a systematic approach in observation of a realised experience (Gentle et al., 2007).

By consumption of a tourist service as opposed to the experience, expectations and realised experience, the importance of the intensity of individual perception of the said experience and functions of use are noticed. In conclusion, the experience economy therefore is not a generic creation of the experience itself, but it is based on the individualisation of the personal experience by a person in his/her social surroundings.

All experiences are individual; some occur more or less within a social construct or are cultural. A common link for all categories is that they are markedly prone to emotional influence and that they affect the realisation of, let us say, a new person, discovery of innovations and research of the unexplored. Kelemen (1974) states that, apart from the emotional category, excitement creates a link and a desire for progress. The main product in a destination, therefore, is experience. The perception of a destination is a combination of factors, comprising a “collection of experiences gained by the traveller” (Gunn, 1997, p. 32).

Increase in tourist travel, fast and expansive growth of the tourist industry, globalisation conditions and innovativeness confront the tourist industry with product differentiation. New tourist demand requirements condition the level of profits from tourism and even question market cost-effectiveness. In conditions where competitiveness is extremely important, even crucial, a challenge is set for comprehension and a more detailed definition of the tourist experience, i.e. experience (Perdue, 2002). For a more detailed comprehension of the concept of the experience economy, tourism is clearly the best example of application of the concept. The first applications were implemented at the beginning of the 70's of the 20th century (MacCannell, 1976, Dann, 1977, and Cohen, 1979). It is, therefore, deemed that tourist experience represents a unique, indivisible entity, pronouncedly filled with the emotional factor, containing almost immeasurable personal value. Tourism facilitates realisation of an alternative experience of time i.e. time

spent far away from everyday life, usual routines and familiar, usual surroundings (Wang, 2000:216). Tourists wish for and expect a unique, authentic experience (MacCanell, 1976).

Tourist experiences cannot be purchased; they can merely be channelled or adjusted. Nobody apart from the tourist himself/herself has direct control over the power of perception and motives and, ultimately, their own value scale of the experience which they had. Tourists, therefore, independently combine elements such as time and skills in pre-expenditure set for experience creation (Rustichini and Siconolfi, 2004). When a tourist joins a tourist activity, nobody knows in advance either the result of the realised expectation, or the intensity of the experience.

The complexity of the concept of experience economy and its elements requires more detailed determination. Innovation can be defined as a complex process in which organisations transform an idea into a new or improved product, service or a process of advancement, competition or successful differentiation in the market (Baregheh et al., 2009). Joseph Schumpeter (1961) focuses on the role of innovations in economic and social development, explaining innovation as a process of development in which an individual approach is contained. Innovation in tourism is generally characterised by distancing from the usual practice of tourist sector business, with the emphasis on quality (Hjalager, 2010).

3. TOURIST DESTINATION

Destination, as a part of the tourist system, affects the experience creation. The impact of destination on the realisation of the experience is observed through the perception of tourist supply competitiveness and the phase of stay in the destination. The tourist system is, therefore, simply observed as an interaction between tourists and the tourist destination. Such a perception is based on the production and expenditure of tourist products and services (Gunn, 1994). Tourists represent an element of tourist demand and tourist destinations, an element of tourist supply. Tourists are connected to the destination by means of traffic accessibility, information accessibility and by marketing mix elements. The marketing mix tools are: product, price, promotion, place, people, physical evidence and process (Križman-Pavlović, 2008).

Furthermore, tourists are exposed to the influence of destination promotional activities, price-forming strategies and the development of tourist product in the destination. The interaction between tourists and the tourist destination becomes reciprocal and the interaction intensity and content are determined by the willingness of both sides (Formica and Uysal, 2006).

In order for destination marketing and management strategies to be fully successful, creative opportunities should be sought to encourage the co-creation of positive, unique, and quality tourist experiences that can attract visitors efficiently (Binkhorst & Dekker, 2009; Jennings & Nickerson, 2006; Mossberg, 2007) and contribute to the competitiveness and sustainability of destinations (Ritchie & Crouch, 2000).

The sustainable approach to tourism aims to optimise the use of the local resources and harmonise the needs of local stakeholders and the community, while simultaneously focusing on the high satisfaction of tourists by ensuring a meaningful, authentic experience (Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Marques, 2012). Considering that tourists seek multiple experiences, destinations should articulate their endeavours in facilitating diversified, quality tourist experiences (Lane, 2009; Agapito et al., 2014).

4. TOURIST DESTINATION AND A MODEL OF DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

Tourist expenditure products represent products which are predominantly used by tourists during their stay in the destination (accommodation, transport, food and tourist activity services). General consumption products are those products which are mostly used by the local population, but which can also be used by tourists (hospital, post office, hairdressing services, and lotteries). A tourist destination attractive base represents the totality of attractions and, as a rule, is the main motive for travel, being an equal factor in realisation of experience in a destination (Uysal, 1991), by which tourist destination competitiveness is affected.

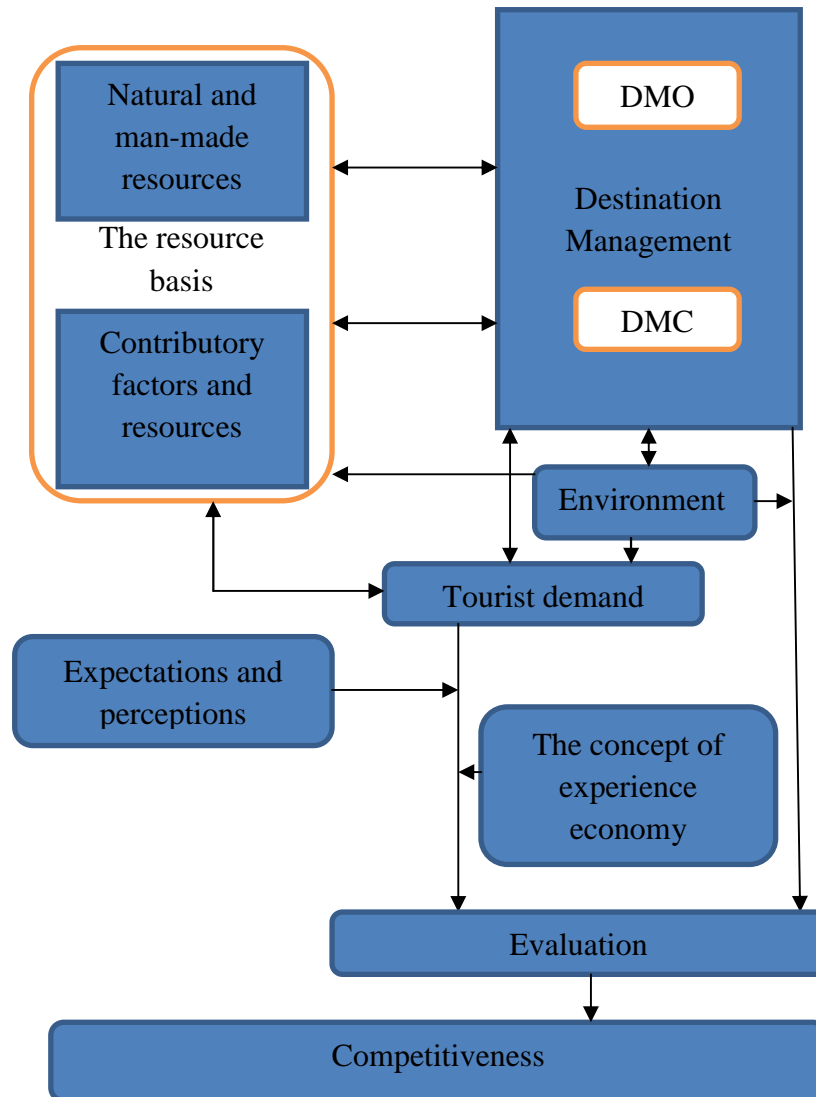
A tourist destination, i.e. a competitive tourist destination, represents the destination which provides a higher level of realised experience qualification (Dwyer and Kim, 2003).

In order to perform the positioning of tourist supply, i.e. a tourist destination based on the principle of experience economy, it is supposed that the tourism system takes into consideration competitiveness factors. By positioning, competitors' activities are directly differentiated and a free market niche for a specific tourist product, i.e. destination, is identified (Krupka and Zečević, 2003: 68).

Therefore In developing a model of destination competitiveness (Figure 1.), therefore, it can be noted that the area of tourism is under the constant influence of macro-environment of the tourist destination (financial conditions in international markets, changes in the demographic picture, lifestyle change, concern for the environment and the emergence of new requirements of participants of tourist flows). Thus the category of competitiveness is a category that is observed from the viewpoint of tourists, compared to their desires, motivations, needs and preferences. Macro- and micro-environment destination affect the perception of destination competitiveness, which implies a dynamic character of competitiveness and its perception is constantly being changed and updated. Figure 1 shows the model of destination competitiveness.

In structuring an optimal model of destination competitiveness, it was noted that different destination tourist products depended on the values of the individual elements of the model. Resources and attractions are certainly important for the competitiveness of tourist destinations, but their existence without the proper infrastructure is insufficient to build a strong competitive position in the market.

Figure 1. A model of destination competitiveness



Source: Prepared by the authors

Tourist demand is a definition of destination competitiveness. The determinant model is a representation of the interaction between the elements of destination competitiveness. This model therefore, represents an integrated

approach and, as such, suggests that the goal of tourism policy by destination competitiveness, as the basic unit, achieves economic development at the national level. With contributory factors of synergistic action, natural and man-made resources make an attractive destination for potential tourists and provide a basis for tourism development. The combination of natural and man-made resources, namely newly created means of tourism infrastructure, organisation of special events, tourist activities in the area, entertainment and shopping opportunities are all contributory factors and resources are presented as the necessary required infrastructure (traffic), quality of service, availability and hospitality destinations (home communities and employees). The mentality of host destinations was also observed. The above resource base influences the competitiveness of tourist destinations. It is emphasised that the competitiveness of tourist destinations depends on the ability of destinations to evaluate their resource base along with the achievement of added value. Tourism destination management by the DMO (Destination Management Organisation) requires the connection of all factors in a functional unit. The activity of public tourism policy is reflected in the realisation of the conditions for the improvement of tourist facilities as well as facilities that implement the DMCs (Destination Management Companies) policies. Furthermore, the optimal management model has been identified as IQM (Integrated Quality Management). Tourist demand implies a level of demand for destinations. The same is associated with preferences and expectations. Destination marketing activities, implemented by the DMOs, have a significant influence on the formation of the perceptions of tourist destinations.

The destination image influences the tourists' expectations about the holiday destination, also influencing the choice of holiday destination and the destination with the strongest image has the higher probability of being chosen (Matos, Mendes, Valle, 2012).

The model is defined in the way that the differentiation in quality conditions the elements of economy experiences. The environment in the model represents the environment of national economies, such as for example the position of destinations, safety and price level. The role of tour operators is the articulation of demand requirements and the formulation of a competitive tourism product (e.g. agrotourism, heritage tourism, local cuisine, ecotourism, indigenous tourism, sightseeing, etc).

The model proposes the concept of competitiveness of tourist offer on the basis of experience. All elements of the model show the interconnectedness and interdependence and competitiveness have been identified as categories of perception by tourists. Planning, development and public tourism policy are not presented by separate elements, but are integrated into the system of tourism destination management.

Innovation in tourist service, and also in the destination tourist product itself, can advance its competitiveness level. Goods and services are no longer enough. In order to be competitive on the growing tourism market destinations must differentiate their products by transforming them into 'experiences' for consumers (Amin and Thrift, 2002; Pine and Gilmore, 1999).

Competitiveness imposes the need for sale of integral services which, on the other hand, aggregate the entire destination offer quality due to the fear of a fall in prices. In the event that exchange value conditionally becomes an experience with repositioning of the destination, maximisation of foreign currency flow will also be achieved and the level of discretionary expenditure in the destination will be increased.

A tourist product should improve the guest's life (Pollock and Benjamin 2001); new technologies should simplify the communication between the destination and the tourist, alleviating fulfilment of tourists' expectations by means of feedback. By applying new interactive technologies, tour operators can considerably contribute to the fulfilment of tourists' expectations. Although the number of individual tourist overnights in relation to the number of organised tourist overnights is on the increase, the advantage of tour operators lies in their market specialisation, as well as in their strong advisory and informative role. They achieve market differentiation by powerful vertical integration, i.e. purchase of principals in the offer chain in order to strengthen the brand and raise the quality of service provision. All affirmed and serious tour operators, therefore, make every effort to include innovations in their business in all phases of integrational relationships, in order to make consumers interested in their offers and contribute to the tourist experience.

As the industrialised world is in transition from the service to the experience economy (Dwyer et al., 2008), tour operators need to undertake some changes in their core businesses. Specifically, they should focus on delivering unique experiences that personally engage consumers. Consumer values in

major origin countries worldwide are changing towards preferences for more product and experience customisation, authenticity, learning, self-improvement and transformation, implying a role for technological innovations to facilitate interpretation of cultural and natural heritage (Molz, 2013). As travellers become more experienced, they are no longer satisfied by being processed through an impersonal, non-interactive system of 'mass tourism'. Moreover, a larger number of tourists would like to see themselves as 'individuals', even though they are engaging in mass tourism such as group package tours. Therefore, tour operators are becoming more specialised and holidays increasingly include some kind of educational or cultural experience. Tourists are increasingly interested in discovering, experiencing, participating in, learning about and more intimately being included in the everyday life of the destinations they visit (Dwyer et al., 2008). Destination management and tour operators, therefore, should create unique experiences in their destinations that differentiate themselves from other destinations. Tour operators should become 'experience providers' developing personal encounters and authentic experiences in order to create long lasting memories and customer loyalty (Dwyer, Seetaram, 2013). Therefore, the focus should be on 'experiences' rather than 'products'.

The Tourism Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia is an umbrella developmental document of Croatian tourism, which provides guidelines and offer structure. In other words, the Croatian Tourism Development Strategy until 2020 represents an integral conceptual framework which facilitates:

- Coordinated involvement of tourist policy bearers and a systematic coordination of tourist policy measures,
- Full understanding of key directions of Croatian tourism development as a prerequisite for attracting potential interests of domestic and foreign investors and
- Target orientation of the developmental and investment process and efficient drawing of EU funds.

This facilitates a systematic approach and a balanced involvement of the tourist offer stakeholders for the purpose of refinement of the aggregate tourist offer.

Efficient implementation of the Croatian Tourism Development Strategy until 2020 conclusions includes organisational adjustments at the level of the Ministry of Tourism, functioning of the tourist organisation system, but also

mutual cooperation among the ministries related to tourist activity to date. In other words, the tourism system needs to be revised and rationalised in order to increase its total effectiveness, especially at regional and local (destination) levels, where tourist activity itself takes place.

Through the aforementioned process of system rationalisation and territorial expansion, tourist organisations would be transformed into destination management organisations (DMOs). This includes staffing and additional training for the jobs of destination development management, with the aim of strengthening of destination competitiveness and to coordinate and harmonise often opposed interests of the stakeholders in the destination.

For the purposes of overseeing the impacts of the Croatian Tourism Development Strategy until 2020 (and tourism, generally speaking) it is necessary to define the indicators which are monitored and referential starting points for development and that for each of the three indicator groups, namely: economy, environment and society.

5. RESULTS

The competitive positioning of a tourist destination must take into account the concept of the experience economy, communicational attributes and economically rational tourist offer valorisation chain. Taking into consideration the postulates of the experience economy, which facilitates the achievement of competitive advantage on the basis of differentiation by quality, marketing actions must omit the stress from the traditional elements of receptive tourism and focus on the exploitation and promotion of the dominant resources, whose value is exceptionally high and/or on the unrepeatable quality of the local destination identity.

In order to provide sustainable tourism development at a destination, in the short term, the quality of tourist sites and landscapes and of the experiences sought by tourists must be maintained and, in the long term, the negative impacts that tourism can have on local communities and the environment must be minimised and positive contributions to the local population and the environment should be maximised.

From the above quoted, it can be concluded that the positioning of the tourist offer on the principles of competitiveness and experience economy implied a higher level of achievement of the tourist offer added value, with the

conception of a rational valorisation chain of the tourist offer elements where cultural heritage represents the basis.

6. CONCLUSION

The development of tourist products based on experience as the key exchange value requires an interdisciplinary approach, which, with applied marketing activities and competitive positioning by means of identity affirmation, leads to the positioning of tourist offer from the aspect of the experience economy.

The tourist destination positioning should be carried out with consideration for the specific destination recognition and the experience of it, affirming the principle of differentiation by quality. The resource base is evaluated by the destination geographical location, cultural and heritage context which competitive tourist offers cannot evaluate. From the above stated, it can be concluded that tourist offer positioning, based on the principles of competitiveness and the principles of experience economy, implied a higher level of realisation of tourist product added value.

The base for creation of experience economy is the experience as a complex category. The experience which a person, i.e. tourist, had in a tourist environment is individual and subjective for each of them. For future research of issues it is suggested that they are focused on the research of attitudes, the process of choosing a destination, the process of creating experiences within the destination and ultimately the formation of a competitive tourism product. Such an approach would allow consideration of the overall process in creating added value and predicting future trends in tourism.

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CONFLICTS, GOVERNANCE AND SOCIAL INNOVATION IN A SMALL TOURISTIC CITY

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CONFLICTS, GOVERNANCE AND SOCIAL INNOVATION IN A SMALL TOURISTIC CITY

ABSTRACT

This work reflects on the problems linked to the management of common resources from a case study in a small touristic town. The analysis focuses on Monte Hermoso city (Argentina), with a seasonal activity based on beach tourism. The town has strongly grown and expanded over the last decade. Fishing has also increased during this period. Both activities are essential to the city's economic structure. We try to characterize the social interaction and conflict in the use and dispute of coastal marine resources. The main findings indicate that the management and joint construction of a fish processing plant is the result of the mobilization and coordination of agents and cooperation between institutions participating in the territory. It demonstrates active involvement of the society in the implementation of a project tending to improve the quality of life and social inclusion of artisanal fishermen. The innovative effort both from fishermen and the municipality creates the basis for a process of sustainable local development with positive impact on the tourism industry.

KEYWORDS: Social Innovation, Governance in tourism, Conflicts.

INTRODUCTION

Fishing plays a major role as a way of life and income generator, especially in vulnerable and marginalized populations. It is usually developed in coastal areas, generally considered interdependent and fragile environments (Casco Montoya, 2004). These areas are by definition complex, with strong issues, and constitute dynamic ecological partner environments, with interactions between activities at different scales of operation (small - large scale, artisan - industrial) and with various stakeholders (Pérez and Ruarte, 2013).

Fishing sometimes generates problems between the fishermen and the residents of certain communities that live close to the waterfront in seaside towns. It is difficult to reconcile the leisure

and holidays interests of a large number of families with the activity of boats, trucks and tractors circulating, which also degrades the beach and produces pollution.

This problem is common to medium touristic cities next to seaside or other common resources, with different uses that generate tensions, because of the appearance of conflicting interests that face the neighbors and difficult local governance. The fishermen claim their right to carry out an activity that they have been developing for years and the residents claim for a clean beach for their vacations.

Common resources involving decisions and collective actions have always been a topic of interest to economists. The literature shows that its management and use is done from institutional environments that include human interaction within markets, companies, families, community organizations, legislatures and government agencies. All these actors have complex motivational structures and set private, governmental and community agreements, transactions operating at multiple scales and generating both productive/innovative and destructive results (Ostrom, 2009).

This work reflects on the problems linked to the management of common resources from a case study in a small touristic town. The analysis focuses on Monte Hermoso, a city with a seasonal activity based on sun and beach tourism. The town has strongly grown and expanded over the last decade. Fishing has also increased during this period. Both activities are essential to the city's economic structure. We try to characterize the social interaction and conflict in the use and dispute of coastal marine resources. We expect to identify and study the elements that can strengthen the innovative fishing capacities, generating useful knowledge for policies design. To achieve this objective we have carried out visits of recognition and direct participation in the territory as well as interviews with the stakeholders. The methodology is descriptive and within the frame of a case study.

Common resources and local development

How to manage and assign collectively scarce common resources has been a recurring theme in the literature. Traditionally, economists have considered that, in general, common ownership of resources

results in excessive exploitation. The so-called "tragedy of the Commons" postulates that in that circumstance, common resources must be managed through the private activity regulation or governmental measures, i.e. through taxes or use restrictions.

However, Elinor Ostrom studied real cases in which communities successfully regulated the use of common resources through cooperation. She focused on knowing how limits on the resources use were established and which enforcement modalities were used. From her perspective, building trust between individuals and the development of appropriate institutional rules has a central importance. People have a more complex motivational structure and a greater ability to solve social dilemmas than the predictions of the rational choice theory. Empirical research led her to argue that contrary to what was discussed, a central objective of public policy should be the development of institutions that bring out the best of people. The question to answer is how the institutions help or hinder innovation, learning, adaptation, confidence building, participants levels of cooperation and the achievement of effective, equitable and sustainable results at multiple scales. To explain the world of interactions and results occurring at multiple levels, it is necessary to capture enough information about the main structures and underlying incentives to predict results in a useful and effective way (Wilson, Ostrom, & Cox, 2013).

At the same time, when analyzing the processes of local development it is important to consider increases in economic competitiveness taking into account the levels of people welfare and quality of life. It is also important to have a comprehensive vision that may include environmental as well as economic and social dimensions, considering their effects on the existing imbalances. In this sense, the theoretical proposals contemplate the influence of three conditions whose presence or absence are the key of inequalities: the rational use of existing resources, the innovative effort, both entrepreneurial and socio-institutional and the cooperation capacity between companies, organizations and institutions to work together and solve the problems of the territory (Caravaca and others 2009). In this regard, it is important to encourage not only business innovation, but also social

innovation, i.e. mobilization and agreement among actors, cooperation between institutions involved in the territory and civil society forms of active participation in policies design that may improve their quality life and future. In this sense, the social actor's roles and innovative practices, the new forms of territoriality, the relations between enterprises, social actors and local political authorities; local identities and their links with the economic and social development as well as differences in territorial governance are important issues to discuss.

Social innovations aim to improve living conditions, especially regarding consumption, use of time, family environment, integration to the labor market, housing, income, people's health and safety. These innovations are located, usually, at the confluence of public policy and social movements: collective services, resistance practices, popular struggles, new ways of producing and consuming, etc (Klein et al, 2004).

Based on the considerations mentioned above, we try to present an interpretative framework of the processes that affect tourists' use of the beach, on the one hand, and fishing, on the other, in the study area. There are evident tensions between the neighbors who own houses adjoining to the space where the fishermen develop some activities (cleaning and selling fish, etc.). However, it has been possible to build a social coalition from the role of governmental and social actors that are associated in order to generate a space of co-management or shared management that enhances the activity and lowers conflict levels.

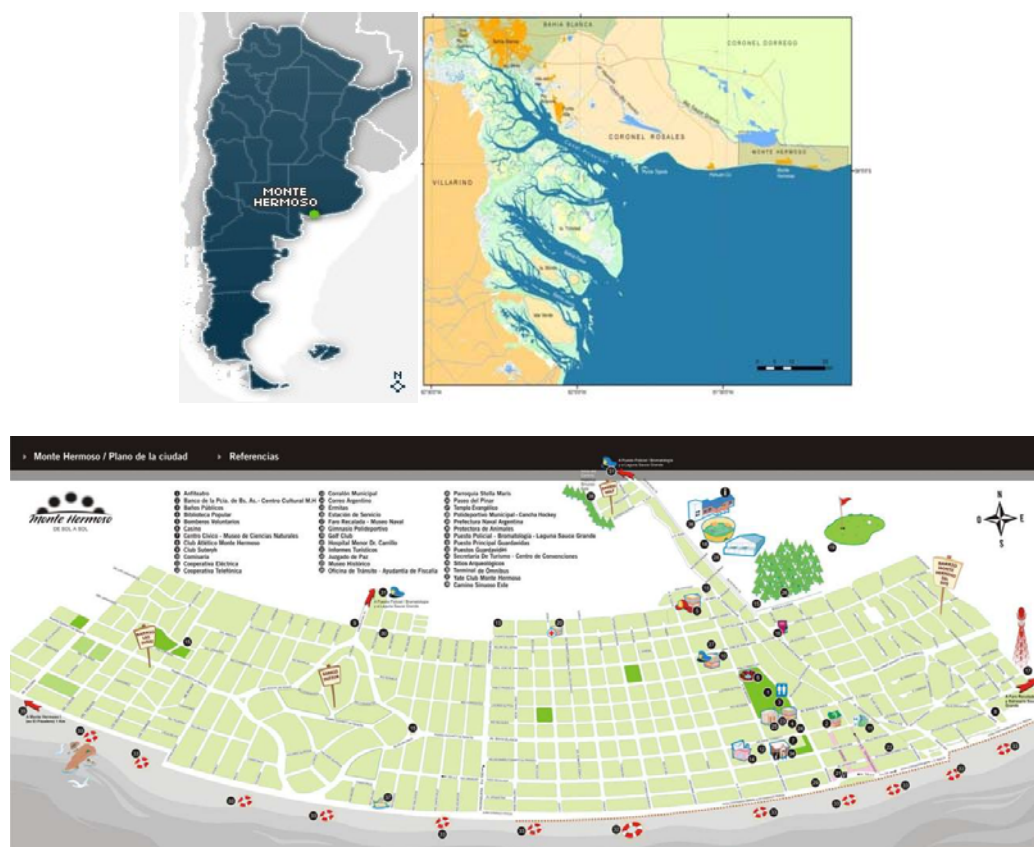
The region of Monte Hermoso

Monte Hermoso is a town located on the Atlantic coast of Argentina (Figure 1), in the southwest of the province of Buenos Aires. It is a family seaside resort, with a marked seasonality. It has 32 km of beach extension and the summer climate of this city is more temperate than that of other major seaside resorts due to the sea breeze effect, while the water itself is warmer, making for a pleasant beach experience. Moreover, considering its geographical location from East to West, it has the unique characteristic in Argentina of having both sunrises and sunsets over the sea, which allows

visitors to stay for longer periods without shadows in the seaside. It is one of the most important touristic cities in the Southwest Buenos Aires and, together with the city of Sierra de la Ventana; they set up the tourist corridor known as "sea and hills".

Second residence houses and family tourism characterize the town. In the last decades, other alternative tourism practices as sports tourism, adventure tourism and ecotourism have acquired great importance. Thanks to tourism, the city grew in population and urban space, increasing services and related activities. Construction is one of the major activities clearly related to tourism. (Fittipaldi et al, 2015)

Figure 1. Localization of Monte Hermoso



Source: own elaboration from London et al (2012), COMET LA, Monte Hermoso web

According to the last census data, Monte Hermoso has nearly 6,500 inhabitants (INDEC, 2010). It is important to emphasize the great intercensal growth. If we consider the last four censuses (1980, 1991, 2001 and 2010), we can observe a rapid population growth, above the rest of the districts in the

province. This fact is due to the summer tourist activity's increase, which has generated new accommodation places with the corresponding increase, on the one hand, in hotels and apart hotels construction and, on the other, in private houses many of them owned by visitors living in neighboring towns.

Villages such as Monte Hermoso extend their space according to the touristic activity; therefore, years of great activity contribute to explain the population growth, mainly linked to the demand in the construction employment. Second-home real estate boom attracts the largest number of migrant population, both domestic and international coming to the town searching for new job opportunities. It should be noted that, although construction of new projects and real estate market's dynamism generated a positive effect in the urban economic structure, there are also obvious contrasts produced by segregation and fragmentation of the urban area. In general, foreigners who arrive to the city tend to settle in the more degraded spaces, away from the most dynamic areas in the town.

Therefore, urban inequalities increase, both inside immigration neighborhoods and between these neighborhoods and the rest of the city. Today, foreign and internal immigration grows on already existing spatial segregation and, in turn, feeds it into a spiral of exclusion that helps to create spaces of conflict. (Fittipaldi et al, op. cit). Seasonal activity aggravates this situation because of the difficulty of finding work during winter.

Monte Hermoso owes its existence to the 1879 purchase of 4,000 seaside hectares by Esteban Dufaur. His son, built *El Recreo* farm in 1910, and in 1918, began welcoming guests in the *Hotel de Madera*; a hotel built by Dufaur with wood from a shipwreck on the shore. Only the lighthouse and the hotel altered the existing natural landscape. The lighthouse, Faro Recalada with 73 m high is the tallest one in South America, situated on the coastal road about 7 km east of the village. It was prefabricated in France by the same construction company, that built the Eiffel Tower in Paris, Opened on 1 January 1906, the manned lighthouse, painted in red and white and giving out a white flash every 9 seconds, comprises an octagonal pyramidal cast iron tower with a central cylinder lantern and gallery. Nowadays guided tours of the lighthouse are provided daily. The relevant activity of the village was

the fishing craft and due to the increase in dogfish, fishing a processing plant for this product was open.

In the decade of the 50s the resort beach is valorized, associated with new tourism trends and the emergence of mass tourism from a change in the social conditions of the population. Principally the coasts are attractive places for the private appropriation (Ercolani et al, 2002).

Monte Hermoso initially depended on the District of Coronel Dorrego. In April 1979, the village achieved autonomy as a city. This fact consolidated its role as touristic destination well recognized in the national circuit.

Artisanal fishing is one of the most important economic activities especially during winter and it is developed in the coastal area of "El Rincón". Although there are more than 100 boats in the area, the activity is not so important throughout the year. The boats used are "trucker" type with lengths between three and nine meters and outboard motors with power between 40 and 90 HP. The town does not have port infrastructure, so fishermen must enter the sea from the beach using adapted vehicles to pass through the sand carrying boats in tow, what constitutes an additional effort and complicates the relationship with the neighbors that feel an invasion of the beach. The fishermen do not use trawls net, they prefer gillnet and spinel ones and hand lines. The species mostly captured are *gatuzo* and *corvina* (Pérez and Ruarte, 2013). The city of Pehuenco, 14 km to the West (674 inhabitants) owns a paleontological park with fossilized footprints of prehistoric animals. The protected area is the Natural Reserve Pehuenco - Monte Hermoso and has been proposed to be declared world cultural and natural heritage to UNESCO.

The analysis of the economic structure shows that tourism is the predominant activity and main source of income, followed by fishing, both artisanal and sport fishing, which is another option for the local economy.

The conflict was generated by the request of a large group of neighbors asking for the eradication of artisanal fishermen in the adjoining area to the breakwater where fish is cleaned and sold. Finding the

resolution for this problem motivated the elaboration of a co-managed associative project that may improve the fishermen situation offering them new opportunities.

Fishing and Governance

The concept of governance applied to fishery sector is the set of rules, practices and institutions that interact at all levels to provide equity and sustainability in the allocation and management of resources and sea spaces (Mann Borgese, Bailet, 2001). Or as Friedheim (1999) states, a government system with formal and informal rules, ancient and recent power structures (environmental NGOs , marine resources exploitation companies and fishing workers , among others) seeking to achieve efficiency and equity in the resources management, and providing mechanisms for conflict resolution in terms of resource access when the stakeholders are interdependent .

At the same time, governance can be characterized as a game that seeks a balance between the various actors and social groups and public and private sectors (Kooiman, 1999) displaying three basic components: the State, the civil society (or community) and the market (Apostle, 1998). The balance between the three actors implies that none of them predominates. Social engagement, public participation, transparency and integration appear as key elements that involve the achievement of broad participation and greater possibilities in the decision-making by stakeholders, users, etc. linked to the sector.

Implementation of a new form of governance implies recognizing that public policies are the result of interaction between public and private, internal and external agents into a system where the State should not be considered as the only important actor in the decisions. These processes are particularly difficult in the study area since fishing is characterized by having many and diverse public and private actors, both direct (fishermen, associations of shipowners, guilds, processing and marketing companies, managers of fish policy) and indirect (consumers, environmental groups, scientists, media, etc.); and they both differ in terms of scales and the use of technologies.

In the case of Monte Hermoso, key stakeholders are the representatives of the local government (municipality of Monte Hermoso), the Fishermen Association of Monte Hermoso and Pehuenco, the Argentine Naval Prefecture, the Nautical Sport Regional Council (CODENAR), the Monte Hermoso Chamber of Commerce and Industry and the Monte Hermoso yacht club.

On the other hand, the artisanal fisheries sector must compete for fishing areas and fishing gears. This situation results in conflicts not only in the capture area but also in the slaughter space because of the increase in the vulnerability of small operators that threatens their well-being, income and food security, in addition to the environmental problems that could degrade the coastal habitats. At the same time, residents have submitted numerous complaints to the local government, but they still do not have an organized grouping.

The fact that public and private institutions, jointly with the local companies could cooperate on common innovative projects requires the creation of a confidence climate or "solidarity culture", that is difficult to achieve and where the role of individuals and organizations working to attain the agreement is especially important (Esparcia Noguera and Buciega, 2001). The lack of local cooperation networks can be an obstacle for the innovative practices that improve the competitiveness and allow development with social inclusion. Something similar happens if local authorities do not get involved in the generation of joint projects since this hinders the concerted management of the territory and the emergence of social innovation projects.

A social innovation is a change achieved by the stakeholders to respond to an aspiration, fulfill a need, provide a solution or take advantage of an opportunity to modify social relationships, transform an action or create new cultural directions. In the long run combining innovations may have a force that exceeds the framework of the initial project (companies, associations, etc.) and represents a bet that questions the balances existing between the actors. Therefore, they turn into a source of social transformations and may contribute to the emergence of new models of development (Klein and

Fontan, 2004). Public, private and civil society stakeholders play a special role in the associative experiences.

From the mentioned issues, with special impact on the artisanal fishery, an associative project has been generated in Monte Hermoso. It is a space of shared management that improves the possibilities of incorporation of value added and which would be an alternative place for the fish cleaning and sale, activities that at present are done on the beach. The Ecological Fish Terminal is a project for the construction of a fish processing and conservation factory in order to obtain a high quality product.

The initiative arises from the Fishermen Chamber, an institution with more than 15 years old, with the accompaniment of the municipal and provincial government. The plant was built on government lands and it is owned by the city. Representatives of the municipality, the fishing industry and a technical employee will manage it. The municipality of Monte Hermoso and the Artisans Fishing Chamber of Monte Hermoso signed an agreement with operating details at the end of December 2016. The municipality provided facilities and a fishermen cooperative to enable that the marketing of the product was created.

Further than its associative nature and particular organization, what is distinctive and innovative in this project is the fact that the plant is expected to be sustainable not only economically but also in environmental terms. It will be equipped with a bio-digester to treat liquid and solid waste producing necessary biogas for its functioning and organic fertilizers suitable for agriculture.

Production is estimated from 80 to 150 cubic meters of biogas per day, depending on the ambient temperature and with a calorific value of 5,000 calories per cubic meter, which can be used as direct heat energy for the production of electricity or for both purposes.

The treatment of gases area has a gasometer from which the artifacts of heating and hot water will be feed. At the same time, within the same area, a three-phase electric power generator powered by a four-stroke engine fed from the same device will be installed.

The facilities cover 534 square meters and will allow fish processing in three cold chambers; product washing rooms, filleting rooms and packaging rooms, as well as the management and gas distribution areas. Average daily production is estimated to process 200 fish boxes. Since this production waste is insufficient to be used for fishmeal manufacturing, it was decided to incorporate the possibility of treating the solid and liquid waste for the manufacturing of organic fertilizers and power generation

This feature makes it an environmentally and economically sustainable industrial plant that eliminates liquid and solid gaseous emissions, with an energy use.

The construction of a cool camera with capacity for 600 fish boxes and an industrial icemaker machine is planned. This will allow fishermen to retain its production for a longer time and negotiate more convenient prices, selling processed fish whose value is much higher than the entire one. Direct employment linked to the plant is between 30 and 45 employees.

Conclusions

Have transformations that took place in recent decades contributed to improving the living conditions and social cohesion in the territory? What happens if common resources are involved? The answer to these questions is affirmative to the extent that the valorization of resources is achieved in a rational and sustainable way that allows overcoming the mere economic growth to generate processes of territorial development.

In this sense, it is necessary to go beyond assistance policies and progress in the promotion of joint initiatives and new forms of governance.

In Monte Hermoso, the beach resource appears as a conflict between two important activities within the local economic structure. As explained, the proper management of community resources requires public policies that facilitate the development of institutions promoting resources and environmental care, innovation, learning and allow increasing levels of cooperation.

In these terms, the management and joint construction of the fish processing plant is a result of the mobilization and coordination of agents and cooperation between institutions participating in the territory. It demonstrates that the active participation of the society in the implementation of a project tends to improve the quality of life and social inclusion of artisanal fishermen. The innovative effort from both fishermen and the municipality and the supportive behavior, creates the basis for a process of sustainable local development with positive impact on the tourism industry.

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GASTRONOMY THROUGHOUT HISTORY. GASTRONOMIC TOURISM IN ANDALUSIA

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ABSTRACT

In this work we carried out a review of the gastronomy over time. It is provided a definition of the concept of gastronomic tourism and how it has emerged as a necessity to boost this sector's incomes in many countries. The following work is an indication of its impact in the region of Andalusia. The need to carry out a serious investigation is desirable in order to create added value in the development and dynamization of the different tourist destinations in the region.

KEYWORDS:

Gastronomy, gastronomic tourism, regional development, sustentable.

1. THE IMPORTANCE OF GASTRONOMIC TOURISM.

The impact of tourism today is caused by the increase in travelers year after year. According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), it exceeded the record of 1200 million tourists in 2015. At first sight, the main and the most quantifiable impact is the economic one. According to Marketline, in October 2016 tourism grew by 5.1% compared to prior year. It generated a value of 6,017.6 billion dollars, having also social and environmental impacts. In addition, it has developed diverse typologies through decades. One of the most recent is the gastronomic tourism. Although food is intrinsic to the human being, gastronomic tourism is, according to OMT (2012), "*an emerging phenomenon of tourism, in the development of new products due to the fact that more than one third of the expenditure is dedicated to food, therefore the cuisine of the destination is an aspect of utmost importance in quality and vacation experience*" (Quan and Wang, et al, 2004).

Hall and Sharples (2003: 10) define gastronomic tourism as "*the visit to primary and secondary producers of food, gastronomic festivals, restaurants and specific places where the*

tasting of dishes and / or experimentation of the attributes of a region, specialized in the production of food, is the main reason for the trip".

According to Global Tourism and Travel (2016), the food and beverage services sector obtains 47.5% of the value of the tourist industry. Therefore it is higher than the one of the aeronautical industry, whose share amounts 16.1%, and other industries such as housing.

According to Schlüter and Thiel Ellul (2008), this recent modality of tourism was highlighted at the International Congress "Local Food and Tourism" held in November 2000 in Cyprus and sponsored by UNWTO. Although it has always been associated with tourism, gastronomy is an inherent part of human beings for their survival. Nowadays, it is being given greater importance as an opportunity and energizing factor of opportunity for the local communities implementing it.

Gastronomic tourism is considered by 88% of destinations as a strategic element to define its image and brand. For this reason the World Association of Gastronomic Tourism estimates that gastronomy generates 150,000 million dollars each year. According to Mintel's report on gastronomic tourism, there are 27 million Americans whose main reason to travel is gastronomy. In Spain the importance of tourism caused an increase of 10.3% over 2015 the number of foreign travelers, amounting 75.6 million tourists according to the Institute of Tourist Studies (2007).

The market value of the Spanish tourism industry in 2015 grew by 1.6%, reaching 193.9 billion dollars, which is expected to have a value of 207.3 billion dollars in 2020. Therefore it will grow 6.9% more than in 2015. We should take into account the fact that if we segment the travel and tourism industry, the industry with the highest value, is restaurants, as it represents 60.2% of the value of the global industry.

According to Isabel Borrego Secretary of State for tourism in Spain (Hosteltur on October 12, 2016), the impact of gastronomic tourism in Spain highlighted the "high value" of Spanish gastronomy in the national tourism model, considering that not only 10% of tourists visiting Spain every year have a gastronomic motivation, but also stating that 37% of the tourists who visit Spain each year try to have a gastronomic experience, too.

2. STAGES OF GASTRONOMY

In order to talk about gastronomic tourism, we should talk about gastronomy and how it emerged, as it goes back to the beginning of human existence, where resources were collected from nature. Therefore, in this section we will talk a little about the history of gastronomy, from prehistoric times, through old age, middle age, modern and contemporary age, to the emergence of gastronomic tourism, to which we dedicate a full section.

According to Lujan (1999), food is linked to the evolution of man, therefore, it is the responsibility of scientists from various areas to examine this all aspects concerning food. Being a

whole system is a reason for multidisciplinary study, for the direct or indirect relation with sciences such as: biology, anthropology, sociology, philosophy, physics, chemistry, mathematics, psychology, dietetics, bromatology and economics. Food defines many aspects of the culture of a society. In every society we have different ways of making the ingredients, depending on the tools, protocols and processes, which are finally those that define the cultural codes of a society, according to Ortiz (1999), Quoted by Montecinos Torres (2011).

It is assumed that the first interaction of man and gastronomy took place during the prehistory. The appearance of the Australopithecus about four million years ago, led to food collection. The first humans, who had knowledge of fire and how to make stone tools, were the homo erectus, which lived a million and a half years ago. Del Corral (2000) says:

"We cannot talk about gastronomy until the appearance of two elements, the fire and the knowledge of the manufacture of heat-resistant ceramics. From this moment humans began to differentiate from the animals as they began to transform food."

Several thousands of years passed until about 40 thousand years ago in the upper Paleolithic era with the appearance of the homo sapiens, who fed on hunting, fishing and harvesting of vegetables. Its most important characteristic was the use of everything that provided animals: meat, bones and their skin, which allowed them to create utensils, like hooks or harpoons with the bones of the animals. Using stone they invented the bow and the arrow and clothes were made with animal skins.

The humans began to consider that gold and silver had magical properties. This fact led to the search of them, what let find metals like copper and iron. These last two ones allowed him to manufacture better tools for hunting, fishing, agriculture and mining. The emergence of these new activities led humans to create the first political and economic societies.

The first civilization, we have record of, is the Mesopotamian. From then on we will talk about the food of the civilizations of the Old Age. At this stage of history you can highlight the Greek and Roman culture.

The Mesopotamian civilizations settled in Chaldea and Assyria were agricultural civilizations settled next to the rivers Tigris and Euphrates. For this reason they fed on cereals like wheat, barley, millet and sesame. They also grew vegetables and legumes and nuts. The food of this population is known thanks to the Hammurabi code dating back two thousand years before Christ. The cuisine of Babylon by the time of Nabucondonsor, Luján (1989) can be known thanks to the discovery of three cuneiform tablets which can be dated towards the year 1600 b.C.. They are reviewed and translated by Bottero in his book "The oldest food in the world" (2005).

The Greeks knew how to give value to condiments and their proper use, in the treatment of flavors and aromas could create breads of 72 species. The star ingredient of the Greeks was olive

oil. Not only, for edible use from the first pressing, but also, by the second pressing it was used as unguent of the body, and finally as fuel to illuminate.

The Greek Apicius, was the father of gastronomy by Santich, 2004, Yeoman, and McMahon-Beattie, 2015. He moved abroad in search of new dishes. He was born in the fourth century B.C. in Syracuse, where he discovered the best ways to eat (Santich, 2004: 16), and collected all his experiences in a poem called "Edyptia" (the life of luxuries). Thanks to the Greco-Roman author Ateneo - II century b.C. in *Deipnosophists* (The wise men of the dinner), we get to know about the importance of gastronomy for that time and the use of diverse aromatic herbs, like the absinthium. For the Greeks philosophy was implicit in gastronomy, so that Epicurus of Samos (342-270 b.C.), focused on the pursuit of pleasure as the most important purpose of life, but not from hedonism and excess, but led by tranquility or ataraxia (Annas, 1987: 5).

As we know the early Romans absorbed the Greek culture, but before that as it is known thanks to classical literature, their basic food was mainly vegetable. Greeks taught their culinary art to the Romans. This fact to bring in these cooks (or magiro in Greek), what it was very expensive. For this reason they had to learn from them (Lujan, 1989).

One of the biggest contributions of the Romans to gastronomy is "*The great recipe book of Apicius*", which is one of the oldest preserved Latin cookbooks. It was published undated in Venice with the title of "*Apiti Celi de Re Coquinaria libri decem*". It was later published a second edition in Milan in 1498. Marcus Gavius Apicius in the first century A.C. made a recipe, from which several sects arose dedicated to the pleasures of the table, contrary to the philosophy of Epicurus.

With the conquest of the Roman Empire by 476 to the fall of Constantinople in 1453, a new period of history The Middle Ages began. During this period the cuisine of the Byzantine Empire, the Hispano-Arab and the pre-Hispanic will be emphasized.

The Byzantine Empire began when Constantine founded Constantinople, today the present Istanbul in 330 a.C. This brings the luxury of the ceremony and the gastronomy to unusual terms. Gastronomy became a pleasure. According to Eusebius of Caesarea when the Emperor Constantine held the council of Nicaea in 325 a.D., he overwhelmed the 318 members. The cuisine of the Byzantines was characterized by being quite spicy, also using exotic products. The bakery stood out, emerging pastry masters and cheese makers. It was a cuisine perfumed and flavored with diverse species like clove, spikenard, cinnamon, wormwood, roses and other macerated herbs.

In the region of Al-Andalus, today the present Andalusia, the Hispano-Arabic cuisine emerged. It was De la Granja in 1960, who announced his doctoral thesis on Arabic-Andalusian cuisine based on the Arabic text "*Fadlat Al-Jiwan fi tayyibat al-ta'am wa-l-wan*" (Table reliefs, about delicacies and stews) of the thirteenth-century author, Abu-Hasan. Its exotic peculiarities, that are evident in this cuisine, were transferred to our days.

The Modern Age period began with the Renaissance and fall of the Eastern Roman Empire in 1453 and ended with the French Revolution in 1789. At this stage of history, the awakening of the cuisine took place and was brought about by the discovery of America. As a result of the exchange of new products unknown to Europe, vanilla, potatoes, cacao, tomato, a cuisine revolution took place on both sides of the Atlantic. Although, according to Castello (1989) some of these became essential in the cuisine, others took time to be accepted. The cuisine becomes an art, like creating a masterpiece. It is in this period, when the fine dark and white sauces are created with butter and the stews emerged, according to Buitargo and Torijano (2003).

The contemporary age of the cuisine moved from the great palaces to the streets due to the French revolution (Lujan, 1989). It is important to mention that in 1789 Paris did not have a hundred restaurants but in 1810 already had more than two thousand establishments, becoming the capital of the gastronomy in the world. One of the first restaurant to open its doors in the street of Paris was the one of Des Pouilles, in 1765, that unlike the locals born in the time of the Grand Tour, this only admitted people to eat. Its proprietor Boulanger put a sign that said "*Venite ad me omnes qui stomacho laboratis ego restaurabo vos*" (come to me, men of tired stomach and I will restore you). From the word "restaurabo", which means restoration is where the word restoration comes from.

The French Revolution evoked the emergence of French cuisine, according to Luján (1989), and caused the dispersion of the cooks and servitude of the aristocracy, which moved them to open their restaurants. Brillat-savarin writes "the discovery of a new dish is more useful to humanity than that of a new star." One of the most renowned cooks of the time was Beuwilliers, Count of Provence, who opened in 1792 the Taverne Anglaise. In 1824 he wrote his own cookbook called "L'art du cuisinier". Not forgetting Brillat-Savarin, who writes in 1825 "the philosophy of taste or meditations of transcendent gastronomy", according to Montecinos Torres, who tried to respond to the ideas of the gourmet Grimod, previous to his contemporary, who wrote about teaching to eat that society of the XIX century. He imagined a rich gastronomy, tasty, simple and delicate, described in his book Manuel "*des Amphitryons*", 1808 and "*Almanach des Gourmands*". Although it was Brillat-Savarin, who denominated the gastronomy like one of the fine arts.

Ángel Muro described in his book "*El practicón: a complete cuisine treaty*", not only the basic Spanish cuisine, but also described with humility and respect the French and German cuisine of the time. Ángel Muro said "ther are as many cooking schools as existing countries".

It was until the twentieth century, where a different approach to gastronomy is given where the presentation of the dishes is emphasized, besides emphasizing its delicacy, without heavy sauces, nor too much cooked food, so that "La nouvelle cuisine" arose, this Movement contrasted to the French "cuisine classique". The leaders of this movement were Paul Bocuse and Michel Gerard, although the term was conceived by two gastronomic critics: Henri Gault and Christian Milleau. These changes did not wait in the neighboring country Spain, where restaurants like the Bulli of the cook Ferrán and Albert Adrian and Juli Soler arose.

Globalization has not only evolved the way we communicate and trade, but also the way we eat. It has been talked about the evolution of haute cuisine in the previous paragraph, but according to Symons (1999) it emerged what he called The New Global Kitchen.

The evolution of the era of industrial food means a battle in which according to Scarpato (2002), "chefs and restaurateurs have an intense battle with the advance of industrial food." Despite the growth of fast food, called McDonaldization by Ritzer (1996), it is clear that in contrast new movements emerge as Slow Food and Organic Food. The gastronomic tourism looks for the traditional cuisine that is expressed through the agri-food products.

Slow food is a movement that arises from the need to realize a clean, fair and healthy food distribution system (Petrini, 2007). The agricultural system is questioned, so it fosters a system of local distribution or chains of proximity between the actors. So this fosters the creation of a neo-economy such as food miles or Food Miles. Hjalaguer (2002), it is a movement of gastronomic culture emblematic of a complete model of life which must be saved. According to Leal Lodoño (2013) the sustainable development of gastronomic tourism, is not only to preserve the past, but also to create the future.

Now we will talk about the emergence of gastronomic tourism and the current tourism situation. Further ahead we will define what gastronomic tourism is.

3. GASTRONOMIC TOURISM

The WTO considers that there is a typology of tourism, when there is a motivation to carry out the displacement. In the case of gastronomic tourism this motivation is food or food products. A phenomenon precursor of tourism was the Grand Tour according to Schlüter and Thiel (2008) as records of trips organized to wine cellars were found, which were a referent of visits in this period very frequented by the richest men in England, the heyday of these trips was during the eighteenth century.

The gastronomic tourism boom happened in the twentieth century when we can appreciate different stages of gastronomic tourism and at the same time the emergence of different movements that are opposed to McDonaldization and in search of a healthier and sustainable diet.

In the work of Cleave (2011) quoted by María Pilar Leal (2013), he linked the relationship of tourism with gastronomy and divided it into periods, where you can see how this activity emerges in the 20th century. The first period called "Belle Epoque" that begins in 1914 where the food is based on the farm economy and culinary imperialism and the tourist and gastronomic activity was based on leisure and diet.

The second period between wars dates back to 1939, characterized by austerity, scarcity and restriction of travel as Schlüter and Thiel (2008) says the appearance of the car made it possible to travel the European countryside, so it is sought to visit the local gastronomy of the villages. It is in

the third period started in 1969 when the development of tourism, born at the post war, means travelling around the world, food green revolution and agricultural productivism take place, causing increases of food production and economic of scales.

The fourth period established between 1989 and 1999 is the emergence of various gastronomic trends, very different among them, on the one hand there is the fast food culture with the Mcdonalization, and on the other hand the Nouvelle cuisine that arises mainly by the British Herve This, who is considered the father of molecular cuisine, which when partnering with Pierre Gagnaire, create the union of science with culinary art. Also in this period, global tourism and fusion cuisine consolidate. Finally in the 21st century, where food is seen as an experience and not a necessity and therefore, it is sought that the production of food is sustainable. Therefore, new forms of tourism emerge: Sustainable and Gastronomic Tourism.

A very important milestone that has a great impact on the future of gastronomic tourism was the 2003 Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage, promoted by Unesco. It seeks to protect the cultural and intangible heritage of peoples.

This event caused several countries such as Mexico, Spain, Greece, Italy, France, to seek the protection of their culinary or gastronomic traditions. The first country to try to protect its gastronomy and to be recognized by UNESCO was Mexico. His candidacy was based on maize in 2006. But this was not achieved, so the World Heritage Directorate, the Institute of Anthropology and History (INAH) and the Conservatory of Gastronomic Culture Mexicana, after four years and hard work, on November 16, 2010 in Nairobi, Kenya, was inscribed on the list of Cultural and Intangible Heritage. It is inscribed with the name: Mexico "Traditional Mexican cuisine, community culture, ancestral and alive; The paradigm of Michoacán".

UNESCO's recognition of traditional Mexican cuisine, according to Montecinos Torres (2011), is of vital importance for the preservation of all traditional cuisines in the world. He believes that it is gradually being lost for various reasons, such as social-family changes and the increase in consumption of the now popularly known cuisine as fast food.

The record of French Haute cuisine is not a coincidence, according to Ducasse (2004: 230-231). Unesco recorded it in the list as the record: The gastronomic food of the French.

The registration of these countries in the list of UNESCO consolidates them as gastronomic tourist destinations.

In 2012, the first Global Report on Gastronomy Tourism was drafted, based on the 33-member survey of UNWTO affiliates. Its objective was to understand the trends of gastronomic tourism and to apply public and private strategies of tourism and training companies. The first World Forum on Gastronomic Tourism was held in San Sebastián (Spain). From it we had the following conclusions: Gastronomic tourism is transversal and integrates various economic sectors; commitment to sustainability; the challenge of globalization and dynamizing the local economy.

4. GASTRONOMIC TOURISM IN ANDALUSIA

In the tourism plan for Andalusia 2014 and 2020, gastronomic tourism is displayed as a tool to combat seasonality and diversify tourism in Andalusia, which also underlined the importance of sustainability, minimizing the tourism impact in rural and protected areas, and promoting the use of renewable energy and efficiency. Therefore, the framework of the gastronomic tourism strategy is to create possible gastronomic product routes through Andalusia. It gave place in March 13, 2013 to the Technical Working Days on Gastronomic Itineraries Andalusia, Landscapes with Flavor. Its goal is to create an indigenous gastronomy of high quality. They tried to create varied routes according to the landscapes, territories and products of the earth, reason why they determined three orientations to create gastronomic routes: Andalusia of the Sea and the Earth, Wine Land and Mediterranean.

This meeting also attached great importance to quality gastronomic products. As follows: fostering indigenous products and based on organic production, generating synergies with complementary sectors such as industrial tourism and increasing public-private cooperation around these tourism products.

Let's not forget that gastronomic tourism in Andalusia attracted 650,000 travelers to the region in 2014 according to Hosteltur (2014). As a result, gastronomic tourism has played a major role for the Andalusian Government, which has considered it as a strategy of the promotion and diversification, carrying out projects in this segment, such as Paisajes con Sabor. In this project eight gastronomic routes have been created that are: Rice Route of the province of Seville, Route of the Almadra Tuna, Route of the Jabugo of the province of Huelva, Route of the wines and liquors of the province of Seville, Wine Route of Montilla-Moriles, Route of the Wine and the Brandy Marco de Jerez, Route of Mustos and Tabancos and Route of wines of the Serrania de Ronda.

Therefore, the creation of gastronomic routes of ecological products as tourist attraction, is the strategy of creating routes based on excellence, in sustainable destinations and with the objective of generating economic development in the Andalusian territories, in order to preserve resources, natural values and even traditional methods of processing indigenous products.

CONCLUSIONS.

Throughout this work, we displayed the relation of human being always had with food, and not only as a physiological necessity, but as a discipline of study. It has been highlighted the need to deepen these studies focusing on the tourism sector. Therefore, the study of the phenomenon of gastronomic tourism must be analyzed from an economic and social perspective. In particular, this need has been considered in the region of Andalusia.

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**EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTS OF GLOBALIZATION ON CHANGE OF URBAN
LANDSCAPES WITHIN THE SCOPE OF TOURISM**

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EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTS OF GLOBALIZATION ON CHANGE OF URBAN LANDSCAPES WITHIN THE SCOPE OF TOURISM

Abstract

The effects and / or implications of globalization on cities and tourism have been studied through various studies. The effects on the use of space in the globalizing cities and the changes in the socio-cultural structure have also been studied in various studies. However, changes in the landscapes of globalizing cities have not been emphasized. The relationship with tourism and these changes has not been questioned either. The aim of this study is to determine the relationship between landscape change caused by tourism and globalization on the cities of Antalya -which is a brand on tourism in Turkey- and Izmir and Adana that are centers of interest of domestic and foreign tourists with their natural and cultural beauties and can increase the existing potential of tourism incase they dont lose their characteristics under the pressure of globalization and touristic activities. According to this, it is determined that the changes in landscapes in the context of globalization and tourism effects in the province of Antalya are much more than those of Izmir and Adana. In particular, landscapes that can be regarded as sensitive are seen to be more influenced in this context. In Izmir and Adana cities, there are landscapes which are lost or changed by the effect of globalization. But the relationship with tourism and these changes are weak.

Keywords: Tourism, Globalization, Urban Landscape Values

1. INTRODUCTION

Urbanization, which is a global phenomenon in our time, is a process that is diversified within itself. Urbanization is a process of physical settlement that creates new urban areas and infrastructure service problems by causing cities to grow and take new forms. Along with the globalization process, the relations that determine the positions of the cities on the world map have changed rapidly and some cities have risen and some have fallen. Cities that have control and command centers in the international goods, service and capital mobility which are indispensable for the global world, and which guide the circulation of international capital around the world have

come to the forefront. Globalization has accelerated the competition between cities and cities have become units with a brand new economy, culture, social and political structure (Yilmaz and Citci, 2011). The tourism sector is a rare sector that can provide the lowest cost and development with little effort for all countries and regions of the world. Tourism must take place in a space. Local governments have important roles and duties in this sector. Because all the plans and actions of local governments are related to the space they are in. To play a strategic and operational role in providing a qualified physical environment for tourism, to create links and continuous policies among various services, and to ensure that they meet the needs and deficiencies of the region, society, companies and the environment some of these action that should be taken by the local goverments. In this context, the issues of infrastructure (fresh water supply, disposal of wastewater, garbage collection, road construction and maintenance, street lighting, etc.) and planning (local plans, transportation plans, land use plans, local cultural strategies, local development plans, etc.) come into prominence (Dede and Guremen, 2010). People who attend touristic activities aim to see the natural, historical and cultural places of different destinations. The natural and cultural landscapes of important tourism regions go through major changes to afford the demands of different individuals. These changes mostly bring monotony in their wake and this can cause disidentification of tourism cities. This conflicts with the keynote of tourism, so definition and protection of characteristics of natural and cultural landscapes become more important.

In the process of globalization, consumption has become a tool for the formation and development of individual identities, and individuals have begun to exist in society as much as they consume. The steady development of the consumption market causes constant transformation and reconstruction of places, societies and natural areas. Social values such as history, identity and culture are being disintegrated and this new way of life broken from nature causes irreversible changes in urban and rural areas. Urban landscapes are the most important components of the cities that balance the degraded relationship between man and nature and improve the urban living

conditions. For this reason, the qualities and quantities of urban landscapes are regarded as a sign of civilization and quality of life.

The universal history was born in cities and has become a scene for the definite victory of urban over rural areas. All the policies that have been processed on “urbanism” during the period of capitalism dominate all over the world (Debord, 1996). During globalization which create new place types, while some of the places have been tool for consumption, some have become consumable items themselves (Uzun, 2008).

Globalization leads to the cultural and physical disintegration of the urban space, erasing the local identities and cultures. Distinctions among cities are gradually decreasing, and the definition of urban identity gets increasingly uncertain. In this process, while emphasizing the original local values of the city "sample consumption places" as global cities are spreading at the same time. The impact of these processes on the urban space emerges in the form of transformations that fundamentally affect the city's landscape values. In urban areas, economic growth policies based on the construction industry results in uniform residential areas, which causes landscape values such as historical textures and traditional architecture to loose their originality and turn into unqualified places.

In a global city, the time when the modern individual consumes the most is the "leisure time" outside the working hours. For this reason, capitalism predicts to control the leisure time of the modern individual and consume the goods, services, relations and spaces in the areas they use within this time period (Aytac, 2004). Therefore, all the urban landscapes in which the urban dwellers' leisure time will pass are becoming organized for this purpose, and thematic areas serving with certain brand advertising are spreading. Another effect of globalization on the landscapes of tourism cities is loss of identity by the usage of “disunied” copied and unoriginal urban images. In this study, it is aimed to determine the values that should be protected within this rapid transformation in the tourism cities in the process of globalization for the benefit of community and urban ecosystem. For this purpose, the effects of the rapid and continuous change of the landscapes

of tourism cities have been examined in the context of globalization and the urban landscape values that need to be preserved in globalization have been discussed on the samples of Izmir, Antalya and Adana cities.

2. MATERIAL AND METHOD

The changes in the urban spaces constitute different identities, and as a result they bring about differences in the urban identity and social memory perceived by the users. In the scope of this study, the scientific researches, projects and publications about the effects of the globalization on the identity and the images of the tourism cities have been examined, and the relationship with the urban landscape items of the subject and the changes over time have been analyzed.

In Turkey, Antalya has the the highest rate (36.03%) of visitors to tourism facilities, which is 4.52% in Izmir and 1.09% in Adana (TUIK, 2013). Especially for Izmir, it is expected that touristic activities in the cities and the effects of these activities will be at much greater rates, considering the existence of unregistered tourist activities and day-to-day tourist attractions. Moreover, although the rate of getting a share of total tourism of country is low, it is possible to show differences in the tourism municipalities. For example; Izmir-Cesme emerged as the only touristic zone unaffected by these crises in some periods when tourism activities in even Antalya have been declining due to global political and economic crises (Anonymous, 2016a). Although the numbers of tourists coming to the cities are different, the changes in the natural and cultural landscapes of the cities are similar. The common feature of these three cities is that they have the opportunity to accommodate Mediterranean ecosystems in urban landscapes, as well as they are all cities with high population growth rates in Turkey. On the other hand, Antalya stands out in relief tourism, Adana is known for industry and in Izmir tourism and industry sectors takes more places than the other sectors.

The data obtained within this study have been evaluated on the cities of Antalya, Izmir and Adana and the effects of the globalization on the natural and cultural landscapes of these cities were read through the consumption society and culture and some suggestions were developed for the protection of the urban landscape values which are valuable in the globalization process.

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Globalization affects and transforms cities in economic, social, political, spatial and cultural sense, and has a changing effect on the traditional structure of cities. Before the effects of tourism on the globalization of urban landscapes were explained, the concept of urban tourism was emphasized and then the effects of tourism on urban landscapes were examined under the headings of physical and socio-cultural changes.

3.1. Physical changes

The physical indicators linked to tourism are examined in the context of the problems of settlement and transportation networks, historical and cultural values and damage to the natural landscape, as given in Table 1.

Table 1. Physical changes in the tendency to increase due to tourism activities in cities.

<i>Physical changes in the tendency to increase</i>	Tendency to increase in change		
	Antalya	Izmir	Adana
Construction of tourism facilities	***	***	*
Appearance of luxury sites in or around the city	***	***	*1)
Urban renewal applications	**	***	**
Invasion of agricultural land	***	**	***
Loss of natural qualities of coasts	***	***	***
Change/removal of historical cultural structure	**	**	***
Change of rural landscape qualifications	***	***	***
Increase of urban equipments that do not represent the city	***	***	***
Increase of natural landscape elements that do not represent the city	***	***	***
Increase / unqualification of transportation networks	***	***	***
<i>Disruptions that may occur due to physical changes</i>			
Increase of heat island formation by temperature increase	***	***	***
Occurrence of reductions in air circulation	**	***	***
Increase of air pollution	**	***	***

* low tendency to increase

** tendency to increase at noticeable level

*** High tendency to increase at the level that will cause physical changes

1) In Adana many homes in the city have been owned by refugees who escape from terror and war.

Globalization has pioneered not only physical but also social changes in the city, causing the class differences between the urban people to become more spatially distinct. Especially in Antalya and Izmir, luxurious life sites and hotels are marketed as luxurious living styles to wealthy urban dwellers and foreigners. In these areas, the images and flashy uses that serve the consumption culture are at the forefront, more than meeting the resting and the entertainment needs of tourists. The facilities provided for the sale of property to foreigners accelerated the construction on the

coasts in our coastal cities especially Antalya in recent years. In addition to these, the multi-storey buildings cause ecological damages, such as urban heat island, indirectly increasing the air pollution by curtaining air circulation, as well as the disturbance of the silhouettes of cities with historical and cultural features based on very long history like Izmir, Antalya and Adana (Birisci et al., 2016).

The transportation network is one of the main components of urban landscapes and is indispensable for tourism. Along with globalization, the construction of multi-lane and multi-storey roads, crossroads, bridges and passages have increased and historical structures, urban open green spaces and gorges have been destroyed when necessary for the construction of these roads (Keles, 2004). As there are no alternative transportation systems (such as sea route and guided system) to the highways in Belek and Kundu regions, roads are being constructed with solutions applied in any city of the country (upper and lower passageway etc.). This situation causes irreversible damage to the natural environment on the coast, especially in the dunes and wetland ecosystems in the region (Mansuroglu et al., 2008). Urban equipment, which has been copied from the different cities of the world, has lost its trademark and identity value as an item, is another reflection of globalization on urban landscape. First used in Amsterdam, the plastic item "I Amsterdam" was copied and used in many cities of our country, just like Izmir, Antalya and Adana. In addition, signs written in foreign languages are applications that cause corruption of local identity while globalization occurs.

The application of the competition project (Anonymous, 2016) in Konak Square that houses the Clock Tower, one of the symbols of Izmir city, in the new design has lost the feature of the city square and the old focal point of the Clock Tower. The building designs and equipment elements rising around the square reveal globalized urban design trends that overshadow the traditional features of the square and the historical texture of the clock tower. Although many houses in Kaleici, which is the symbol of Antalya, are being tried to be restored appropriately to the original structure, there is a deterioration caused due to being a tourism center where entertainment places, pensions, restaurants, souvenir shops and antique carpet shops are located. The fact that archaeological remains and historical monuments in Kaleici are not in the foreground explains this

situation. The historical texture of Adana is located in and around Tepebag. Some of the buildings and building groups that are important in urban identity are preserved and / or restored and continue their activities in urban areas. Governorship building, Girls High School (old building), Kisacikzade Mansion, Ramazanoglu Mansion are among these. However, when considered in general, it can be stated that the Tepebag section, which forms the center of this area, looks like an abandoned area and it is surrounded by commercial structures.

The most important coastal natural formations that symbolize the natural structure of the city of Antalya are cliffs, sand dunes and wetlands in the Lara region. Despite being declared a natural site due to the characteristics they are carrying, they are under the pressure of all kinds of human activity. In 1983-1984, according to the opinion of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism each touristic facility had to be related to the coast, so with the revision works carried out in 1985, the width of the protection area of 150 meters in sea cliffs was reduced to 30 meters. The construction, started with the Dedeman Hotel which was built during this period, has increased steadily and the building permit has been increased from 60% to 80%. Initially, the buildings for tourism purposes were later transformed into housing areas with some changes (Mansuroglu and Baytekin, 2002). Thus, multi-storey settlements that damaged the structure and appearance of the sea cliffs emerged. The stairs and iron stack platforms built on the cliffs by the hotels in the vicinity of the Konserve Cove attract attention as consuming spots disturbing the integrity of these natural areas. The road separating Lara dunes in the city of Antalya and Yamansaz wetland, and consequently the increasing number of multi-storey buildings, is another example of globalized landscapes that negatively affect natural ecosystems. These sites, especially in Mavisehir Bostanli side of Izmir, which have begun in the form of multi storey buildings, have disruption of the city skyline and contain applications that are unhealthy and unreliable in terms of seismicity. Until the end of the 1960s, a new landscape type was created in the field with the settlement of this area, which is the continuation of the Gediz Delta wetland, and the urban ecosystem was indirectly damaged. One of the biggest problems that arise in urbanization as a result of globalization in Adana is the

transformation of agricultural lands into settlement areas. In addition, differences in the landscape of rural areas have arisen due to the widespread production of corn and sunflower crops, which have been largely abandoned from the agriculture of the cotton plant, which is the symbol of the city of Adana.

3.2. Socio-cultural changes

Socio-cultural changes in the city due to globalization have indirect effects on urban landscapes. This can be explained by the fact that the people of the globalizing city do not protect local natural and cultural values. Socio-cultural indicators of globalization can be categorized as urban life rituals, family structures, shopping habits and leisure activities, and "glocalization of cultural items". Ritzer (2011) defines glocalization as taking something from another culture and changing it depending on the local culture, for example; Salsa dance is done differently in different countries.

Another indicator of urbanization in the globalization process is economic indicators. One of these is the change in general as a result of the tendency of local governments to move more domestic and foreign investment to the cities due to the lack of capital. The tendencies of the administrations in this direction cause the usage of urban land that are the main components of the urban landscape and have natural, historical and cultural heritage values for economical benefits more than the public benefits. The opening of the urban land usage for private companies makes it possible to construct new consumption places as well as causing the loss of identity values of these areas. Due to budget constraints, urban land with historical and cultural values is offered for sale and consumption facilities are being constructed in these areas where the land values become more preliminary than the natural, historical and cultural values. The most striking example of this is the transformation of palaces into hotels, and the antique theaters into popular music concert venues (Kiper, 2004). Today's society and places are being shaped by consumption culture. While spaces play different roles in accordance with the requirements of consumption culture, social and physical connections between user and space gain new dimensions with the concept of consumption (Uzun, 2008).

In the globalized city, space has become a tool providing the necessary physical environment for the realization of consumption, while at the same time new public spaces have emerged that themselves can be regarded as commodities of consumption culture, consumed through experience by the consumer. Shopping centers are the places where this process can be observed clearly. The number of shopping centers in our country's cities is increasing, and in addition to the classical shopping mall concept, it is also possible to carry out all the activities of entertainment and eating in the open-air courtyard or street system, which is a sign that capitalism considers all kinds of criticism, postmodern shopping centers - such as Forum Bornova and Mavibahce Shopping Center in Izmir, Migros, Deepo and Terracity shopping centers in Antalya - are becoming increasingly popular among urban dwellers (Kalayci and Birisci, 2013, Birisci et al., 2016). Shopping tours are organized from hotels to these areas. The historical Kemeralti bazaar in Izmir; Kaleici in Antalya, and its environs are fighting for survival under the pressure of these shopping centers and they have become more regular with the transformation they have made over time and have been protecting the historical texture while providing a better quality experience for both shopkeepers and users. Buyuksaat and Kucuksaat bazaar areas in Adana also provide a battle for existence under the pressure of shopping centers.

According to Ritzer (2011a), thematicized entertainment areas are another of the most visible indicators of globalization on cities. Beginning with Disneyland in Southern California in 1955, this trend has been applied to many thematic parks and entertainment centers in many areas of the world, and has high user potential. In these areas, entertainment for masses, massive demonstrations, the use of technology for consumption, not for production, commercialized entertainment and people are able to spend their energy without threatening society. As it is in the whole world, the thematic entertainment areas are also attracting interest in our country. The thematic hotels built in Antalya Kundu and Belek regions with different insights are constructed with an understanding that will not allow tourists to communicate with the city and its values and Antalya's natural and cultural identity is not taken into consideration.

4. RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

While the tourism-related globalization indicators reflected in the urban landscape of Izmir, Antalya and Adana cities lead to positive expectations in terms of socio-economic and physical planning like the global city and the world city, the actions resulted by causing our cities end up as nature and culture cemeteries. Attracting ordinary urban spaces, making promotions for tourism with symbols reflecting the image of the city, and removing negative images from the city, are crucial for urban tourism. For example, vegetable sculptures made of plastic material in some regions of Antalya (such as Kumluca and Demre) and Adana must be removed in order to have a better image.

Landscaping elements / uses such as construction, monuments, squares or open green spaces, which are the historical heritages that make up the original texture in the cities, must be preserved in order to protect these values from the negative effects of globalization and increase the benefit of tourism. In this context, these areas or objects should be protected and maintained. Moreover, new constructions in their nearby surroundings should be avoided to reduce or eliminate imaginary features of the city silhouette.

In commercial terms, it should be one of the main objectives of public administrators to prevent cities from being dominated by foreign capital by supporting local capital. Since every foreign investment that comes to the city will bring the cultures together, there may arise a situation where there is nothing unique to place in the long term. In addition, restoration and operation of historical sites should be carried out with the same meticulousness and protection and should avoid usage and practices that will damage historical cultural heritage values.

The purpose of urban planning and design should be to encourage the users to experience the nature and culture of a place, not to encourage consuming the production commodities as well as the space itself. Antalya, Izmir and Adana cities have rich resources in terms of tourism due to Mediterranean civilization and natural texture. In this respect, it is necessary to create a web-based landscape information system that can be used to extract the natural and cultural inventory of the city and its surroundings, and to utilize the obtained data from tourism related institutions and organizations. In

this information system, the city's green areas (natural parks, bicycle park, camping / caravan area, special purpose parks, theme parks, botanical garden, arboretum), areas worth for protection (natural sites, wetlands, coasts, valleys, important biotope fields) and historical sites should be included in detail.

The activities of creating public awareness in the direction of the city's natural and cultural authenticity (such as nature walks, festivals emphasizing the value of natural resources -such as water festival-, events throughout the year in parks and natural areas, books and brochures, web pages, conferences, National / international competitions, etc.) must be organized.

Institutional structure should be established to carry out studies on the evaluation of original values belonging to the city in tourism and to provide coordination of related units.

In the process of globalization, it is necessary to carry out planning studies that can change the rapid transformation, which affects the natural and cultural landscape values of tourism cities negatively, into benefit society and urban ecosystem.

As a result, tourism planning should be done by a team consisting of tourism, ecology, urban region planning, architecture, landscape architecture, sociology, archeology and other professions that will participate in the tourism sector in accordance with the characteristics of the area will provide a holistic approach to the sustainable use of natural and cultural resources. By this approach; the link between central, regional and local authority responsibilities and the private sector in planning studies can be established as well as the cooperation at national and regional level; educational activities emphasizing the relationship with the tourism environment and increasing the sensitivity of the indigenous people in this context can be achieved.

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ACTIVE SPORT TOURISM IN POLAND: SEEKING AND ESCAPING

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ABSTRACT

Active sport tourism is the form of leisure activity combining sport and physical activity with travelling. The aim of the study was to analyze the influence of the motivational forces, including seeking personal rewards, seeking interpersonal rewards, escaping interpersonal environments, escaping personal environments, on the phenomenon of active sport tourism in Poland. The investigations were carried out with hikers, windsurfers, sailors and skiers. 'Seeking personal rewards' appears to be the most important force behind the decision connected with active sport tourism because of the highest statistically significant mean values in all groups of the respondents, except sailors. Sailors' motivation seem not to differ in any motivational dimensions. The mean value for 'escaping personal environments' was the highest and statistically significant in the case of the sailors compare to the other groups of the active sport tourists.

Key words: active sport tourism, motivation, seeking, escaping

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INTRODUCTION

Active sport tourism is a form of leisure activity that is rapidly gaining popularity in Poland. It combines sport and physical activity with travelling, which results in high quality and effectiveness. Leisure was conceptualized as "an experience or state of mind, is uniquely individual and that the quality rather than the quantity of leisure in our lives deserves attention" (Mannell, 1984). Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) examines leisure and tourist experience from three perspectives: 'definitional', 'post-hoc satisfaction' and 'immediate conscious experience'. It seemed not to be possible to answer the question: *When and under what conditions tourists experiences becomes leisure experience?* The 'definitional' approach based on identification the factors which influence people to perceive their activity and resulting experiences as leisure. The 'post-hoc satisfaction' approach concentrated on the motivations, outcomes, and satisfactions associated with the leisure or tourism experience. The 'immediate conscious experience' approach has focused on the values of monitoring the actual nature of the experience itself (Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987).

Motivation is one of many variables which may contribute to explaining leisure and tourist behavior. Motivation is defined as a process of stimulating people to act, the inner drive or pressure to take action in order to accomplish some goals (Mullen and Johnson, 1990). Decisions regarding travel are associated with several motives of different intensity; it is the interaction between individual motivations that generates behaviours (Bowen and Clarke, 2009). Tourism destinations are a key component of the tourism system, but the concepts of needs and motivations are interrelated. The decision to travel is made to complete psychological needs, which later motivates people to engage in tourism activity (Andreu et al., 2005). But motivation is a driving force of all kinds of human behaviour, and it appears to be condition *sine qua non* of all activities; all theories of motivation, starting from Maslow (1954) and his classic Hierarchy of Needs, seem to suggest this. As a matter of fact, research based on Maslow's assumptions is still conducted, as exemplified by the study that, based on a sample consisting of tourism workers who were also students at North American universities, identified self-reported motivational priorities according the Maslow Hierarchy of Needs model (Tesone, 2008). One of the tourism motivation theories is the concept of 'push and pull' factors leading people to tourism activity (Dann 1977, Crompton 1979). The 'push' factors are the internal forces (intrinsic motivation) which predispose to travel, while the 'pull' factors are the external forces which attract to chosen destinations. Iso-Ahola (1982) suggests that motivation is an internal force, which modifies the behaviour of an individual similarly to 'pull' factors. People participate in tourism to reach satisfaction through striving for something or through avoiding something (Wolfe and Hsu, 2004).

Iso-Ahola (1982, 1983, 1984) proposed a theoretical framework to explain both tourism and leisure motivation. This two-dimensional theory posit two motivational forces influence the individual's behavior. One of the motivational force of tourism and leisure activity is the individual tendency to escape the daily problems and routine, escaping everyday environment, wherein a person pursues, through tourism participation, to leave the everyday environment behind, both personal or interpersonal failures, troubles, difficulties and daily weariness. The other force is the individual tendency to seek intrinsic rewards from participation in tourism activities. Seeking

rewards is divided into personal and interpersonal as well as escaping environment. So we have the next two dimensions in two-dimensional theory, summarizing: seeking personal rewards, seeking interpersonal rewards, escaping personal environments, escaping interpersonal environments. Individuals take up active sport tourism escaping personal environment (fails, fatigue, boredom, etc.) and/or interpersonal environment (family members, friends, co-workers, etc.) and/or seeking personal rewards e.g. mastery, satisfaction or even a state of flow defined by Csikszentmihalyi (1990) and/or interpersonal rewards, various social interactions e.g. new travel companions, acquaintances, friends (Figure 1).

The study was based on the results of empirical research on motivation to participate active sport tourism. The aim of the study was to analyze the influence of four motivational forces (dimensions) on a phenomenon of active sport tourism in Poland. Below quoted two research questions were formulated.

1. Which motivational force is predominant while making the decisions to participate in active sport tourism?
2. Are any significant differences in motivational dimensions depending on the group of respondents (hikers, windsurfers, sailors, skiers)?

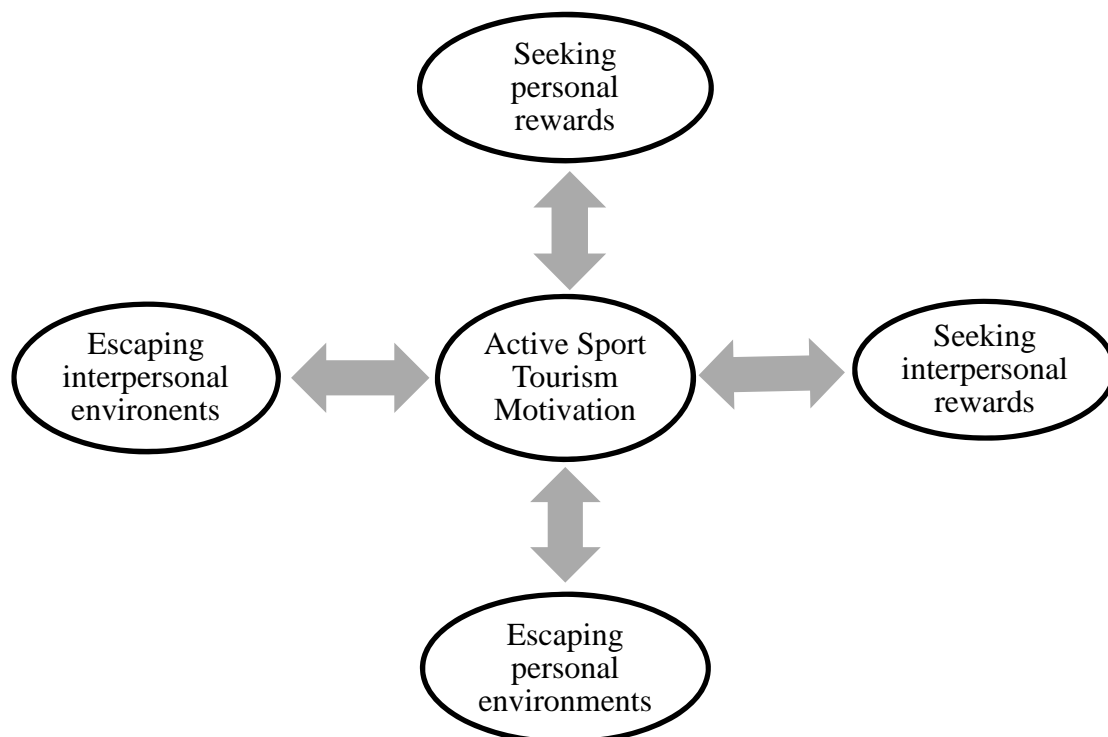


Figure 1. The Escaping and Seeking Dimensions of Active Sport Tourism Motivation (own adaptation based on: Iso-Ahola, 1984)

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The present study utilized a survey employed to collect data associated with ‘seeking and escaping’ theory of leisure motivation (Iso-Ahola, 1982, 1984). Participation in the study was voluntary and anonymous. The sample selection was purposeful. The questionnaire was completed between 2014-2015 by Polish tourists, including: tourists on the mountain trails (hikers) who stayed in the five mountain hostels in the Beskids; participants of the summer windsurfing camps (windsurfers) in Jastarnia on the Hel Peninsula at the Polish seaside; participants of the summer sailing camps (sailors) at the Masurian Lake District; downhill skiers (skiers) in the winter weekends on the ski slopes in the Beskids. A total of 871 questionnaires were collected (Table 1).

Groups of the tourists	Total		Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Hikers	375	43,05	187	49,87	188	50,13
Windsurfers	177	20,32	93	52,54	84	47,46
Sailors	126	14,47	49	38,89	77	61,11
Skiers	193	22,16	91	47,15	102	52,85
Total	871	100,00	420	48,22	451	51,78

Table 1. The number of respondents

The research tool was a questionnaire, primary consisted of 49 statements, concerning the motivation for participation in active sport tourism. Its framework was based on four dimensions: seeking personal rewards, seeking interpersonal rewards, escaping interpersonal environments, escaping personal environments; 30 statements (items) were used after validation. A five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all important) to 5 (very important) was used. The respondents evaluated each item of the questionnaire, selecting the best comment representing their views among the following: “absolutely yes” (5 points in statistical calculations), “rather yes” (4 points), “I don’t know” (3 points), “rather not” (2 points) and “absolutely not” (1 point). Each of the four motivational dimensions were studied basing on the minimum six to maximum thirteen questionnaire statements. The final section of the survey included demographics data (e.g. gender).

Descriptive statistics were used to examine the most important motivational dimensions. Based on the comments, arithmetic means and standard deviations were calculated for each of the four dimensions of motivation, according to the concept of Iso-Ahola (1982, 1984).

The reliability (the internal consistency) of the questionnaire was positively assessed. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of the reliability was 0.76. Analyses of variance procedures (a

repeated measures ANOVA and post-hoc tests) were conducted to explore differences in motivational dimensions items (seeking personal rewards, seeking interpersonal rewards, escaping personal environments, escaping interpersonal environments) selected by the respondents based on class standing. The above procedures were used to determine significance of the differences between the means of the individual groups of tourists for each category of the motivational dimension. A significance level of $\alpha = .05$ was established a priori.

RESULTS

The study is a trial to determine the importance of motivational forces underlying the decisions to participate in active sport tourism. The examined sample was not representative, so conclusions can only be drawn regarding this particular study population.

The analysis revealed some differentiation with respect to motivational dispositions affecting the decision to participate in tourism. The former motivational dimension differed significantly compared to other indices calculated for the total study population (see vertically: Table 2).

Motivational dimension		Hikers (n=375)	Windsurfers (n=177)	Sailors (n=126)	Skiers (n=193)	Total (n=871)	<i>p-value</i>
Seeking personal rewards	<i>M</i>	3.76*	3.73*	3.81	3.79*	3,78*	<i>p>.39</i>
	<i>SD</i>	.59	.47	.59	.66	0,39	
Seeking interpersonal rewards	<i>M</i>	3.48	3.41	3.63	3.39	3,47	<i>p>.30</i>
	<i>SD</i>	.61	.59	.43	.62	0,66	
Escaping personal environments	<i>M</i>	3.63	3.60	3.86	3.65	3,65	<i>p>.07</i>
	<i>SD</i>	.81	.32	.68	.51	0,47	
Escaping interpersonal environments	<i>M</i>	3.53	3.57	3.79**	3.59	3,58	<i>p<.01**</i>
	<i>SD</i>	1.20	.91	.73	.33	0,69	
	<i>p-value</i>	<i>p < .02*</i>	<i>p < .04*</i>	<i>p > .17</i>	<i>p < .01*</i>	<i>p < .01*</i>	

M – mean, *SD* – standard deviation

* the highest mean values of the motivational dimension, statistically significant

**the highest mean value between motivation of the groups of tourists, statistically significant

Table2. Means, standard deviations and *p-values*

'Seeking personal rewards' appears to be the most important force behind the decision connected with active sport tourism because of the highest statistically significant ($p < .05$) mean

values in all groups of the respondents, except sailors (mean values: total 3.78, hikers and skiers 3.79, windsurfers 3.73). Sailors' motivation does not differ in any motivational dimensions. The differences between the means of the four motivational categories for sailors are statistically non-significant ($p > .05$).

The post-hoc tests revealed that the differences of mean values of the three of motivational categories among the individual groups are statistically non-significant ($p > .05$). Motivation among the groups of hikers, windsurfers and skiers appears not to be differential. The exception is the group of the sailors (see horizontally: Table 2). The motivational dimension 'escaping interpersonal environments' differed significantly compared to other indices calculated for the total sample. The mean value for 'escaping personal environments' was the highest and statistically significant (3.79, $p < .05$) in the case of the group of the sailors compare to the other groups of the active sport tourists.

DISCUSSION

Motivation dimensions and motivation forces in tourism are strongly varied and depending on many factors. Individual can take up tourist activity because of the various need of seeking or escaping or because of various push or pull factors.

Crompton and McKay (1997) used the escape-seeking dichotomy and the push-pull factors conceptual frameworks to identify motives which stimulated visitors to go to events at a festival. The relevance of motives changed across different types of events was assessed. Six motivational factors, consistent with the push factors framework and the escape-seeking dichotomy, emerged: cultural exploration, novelty/regression, recover equilibrium, known group socialization, external interaction/socialization, and gregariousness (Crompton, 1997).

The motivational forces can differ in terms of gender, culture, nationality. For example, Kim and co-workers (2006) collect data based on the push and pull motivation factors survey among students. The survey included among others push and pull motivations, and information about socio-demographic characteristics including gender, age, nationality, marital status. The results showed that the students were differently pushed by internal factors including escape, seeing and learning, adventure and thrill, indulgence, nature, and fun and entertainment, and then pulled by external resources across destinations including sun and beaches, time and cost, sports, attractions, family, and natural environment (Kim, et al., 2006).

Jönsson and Devonish (2008) tried to answer the question if nationality, gender, and age affect travel motivation. The study was designed to obtain information on motivations and perceptions of visitors staying at hotels and resorts in Barbados, including demographic data (gender, nationality, age, etc.) and tourists willingness to return to the destination, based on "push" and "pull" motives for taking an overseas vacation to a particular destination. 'Push' factors were able to tackle more easily the problem of motivation. The study concludes that nationality along with age should be considered in predicting variation in tourist motivation to travel. Gender did not emerge as an important determinant (Jönsson and Devonish, 2008).

The results of comparison travel decisions between United States and international male and

female students at a Midwestern university indicated that the most important travel motivators were to have fun, see and experience a new destination, and to reduce stress. The findings of this study was that there were differences in travel motivation of college students in terms of gender and whether the student is domestic or international. There were differences on push and pull factors depending on gender and nationality as well. Females rated all motivations but viewing sporting events higher than males. Respondents from the United States had higher means on a majority of the push factors with the exception of rediscovering myself (Dejtisak et al., 2009).

The present study noticed another kind of differences in active sport tourism, depending on type of tourist activity – a significant difference in sailors preferences compared to hikers, windsurfers and skiers. Perhaps, sailing seems to be a more recreational form of active sport tourism. Snepenger and co-workers (2006) examined the differences in motivation levels for tourism and recreation experiences basing Iso-Ahola's theory of "seeking and escaping". Tourism experiences exhibited higher levels of motivation for the personal seeking and personal escaping dimensions. On the other hand, the investigation found no relationship between the place of travel destination, or the number of domestic and international vacations and tourism motivations among the subjects (Snepenger et al., 2006).

Referring to an attempt to define a phenomenon called 'active sport tourism' as a form of leisure activity combining sport and physical activity with travelling, it seems to be similar to the concept of sport related tourism, proposed by Gibson (1998) in the review the sport tourism literature. Three distinct types of behaviour associated with sport tourism can be observed. The first type of behaviour is actively participating, the second is spectating and, finally, the third is visiting or even paying homage. According that, there are the three domains of sport tourism: Active Sport Tourism, which refers to people who travel to take part in sport; Event Sport Tourism, which refers to travel to watch a sports event; and Nostalgia Sport Tourism, which includes visits to sports museums, famous sports venues, and sports themed cruises. Gibson suggested definition of sport tourism as follows: *leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities.*

CONCLUSIONS

'Seeking personal rewards' seems to be the predominant motivational force while making the decisions to participate in active sport tourism for hikers, skiers and windsurfers, because of the highest statistically significant mean values in this groups of the respondents. Sailors' motivation seems to be homogeneous, because the differences between of all motivational dimensions were statistically non-significant.

The groups of hikers, windsurfers and skiers appears not to vary in preferences of motivational dimensions. On the contrary the group of the sailors, especially because of the motivational dimension 'escaping interpersonal environments' which differed significantly in the case of sailors compared to other groups of tourists.

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**A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF TIME PERSPECTIVE FOR LEISURE
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A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF TIME PERSPECTIVE FOR LEISURE PARTICIPANT

Abstract

Time perspective is a subjective perception of time according to social experiences. Psychological research in the areas of time focused on how individuals frame their time, namely their time perspective, has been significantly correlated with a broad range of attitudes and behaviors (Boyd & Zimbardo, 1997; Zimbardo, 2002). Claessens, van Eerde, Rutte and Roe (2007) pointed that the importance of time perspective has increased over twenty years. In the past, time perspective was often discussed in the field of organizational behavior and human resource management. However, in the field of leisure, the issue of time perspective has not caught too much attention yet.

Most of the time issues in the leisure research are discussed from the perspective of objective time, including the impacts of demographic variables on leisure time usage, such as gender and income (Firestone & Shelton, 1994; Jäckel & Wollscheid, 2007). On the other hand, some researchers focused on time-related variable to explain the leisure participation, including the length of time (Skowron, Stodolska, & Shinew, 2008), Occurrence timing (Scott, 1997; Mannell & Zuzanek, 1991) and Time zone (Hutchison, 1994; Mannell & Zuzanek, 1991). However, as Cotte and Ratneshwar (2001) indicated that although objective time was at the mainstream, it may not clarify comprehensively how individual give consideration for time issue and make behavioral decisions.

Therefore, the researchers began to explore leisure behavior from the perspective of subjective time. Some researchers used the time perspective of Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) to explore the impact on leisure activity preference. Bergadaa 's (1990) research indicated that time perspective will affect preference of vacation choice. Cotte and Ratneshwar (2003) found that time perspective affects not only people's daily leisure activities but also the choice of leisure products. Shores and Scott (2007) also reported that different time perspective will impact the pursuit of recreational value.

In regard to the time perspective of Zimbardo and Boyd (1997), it is describing individuals' attitude to the past, present and future time in the broad sense. Little research has been proposed to address the time perspective of leisure participant. Hence, the motivations of this study have been triggered. By defining the concept of leisure participants' time perspective as "the attitude of the individual for leisure time usage", this study will explore individual's attitude of leisure time usage in a narrow sense.

Some researchers have tried to explore leisure behavior in various time-related aspects. Such as Dickinson, Filimonau, Cherrett, Davies, Norgate, Speed and Winstanley (2013) explored time issue during a tour by the concepts of time control, place rhythm, time fluidity. Cotte and Ratneshwar (2001) used the concepts of social orientation, temporal orientation, planning orientation and polychronic orientation to interpreted individual time style in leisure context. Nevertheless, these research have only discussed leisure time perspective in a qualitative way. Thus, this article attempts to propose a conceptual model of leisure participants' time perspective.

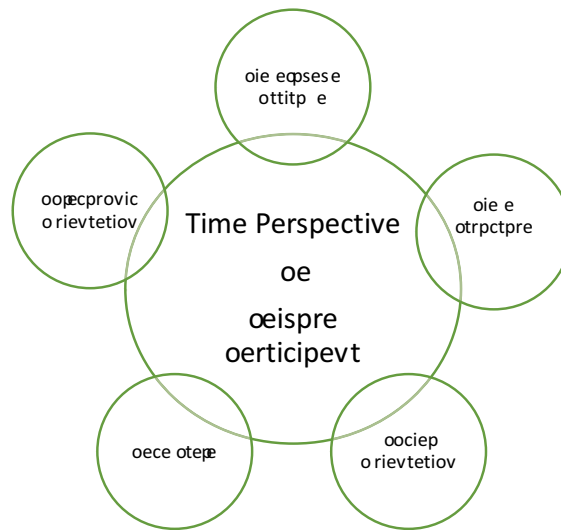


Figure1. Leisure time perspective’s conceptual model

We sketch in this paper a conceptual framework for how people regarding leisure time through integrating the concept of time-use and leisure attitude. Based on the definition, this study conducted an extensive literature review. As the result indicated, the time perspective of leisure participant with five underlying dimensions including time-usage attitude, time structure, social orientation, pace style and polychronic orientation. The conceptual model is presented on Figure1. Time-usage attitude comes from Teixeira and Freire’s (2013) leisure attitude research,,describing how individuals perceive their leisure time experiences. Time structure means the degree to individuals perceive their use of time as structured and purposive (Bond & Feather, 1988). The concept of pacing preferences comes from Schriber and Gutek (1987), it means the extent individuals can follow their own pace to complete leisure activities. Social orientation refers to the degree of individuals’ willing of sharing leisure time with others, and polychronic orientation is individuals’ preferences of engaging multiple leisure activities in the same period of time (Cotte & Ratneshwar, 2001). In conclusion, the time perspective of leisure participant identifies both the specific and comprehensive characteristics of leisure settings corresponding to leisure participants’ time attitude. The concept may assist both researchers and public sector to understand how leisure participant consider which dimensions of time perspective could be improved by adopting appropriate strategies for residents' leisure-related policy.

Keyword: leisure, time, time perspective, leisure participants, leisure attitude, time-use.

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**FESTIVALS AS A TOURISM PRODUCT: KAFKASÖR BULLFIGHTING FESTIVAL IN
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FESTIVALS AS A TOURISM PRODUCT: KAFKASÖR BULLFIGHTING FESTIVAL IN TURKEY

ABSTRACT

In this research, it is aimed to evaluate the role and the importance of bullfighting in the festival events in Artvin-Kafkasör region in Anatolia. This study is also presenting information about the local folklore and festival area, and evaluating the importance of the bullfighting for the regional tourism. In the content of the paper, festival tourism, and the importance of bullfighting in festival tourism has been explained in detail. The paper is concluded with the summary of information about Artvin city, Artvin-Kafkasör Culture, Art and Tourism Festival, and additional facts about bullfighting ritual which has been going on for centuries in Artvin.

Keywords: bullfighting, Artvin-Kafkasör, festival tourism

INTRODUCTION

In parallel with the changes in social-economic and cultural conditions, the increase in living standards has resulted in a diversity of tourism types depends on the needs and purposes. Tourism trends are increasing all around the world based on exploring, having fun, natural areas, and rural life. Anatolian geography has a potential to respond to these tourism trends with its natural and cultural resources. Sports events, cultural events, fairs, exhibitions, local events, and festivals are among the most popular tourism activities in the area (Small et al., 2005).

Festivals, which are important parts of tourism regional marketing and are amongst the fastest developing tourism attractiveness, encourage people to see new places by fostering friendship between the people and generating curiosity about new cultures and lives. Within all cultural values, wrestling or fighting festivals are a sports, folklore, culture and tourism event, unique to Anatolia (Çulha, 2008). In this context, the bullfighting in the Artvin-Kafkasör region has been evaluated as

a festival tourism activity. Therefore, the bullfighting that takes important place within the Artvin-Caucasus Culture, Art and Tourism Festival is considered as an important tourism type in this study.

FESTIVAL TOURISM

Getz (1991) describes festivals and events as new types of alternative tourism that contribute to sustainable development and improve the relationship between local people and visitors. Since festivals are an important part of tourism development and marketing plans, academicians in tourism have pointed out the importance of festivals in their works (E.g., Yoon, et al., 2000). The motivation of the tourists participating in the festivals is measured by different criteria such as demographic variables (E.g., Yuan & McDonald, 1990; Ryan and Glendon, 1998), destinations (E.g., Jang & Cai, 2002) and activities (E.g., Lee, et. al., 2004; Nicholson & Pearce, 2001). While some motivational dimensions exhibit a repetitive nature during various studies, some motivational dimensions present a structure unique to the activity, to the environment, or to the participant's structure (Schofield & Thompson, 2007). For instance, Formica and Uysal (1996) identified festival motivations of music lovers participating in the Umbria Jazz Festival in Italy. Researchers explain the reasons why participants participate in this festival with the motivations of excitement and excitement, socialization, entertainment, innovation, family cohesion. Schneider and Backman (1996) examined the feasibility of a scale commonly used by festival researchers at the Jerash Culture and Art Festival in Jordan, which is a culture outside North America. It has been determined that a festival scale developed in North America in the study can be applied independently at cultural festivals at cultural festivals. Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman (1993) found that festival motivations of the Freedom Weekend Aloft (hot air balloon festival) participants in Greenville, South Carolina as; "socialization", "family unity", "excitement/uniqueness", "escape" and "event innovation. As a result of that study, it was determined that the participants who visited

the festival for the first time and visited again showed significant differences in enthusiasm and innovation dimensions as well as satisfaction levels.

BULLFIGHTING FESTIVALS

Destinations compete with each other at regional, national and international levels to attract more tourists. Due to the intense competition among destinations in recent years, the development and organization of events such as festivals have become a major sector (Tayfun & Arslan, 2013). Especially festivals organized in regions lacking natural tourism resources, such as a sea, mountain, lake, forest etc., are seen as an important means of attracting tourists to the region.

Within all cultural values, bullfighting festivals are considered as a sport, a folklore, culture, and tourism event and provide various benefits to the regions they perform like every festival (Çulha, 2008). These benefits include, the extension of the tourism season and the diversification of tourism, ensuring that the tourism demand is evenly distributed among different destinations within the country to enhance destination attractiveness and awareness of destinations, creating new infrastructure services or to develop existing infrastructure, creating powerful and active images and creating cultural themes (Tayfun & Arslan, 2013).

Today, such festivals have begun to come to mind before the natural and physical characteristics of a destination or even those destinations started to come to mind with its festivals. For example, in Spain, tourism and bullfighting come to mind. Bullfighting is almost a tourism symbol of this country (Çulha, 2008). Many visitors are participating in this festival, and 60% of this number includes tourists from outside Spain (MacLeod, 2006). According to a report in the Spanish economic newspaper *Expansion*, it is reported that 6 million euros have been spent on a weekly bullfighting event left in the city. It is pointed out that there is no such income in Spain except for football. The bullfighting, which attracts a lot of tourists, is currently held in some Latin American countries such as Mexico, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Venezuela and Costa Rica and Turkey

(without the bull being killed) in southern France and Portugal (without the bull being killed) outside Spain. The sum and the substance of that, bullfighting festivals play an important role in promoting the city and becoming a center of attraction.

ARTVIN-KAFKASÖR CULTURE, ART AND TOURISM FESTIVAL

Artvin-Kafkasör Region

Artvin-Caucasus is located in Blacksea Region of the Turkey. The region has many natural and cultural attractions. The mountains and the hills are the most remarkable of their natural values. This region is very special because of the number of rare plants and butterflies found in the mountains. In this region, there are many glaciers, glacier lakes, glacier valleys, and circuses. It is suitable for trekking and mountaineering sports. In addition, rafting courses have been established in many areas of the region. Forest structure has attractiveness in terms of ecotourism. Approximately 55% (390,000 ha) of Artvin province's territory is covered with forest areas. Flora elements are especially important for ecotourism in terms of endemism. In the borders of Artvin, a total of 119 endemic taxa are registered. Fauna is perhaps the most important of ecotourism attractions. The region with rich flora and fauna is also on the migratory route of the birds. This region is one of 25 wonders of the world with its richness and diversity. Artvin has 8 natural protected areas including two national parks, one natural park, three nature reserve, and two natural monuments. In addition, lakes, rivers, waterfalls, rivers, sea and beaches are remarkable in this region. Highlands and caves are another tourist attraction. The area has a rich potential in terms of historical artifacts. Handicrafts based on woodworking are common. Local food and drinks are important cultural tourism values. There are dozens of festivals and carnivals every year in the provinces and districts of Artvin, where the culture is experienced intensively (Yılmaz, 2010).

Brief History of Kafkasör Bullfighting

It is known that bullfighting in Artvin has been going on for centuries as a result of the researchers obtained. Before start a trip with animals in Artvin, which has a steep, rugged and very broken terrain structure, before going on a trip to bulls were fought and made peace. Otherwise, uncontrolled bullfights on the road could let to injuries and even fatal accidents. The reason for the emergence of bullfighting stems from this necessity.

The choice of the Kafkasör region for bullfighting is not a coincidence. Kafkasör region is the first step in the mountain outcrops, in the sense that it is the first plain and the meeting area. While the bulls of the seven communities gathered here and trying to be reconciled, a certain competition for the passion of the man sprang up spontaneously. As a result of this, more ambitious bullfights was organized. This passion was so loved that it was transformed into a festival in 1981. Bullfights were held in six categories depending on the neck size. In 2007, "Artvin Conventional Bull Wrestling and Association for the Protection of Plants" was established. This association has started a more just practice in terms of bulls, based on the weight factor. In the Artvin Kafkasör Arena, bullfighting started in the neighborhood villages and the towns in early April of each year, and the champions leagues start with the participation of favorite bulls in the final qualities at the end of June (www.kafkasor.org, 2017).

Tradition of Kasfkasör Bullfightings

In Artvin, which has bad and rugged terrain, animals have to be reconciled before they go out to mountains. Otherwise, bullies are injuring each other and leading to fatal accidents. These fightings are organized to prevent the bulls from hurting each other and not throwing them down from the cliff in Artvin. In accordance with the living on mountains, it is aimed at choosing the best bulls to choose the leader among the bulls by fighting the animals and revealing the strong bull (www.kafkasor.org, 2017).

During the past years of bullfighting, which each local has carried out among themselves, have come up to daylight. It was the first time bullfighting organized in 1981 in the festival atmosphere on the Kafkasör plateau and turned into an international festival. As a result, this bullfighting festival is basically a power struggle of mutual bulls and a dominance of one side, as opposed to the game in other festivals that bulls fight with people. It is based on the fact that it allows one of the bulls to accept the defeat and escape from the scene (Koca, 2013). In other words, Bulls fight with each other not with humans, and they are not being killed during or after the fights. Actually, it is based on the idea of make peace among the bulls.

CONCLUSIONS

Artvin, with its natural and cultural values, is one of the important tourist attractions of Turkey. Festivals is the most prominent tourism resources in Artvin and Kafkasör region. The bullfighting events organized in the Artvin-Kafkasör region have been held for centuries. These bullfighting events have been held under the roof of the Culture, Art, and Tourism Festival, since 1981. The commemoration of the bullfighting festival with the culture banner is a sign that this work is being done in a human nature. Because stock farming of bulls is important in Artvin. Cattle shepherds who are almost more careful to their bulls than their own siblings feed their bulls with special nutrients for a year with grape molasses, green tea, nuts, peanuts, grapefruit, barley and similar foods to prepare them for this festival.

In summary, among all the cultural values, the bullfighting festivals in the scope of the festival are evaluated as a sport, a folklore, a culture and a tourism event (Çulha, 2008) and provide various benefits to the regions they perform like every festival. In this context, it is obvious that bullfighting plays an important role in promoting Artvin-Kafkasör region to becoming a center of attraction.

It can be said that bullfighting will provide very important benefits in terms of destination differentiation. It is also thought that it will provide important contributions to the problem of

regional development and employment. Despite all these features, Artvin-Kafkasör region and the bullfighting festival are all suffering from nationalization. The collaboration of stakeholders, ministry, and academicians will greatly contribute to the development of the festival. It is aimed to solve problems and deficiencies by carrying out a more comprehensive study in the future.

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MOTIVATIONS OF FESTIVAL PARTICIPANTS

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to determine the motivations of festival participants in Turkey. It is planned as a pilot study of a more comprehensive study in the future. As a result of this study, five motivation factors have been found. It is identified that the most important factor is socialization. This factor is followed by cultural exploration, recover equilibrium, novelty/regression, and puerility motivation factors. This study indicates that participants go to festivals mostly because of the socialization. But, the first reason of attending festival is to relieve boredom.

Keywords: festival tourism, motivation, alternative tourism

INTRODUCTION

There are three characteristics that a country, region or destination must possess in order to create a tourist product; accessibility, the existence of tourism businesses and attractiveness. Tourists make their choice based on these features. However, in order to occur these choices, there is also a need for different touristic features and attractiveness from any other tourist attraction or at least events that as much effective as it can be. Among the attractive events, sports events, cultural events, fairs, exhibitions, local events, and festivals are the most popular ones (Small et al., 2005). Festivals that are an important part of tourism region marketing and the fastest-growing tourism attractiveness, have grown considerably in terms of number, diversity and popularity since the 1980s (Getz, 1991; Gürsoy et al., 2004; Yang, Gu & Cen, 2011). Because, festivals as a sign of social and cultural life, are part of the network of relationships established with the tourist and tourism sector every passing day (Picard & Robinson, 2006). Likewise, festival motivational researches help event managers about positioning festivals (Scott, 1996). For this reason, it is thought that to determine the motivation for participation to festivals and the difference between these detected factors and the motivational factors frequently encountered in the literature will provide more successful festivals in the future. Because festival motivational research will help event managers better position festivals (Scott, 1996). In this context, this study aims to determine the motivations of festival participants in Turkey.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation and Tourist Motivation

Motivation is a concept related to the power and direction of human behaviour and is derived from the word "movere" which means movement in Latin (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). While motivation is defined as an internal factor that empowers, directs and completes the behaviour of the individual by Iso Ahola (1980); Moutinho (2000) assessed the motivation as a need for conditions that lead to certain types of behaviour that are likely to satisfy the individual. Having different needs of the individuals, having different demands and expectations, and constant change of these requests have caused different demands on the tourism market. Motivation studies investigate what these needs and expectations are. In this context, tourist motivation can be expressed as needs and desires that encourage people to travel (Caber, Albayrak; 2013). In other words, Park and Yoon (2009) define tourist motivation as a set of needs that leads people to participate in tourism-based activities. Therefore, tourist motivation relies on expectations, needs and desires, and reflects the personalities and socio-economic characteristics of tourists. Generally speaking, it is possible to define tourist motivation as a composition of needs and desires that affect the propensity to travel (Beh & Bruyere, 2007).

The studies in the field of tourist motivation are trying to find out why tourists have certain behavioural patterns and what influences tourist motivation (Meng et al., 2008). The research on tourist motivation not only enables to understand tourism as a socio-psychological phenomenon and also offer suggestions for developing solutions in a managerial sense (Park and Yoon, 2009). Crompton and McKay (1997) attribute the importance of tourist motivation to the fact that tourist decision-making processes are a key phenomenon in the meaning and development of quality products and services for tourist satisfaction. On the other hand, Goeldner and Ritchie (2009) state that the question "Why are tourists traveling?" is a simple question, and the main question is "why does a certain group of tourists prefer to live a certain travel experience?".

Travel motivation is associated with a number of needs affecting participation in tourist activity (Pizam et al., 1979) and is associated with shortcomings that lead to travel as an impact or response (Dann, 1981). Firstly, Crompton (1979) sought to formulate travel motivation with eight socio-psychological (escape, self-discovery, relaxation, prestige, regression, kinship-development and social interaction) and two cultural motivations (innovation and education). Since Crompton's earliest effort, many researchers have discovered different motivational factors (Table 1). For example, McIntosh and Goeldner (1986) summarize motivation factors as; physical, cultural, interpersonal-status and prestige. Ryan and Glendon (1998) classified travel motivations of the English travelers into four dimensions as social, relaxation, intellectual and competence-superiority. Hanqin and Lam (1999) identified five motivational factors belongs to Chinese visitors in Hong Kong as information, prestige, human relations enrichment, relaxation and innovation (including qualities associated with excitement findings). Cleaver et al. (2000) identified six dimensions from 48 psychological motivational determinants of Australian tourists; self-healing, excitement seeking, exploration, status search, memories/memory, and imagination. To summarize, factors commonly found in many studies have been identified as information seeking, relaxation, family cohesion, natural and historical environment, cost, efficiency, security, and easy access (Jang & Wu, 2006).

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Table 1. Motivation Factors

Author (Year)	Dimensions
Crompton (1979)	Escape, self-discovery, relaxation, prestige, regression, kinship-development and social interaction, innovation, education
McIntosh & Goeldner (1986)	Physical, cultural, interpersonal-status, prestige
Uysal et.al. (1994)	Relaxation/hobbies, novelty, escape, prestige, enhancement of kinship relationship
Jeong (1997)	Natural resources, historical and cultural, resources, climbing or good walking facilities, facilities for rest and recreational activities, information and convenience facilities, commercial and accommodation facilities
Ryan & Glendon (1998)	Social, relaxation, intellectual, competence-superiority
Hanqin & Lam (1999)	Knowledge, prestige, enrichment of human relations, relaxation, innovation
Cleaver et al. (2000)	Self-healing, excitement search, discovery, status search, memory / memory, dreaming

Kim et al. (2000)	Entertainment, physical environment, high profiles entertainment opportunities, infrastructure
Kim et al. (2003)	Family togetherness and study, appreciating natural resources and health, escaping from everyday routine, adventure and building friendship, key tourist resources, accessibility and transportation, information and convenience facilities
Pérez-Nebra (2005)	Entertainment, local culture, luxury and comfort, scenery, security and infra-structure
Çakıcı & Harman (2007)	Nature with clean air, foods and beverage outlet, guiding service, easy to access
Prebensen et al. (2010)	Sun and warmth, fitness and health, culture and nature, escape
Siri et al. (2012)	Novelty seeking, stress busting/fun, achievement, family oriented/education

Source: Adapted by the author.

Festival Tourism and Festival Motivation

The festival word can be defined as activities organized in order to provide an economic, artistic, cultural and social rapprochement and promotion between people and societies. Nowadays, the festivals organized in the frame of a theme and make connotations of activity, entertainment, and festivity. But in ancient times festivals are depicted as an organization which is a mixture of religion, bringing society together and a scene of various ceremonies and rituals. If we try to express these organizations with present-day concepts, a confused mixture of "holiday" and "conviviality"

emerges. Getz (1991) describes festivals and events as a new wave of alternative tourism that contributes to sustainable development and improves the relationship between hospitality and guest. Today, the number of events that include festivals and strong cultural elements on the global scale is significantly increasing. These activities are aimed a number of purposes, such as the opening up of international traditions of local minorities and new peoples, their contribution to the local economy and recreation opportunities, and also raising the local pride in culture (Long & Perdue, 1990). For this reason, many researchers emphasize the importance of analyzing the reasons for participating in festivals and events (Getz, 1993; Crompton & McKay, 1997). In addition, researchers describe this type of motivation as a precondition for the effective planning and marketing of activity programs (Crompton & McKay, 1997, Scott, 1996).

The motivation of the tourists participating in the festivals is measured in different conditions such as nationality (e.g., Ryan and Glendon, 1998; Cleaver et al., 2000; Yuan & McDonald, 1990), destination (e.g., Jang & Cai, 2002) and activity (e.g., Lee, et al., 2004; Nicholson & Pearce, 2001). While some motivational dimensions exhibit a repetitive nature during various studies, some motivational dimensions present a structure unique to the activity, to the environment, or to the participant's structure (Schofield & Thompson, 2007). For example, Uysal, Gahan, and Martin (1993) found that the motivations of a corn festival participant in South Carolina were 'socialization', 'family togetherness', 'excitement/uniqueness', 'escape', and 'event novelty'. Similarly, Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman (1993) found that festival motivations of the Freedom Weekend Aloft (hot air balloon festival) participants in Greenville, South Carolina as; "socialization", "family unity", "excitement/uniqueness", "escape" and "event innovation. As a result of that study, it was determined that the participants who visited the festival for the first time and visited again showed significant differences in enthusiasm and innovation dimensions as well as satisfaction levels. Backman, et al. (1995), investigated the motivations of passengers taking part in festivals, special events or exhibitions using the data obtained from the 1985 Pleasure Trip Market Survey. As a result of that study they revealed five motivational dimensions; "excitement", "

externality", "family", "socialization" and "relaxation". Scott (1996) compared the motivations of the three visiting festivals (Bug Festival, Holiday Lights Festival and Maple Sugaring Festival) held by the Cleveland Metroparks in Ohio, and introduced six festival motivations; "natural values", "event excitement", "socialization", "family coexistence", "curiosity" and "running away from the routine". In that study, statistically significant differences were found between the motivational factors according to different types of festivals. It has shown that the motivations sought at a festival can be different from the motivations sought at another festival. Lee (2000) compared the motivation of the Kyongju World Cultural Fair between Caucasian and Asian visitors and found seven motivation dimensions; "cultural research", "family unity", "escape", "innovation", "external group socialization", "activity attractions" "known group socialization". As a result of that study, it has been discovered that the motivation of visitors from different countries or regions is significantly different. In general, the findings of previous studies show that common motivational factors have been extensively identified. Previous studies on festival motivation supported the view that there are a number of motivational dimensions that explain the motivation behind participation in different festivals and events in a range of geographical and cultural settings (Schofield & Thompson, 2007).

METHOD

In this study, survey method was used as a data collection tool. The survey was first prepared in English and later translated into Turkish. The questionnaire back translated to English so that eliminating inconsistencies in statements. The obtained data were analyzed in statistical package program and the findings were interpreted. Field research was conducted in April 2017 and convenience sampling method was used. This study was conducted as a pilot study of a more comprehensive study planned in the future, so 60 surveys were considered sufficient for this pilot study.

The research questionnaire consists of two parts with the purpose of determining participants' demographics and festival attendance motivations. In the first part, 5 questions were asked to

determine the demographic characteristics of the participants. These questions are; gender, age, educational status, marital status, and occupation. In the second part, 28 statements were used based on the Crompton and McKay's (1997), a conceptual framework of escape-seeking dilemma and push-pull factors, in order to determine participants' motivation for festival participation. The seven-point Likert scale is used in survey and "1" means "strongly disagree", while "7" means "strongly agree".

RESULTS

The demographic characteristics of the research survey participants are shown in Table 1. Firstly, it is seen that 34 of the total 64 participants (53.1%) were male and 30 (46.9%) were female participants. While the age ranges of participants varied between 18 and 31, it has seen that 48,4% of the participants were 21 years or younger and 51.6% were 22 or older.

Table 2. Demographic variables of the participants

Demographics	n	-	%	n	-	%	n	-	%
Gender	Female			Male			Total		
	30	-	46.9	34	-	53.1	64	-	100
Age	21 and younger			22 and older			Min.	Max.	
	31	-	48.4	33	-	51.6	18	31	

n= frequency

Firstly, the values of skewness and kurtosis of the data were examined to determine whether the data obtained from the participants had a normal distribution. As a result of the examinations made, all statements were between +1.5 and -1.5 of the skewness and kurtosis values. The values of skewness and kurtosis between +1.5 and -1.5 according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) indicated that data is normally distributed.

Secondly, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient, which is a reliability indicator of the variables, was calculated with a statistical package program. As a result of the analysis, the reliability score of the motivation scale of the research questionnaire was determined as 0.91. Because of it is higher than the acceptable minimum value (0.70), this value is considered as reliable.

Table 3. Mean and standard deviation values of the motivation scale

Statements	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
I go to festivals to relieve boredom	64	5.75	1.07
I go to festivals to be with others who enjoy the same things I do	64	5.63	1.36
I go to festivals because it is a chance to be with people who are enjoying themselves	64	5.63	1.35
I go to festivals so I can be with my friends	64	5.63	1.23
I want to see new things while at festivals	64	5.61	1.36
I enjoy activities at festivals that offer thrills	64	5.59	1.37
I attend festivals to recover from my usually hectic pace	64	5.52	1.35
I like to find myself in situations where I can explore new things	64	5.50	1.60
I want there to be a sense of discovery involved as part of my festival experience	64	5.44	1.56
I want to experience customs and cultures different from those in my own environment	64	5.42	1.46
I come to festivals to increase my knowledge of local culture at festival	64	5.34	1.50
When at a festival, I like to “let my hair down	64	5.25	1.31
I seek adventure at a festival	64	5.22	1.34
My ideal festivals involve looking at things I have not seen before	64	5.20	1.53
I do not like to plan my festivals in detail because it takes away some of the unexpectedness	64	5.19	1.40
I like things to happen at festivals that are unpredictable	64	5.19	1.58
I have to go to events like festivals from time to time to avoid getting in a rut	64	5.16	1.43
While at festivals I attend cultural events that I do not normally have an opportunity to go to	64	5.11	1.57
When attending events at festivals, I like to meet new people	64	5.11	1.71
I like to attend festivals to reduce built-up tension, anxieties, and frustrations	64	5.08	1.66
Festivals bring out the youth in me	64	5.08	1.40
I like to go to festivals with a group	64	4.98	1.69
Going to festivals with someone is always more fun than going by yourself	64	4.92	1.72
I like to visit museums and historical sights when attending festivals	64	4.91	1.65
I like to go to festivals to be with and observe the other people who are attending	64	4.75	1.58
I do not like to go to festivals alone	64	3.61	2.06
Festival events give me a chance to act like a kid again	64	3.45	1.58
I do not care if people think my behavior at festivals is wild	64	3.39	1.76

n=frequency

Descriptive statistics are called methods that enable the data to be arranged, summarized and displayed in an informative way. Central tendency measures (mean) and central distribution measures (standard deviation) are able to obtain with this method (Durmuş et al., 2011). In this context, descriptive analyses of participants' motivations are shown in Table 2. It is seen that statements are sorted from high to low according to their mean value. Accordingly, the first five statement of festival participant motivations are, “I go to festivals to relieve boredom”, “I do not go to festivals to be with others who enjoy the same things I do”, “I go to festivals because it is a chance to be with people who are enjoying themselves”, “I go to festivals so I can be with my friends”, “I want to see new things”; while the last five statement of festival participant motivations are, “I like to visit museums and historical sights when attending festivals”, “I like to go to festivals to be with

and observe the other people who are attending”, “I do not like to go to festivals alone”, “Festival events give me a chance to act like a kid again”, “I do not care if people think my behaviour at festivals is wild”.

For the factor analysis, the KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) value was examined to determine whether the number of data was sufficient. According to this value determined as 0.77, it is understood that the number of data used is suitable for factor analysis. The fact that the KMO value is greater than 0.60 indicates that the number of data is sufficient for factor analysis (Büyüköztürk, 2016). According to the results of the Bartlett Sphericity Test ($p = 0.00$), there was a significant relationship between the statements. It was seen that three statements of the scale (“While at festivals I attend cultural events that I do not normally have an opportunity to go to”, “I like to attend festivals to reduce built-up tension, anxieties, and frustrations”, “I do not like to go to festivals alone”) had lower commonalities than the others. For more reliable results, those statements were removed. After that, it has seen that the KMO value rose from 0.77 to 0.79. Finally, to obtain the participant motivation dimensions of festivals, 25 statements on the scale were subjected to explanatory factor analysis by the Varimax rotation method. The variance explanation rate was determined as 69.45%, as a result of the analysis. Five factors were obtained above the acceptable threshold which has been given as 66% by Büyüköztürk (2016). The results of the factor analyses are shown in Table 3. Although Crompton and McKay (1997) found six motivation factors in their study, it has been found that 5-factor construction is more appropriate in this study. As a result of the factor analysis, the scale's “Known-Group Socialization” and “External Interaction/Socialization” dimensions were collected under a single dimension and named as "Socialization". Besides, instead of “Gregariousness” factor in the original study, “Puerility” factor was showed up.

Table 4. Factor analysis

Factors	Commun- alities	Mean	Cronbach Alfa
F1: Socialization		5.23	0.88
I go to festivals to be with others who enjoy the same things I do	0.89		
I like to go to festivals with a group	0.85		
I go to festivals because it is a chance to be with people who are enjoying themselves	0.78		
Going to festivals with someone is always more fun than going by yourself	0.68		
I go to festivals so I can be with my friends	0.67		
like to go to festivals to be with and observe the other people who are attending	0.64		
When attending events at festivals, I like to meet new people	0.55		
F2: Cultural Exploration		5.35	0.90
I want to experience customs and cultures	0.90		
I like to find myself in situations where I can explore new things	0.85		
I want there to be a sense of discovery involved as part of my festival experience	0.81		
I go to festivals to increase my knowledge of local culture at festival	0.77		
I like to visit museums and historical sights when attending festivals	0.76		
I want to see new things while at festivals	0.69		
My ideal festival involves looking at things I have not seen before	0.53		
F3: Novelty/Regression		5.25	0.87
I enjoy activities at festivals that offer thrills	0.81		
I seek adventure at festivals	0.80		
I do not like to plan my festivals in detail because it takes away some of the unexpectedness	0.79		
When at festivals, I like to "let my hair down"	0.74		
like things to happen at festivas that are unpredictable	0.71		
Festivals brings out the youth in me	0.60		
F4: Recover Equilibrium		5.47	0.82
I have to go to events like festivals from time to time to avoid getting in a rut	0.76		
I attend festivals to recover from my usually hectic pace	0.70		
I go to festivals to relieve boredom	0.67		
F5: Puerility		3.42	0.61
Festival events give me a chance to act like a kid again	0.81		
I do not care if people think my behavior is rude at festivals is wild	0.71		

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin: 0.79

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 1126.75; p: 0.00

According to results of factor analyses, socialization factor was appeared as the top factor of the festival participant motivation by 32.06% of the variance and 5.23 factor mean. Secondly, cultural exploration factor has 14.44% of the variance and 5.35 factor mean. Novelty/Regression is the third factor, and it has 11% of the variance and 5.25 mean. The fourth factor is Recover Equilibrium, and it has 6.85% of the variance and 5.47 factor means. The last and the fifth factor is Puerility and it has 5.10% of the variance and 3.42 factor means. Puerility is the only factor that its factor means close to disagreement on the scale. Therefore, we can say that participants rarely go to festivals to experience childish emotions.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

According to previous researches about festivals, especially in the rural areas, festivals contribute to the local economy by improving the local tourism industry. Festivals are a powerful tool for attracting tourists during off-season periods, creating awareness about the region and creating a positive image. Also, it has been seen that as much as it can extend the duration of stay, it can increase the interest of local products, and the quality of life of local people (Yoon, et. al., 2000). Given these findings, many researchers emphasize the importance of discovering festival and event participation motivations and the reasons (Getz, 1993; Crompton & McKay, 1997). Also, it is stated that the identification of participation motivation in the festivals is really important for planning and marketing the event programs effectively (Crompton & McKay, 1997; Scott, 1996). The importance of the festival participation motivation has been highlighted by many researchers. It has been considered that before to start more comprehensive study it would be better to have a pilot study about festival participation motivation. The purpose of the study is to identify the motivation for the participation of festivals in Turkey and to reveal the difference between these motivational factors and common motivations confronted in the literature.

Turkey has achieved a certain success in the world holiday tourism market by using the sea-sand-sun trio generally. However, in the context of sustainability, these “3S Tourism” has not been enough to spread tourism to 12 months. In addition, due to the decreasing demand, many tourism facilities are closed during the winter months, and therefore many tourism workers are experiencing temporary unemployment problems. For this reason, many employees who have received an education of tourism prefer to work in different job fields. In this context, festival tourism, which is one of the alternative tourism varieties, is an important opportunity for Turkey to spread tourism over twelve months. During the winter season, festival tourism activities and tourism activities can be revitalized. In this way, it is possible to create new employment fields and to increase the total income of the destination. However, in order for festival tourism to be developed in a destination, it is first necessary to identify the main motivational elements of the participants. In this way, it will

be possible to provide services that will meet the needs and needs of the participants. This study allows determining what features a festival should have in order to be attractive in terms of participants.

In the study participants' motivation for participation in the festival was emerged under five dimensions; “Socialization”, “Cultural Exploration”, “Novelty/Regression”, “Recover Equilibrium”, and “Puerility”. Although Crompton and McKay (1997) found six motivation factors in their study, it has been found that 5-factor construction is more appropriate in this study. As a result of the factor analysis, the scale's “Known-Group Socialization” and “External Interaction/Socialization” dimensions were collected under a single dimension and named as “Socialization”. Besides, instead of “Gregariousness” factor in the original study, “Puerility” factor was showed up. Also, these results indicate that there are a number of universal motivational dimensions that explain the motivation behind participation in different festivals and events taking place in the geographic and cultural settings (Schofield & Thompson, 2007).

This study indicates that participants go to festivals mostly because of the recover equilibrium. After that cultural exploration, novelty/regression, and socialization are important reasons for attending to festivals. But puerility is not playing an important role for attending to festivals.

Besides, when we consider the means of statements, the first reason of attending the festival is to relieve boredom. But it was seen that the statement of “I do not care if people think my behaviour is at festivals is wild” has the lowest mean. It can be said that participants care what people think if their behaviour at festivals is wild.

There are also limitations of this study. Because of this study planned as a pilot study of a more comprehensive study in the future, it has been thought that 64 survey is enough for this study. But it would be better if we collected little more. The fact that the sample consists of only students is another limitation of this study.

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(SA)⁶: A NEW FRAMEWORK FOR THE SMART TOURISM DESTINATIONS ANALYSIS

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(SA)⁶: A NEW FRAMEWORK FOR THE SMART TOURISM DESTINATIONS ANALYSIS

Abstract: The new concept of Smart Tourism Destinations is enticing the interest from many contemporary scholars. In the existing literature, most authors consider that it derives from the one of Smart City and that both share the same characteristics. This paper provides new insights about the conceptualisation of smart tourist destinations, distinguishes them from smart cities and proposes a new framework for their analysis, which may be useful for destination managers to evaluate different dimensions and indicators that their city must focus on to be a smart tourism destination.

Keywords: Smart tourism destination, smart city, conceptualization, framework of analysis, evaluation, smart dimensions.

(SA)⁶: A NEW FRAMEWORK FOR THE SMART TOURISM DESTINATIONS ANALYSIS

1. INTRODUCTION

The concept of “smartness” has been gaining importance in many different fields, and it has recently been applied to the analysis of territories. Firstly, it was applied to cities. Although the concept is earlier, it has been popularised since 2011. Nowadays many cities all over the world want to be smart (Gretzel et al., 2015), because this means that the use of technology and the improvement of the communication and other social factors within the city will lead it to be sustainable and to achieve a good quality of life for its citizens (Boes et al., 2015). Smart cities (SCs) try to solve urban problems and make cities better places to live (Nam & Pardo, 2011).

In order to be smart, cities need to have some characteristics, which are the fundamental or core components of this concept. Several authors have suggested some criteria that may be used to identify what is a smart city and to help cities to be smart or to improve its smartness, but there is not a complete agreement among them (Nam & Pardo, 2011; Neirotti et al., 2014). As an example, the core components or dimensions for SCs are: technology, people and institutions for Nam & Pardo (2011); smart governance, smart environment, smart mobility, smart economy, smart people and smart living for Cohen (2011); or leadership, innovation, social capital and human capital for Boes et al. (2015).

Secondly, and more recently, the “smart” concept has been applied to tourist destinations, causing the appearance of the concept of Smart Tourist Destination (STD). The main component of STDs is the use of the new Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in order to improve the experience of tourists (Boes et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2013). Because of that technological component, many studies (Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2013; Lamsfus & Alzua-Sorzabal, 2013; Baggio & Del Chiappa, 2015) affirm that an STD first has to be a smart city, even though they recognise it has different components and dimensions. Some authors even assert that the concept Smart Destination appeared as an evolution of the idea of Smart City (Boes et al., 2015). The first contribution of this paper is an analysis of the state of the art that permits to differentiate among the two concepts because they are different realities.

Nowadays, with the emergence of new technologies, the Internet of Things, the cloud services and the end-user Internet service system more destinations are smart (Zhang et al., 2012) or want to be smart. Thus, it is necessary to define with more precision the concept of STD, describing its fundamental components and making explicit the dimensions of analysis and their associated indicators. As in the case of SCs, there does not exist a full agreement on the concept of STD in the current literature (Gretzel et al., 2015). Moreover, some authors affirm critically (Gretzel et al., 2015) that the more frequent applications in Smart Tourist Destinations are open data initiatives or trivial projects such as free wi-fi or mobile applications, without a coherence, a logic or a strategy. Then, the definition of precise dimensions of analysis and measurable indicators of STDs will help destinations to measure their smartness.

In the existing literature, some authors have tried to define the concept and the fundamental components or characteristics of STDs (Boes et al., 2015; Gretzel et al., 2015), but nobody has proposed yet a framework of analysis specifying the dimensions and the concrete indicators that STDs should develop. Thus, the second goal of this paper is to define such a framework, which could be very useful for destination managers, as they could make an assessment of the smartness of their territories and they could detect the aspects to be improved.

The paper is structured in five sections. After this introduction, the second section presents a thorough analysis of the state of the art on the conceptualizations of SCs and STDs. In the third section, we distinguish between SCs and STDs because there is not a clear distinction between these two concepts in the current literature. In section four we conceptualise what is an STD with the creation of a novel framework of analysis. This framework concretises the dimensions of analysis and specific indicators

that help to define if a destination is smart. This framework will help to evaluate the development of STDs, by providing destination managers with a specific tool to evaluate the dimensions and indicators their city must improve to be an STD.

2. LITERATURE BACKGROUND

The concept of “smart city” has been very popular in the last 5 years; however, it does not have a unified definition and in the literature, there are works that have proposed different characteristics that should be present in SCs. According to (Neirotti, De Marco, Cagliano, Mangano, & Scorrano, 2014), there is not yet a general agreement on the exact meaning of SC or on the definition of its describing attributes or properties.

In the literature, it is possible to find many different definitions of SCs. Despite their differences, they are not contradictory, as their intended meaning is somewhat similar. Some definitions are centred on specifying what is a smart city, as the one of (Schaffers et al., 2012) which argues that they are the cities that make an intensive use of ICTs with the aim of increasing the quality of life of their citizens while providing a sustainable development. Other researchers provide in the definition the attributes or characteristics that SCs need to exhibit, as this one of (Caragliu et al. 2009): "A city is smart when investments in human social capital and traditional transport and modern ICT communication infrastructure fuel sustainable economic growth and a high quality of life, with a wise management of natural resources, through participatory governance".

There are definitions that focus on the city activities directly affected by smartness, such as the one given in (Nam & Pardo, 2011): "The use of smart computing technologies to make the critical infrastructure components and services of a city – which include city administration, education, healthcare, public safety, real estate, transportation, and utilities – more intelligent, interconnected, and efficient". Another definition that lists the actions that a city has to carry out to be smart is the following (Chourabi et al., 2012): "A city that monitors and integrates conditions of all of its critical infrastructures, including roads, bridges, tunnels, rails, subways, airports, seaports, communication, water, power, even major buildings, can better optimize its resources, plan its preventive maintenance activities, and monitor security aspects while maximizing services to its citizens".

Every researcher in the field has proposed different dimensions on which SCs have to excel. Table 1 summarises some of these proposals. Probably the best well-known characterization of SCs is the one of Cohen (2012), who proposed a 6-dimensional model, called the smart city wheel, which has been later adopted by many authors. As we can see the definitions and conceptualizations of SCs are diverse in the literature; however, they are more accepted and homogeneous than the definitions of STDs, which are more diverse.

Table 1: SCs’ main dimensions of analysis by different authors

Dimensions	Authors
Human social capital Traditional transport Modern ICTs communication infrastructure Sustainable economic growth High quality of life Wise management of natural resources Participatory governance	(Caragliu, A., Del Bo, C, & Nijkamp, P., 2009)
Technology Institution People	(Nam & Pardo, 2011)
Smart governance Smart economy Smart environment Smart people	(Cohen Boyd, 2012)

Smart mobility	Smart living	
Smart economy	Smart mobility	(Komninos, Pallot, & Schaffers, 2013)
Competitiveness	Transport	
Smart people	ICT	
Social capital	Smart environment	
Human capital	Natural resources	
Smart governance	Smart living	
Participation	Quality of life	
Leadership	Social capital	(Boes, Buhalis, & Inversini, 2015)
Innovation	Human capital	

For many authors (Buhalis&Amaranggana, 2014; Gretzel et al., 2015; Buonincontri&Micera, 2016) the concept of STD is an evolution of the concept of SC. For these authors, both concepts share the intense use of technology, but STDs are defined basically for incorporating the novel Information and Communication Technologies to the tourist domain in order to achieve better tourism experiences (Wang et al., 2013). These new technologies allow the exchange of information between offer and demand, as well as the co-creation of value and better experiences for tourists.

Many authors (Baggio & Del Chiappa, 2013, 2014; Beritelli et al., 2014; Gretzel, 2011; Sigala&Chalkiti, 2014) agree that the most important dimension of STD is the use of technology; concretely, they must have a technological platform that allows tourists and other stakeholders to connect in real time through the devices of end-users to improve the services and experiences offered to tourists.

(Harrison et al., 2010) conceptualised “smartness” as the exploitation of operational, near-real-time real-world data, integrating and sharing data, and using complex analytics, modelling, optimisation and visualisation techniques to make better operational decisions. Smart technologies (such as decision support systems, recommender systems (Borràs, Moreno, & Valls, 2014; Moreno, Valls, Isern, Marin, & Borràs, 2013), context-aware systems and augmented reality systems) help tourists to anticipate their needs, to make decisions and to improve their touristic experiences. Smart Tourist Destinations should collect large amounts of dynamic, heterogeneous data (Big Data) and analyse it in order to improve their tourist services (Gretzel et al., 2015).

In many papers in the current literature, researchers have tried to conceptualise STDs by defining their core components, attributes or dimensions. Some of them are somewhat similar, but there does not exist a complete agreement on this issue. Some authors (Wang et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2014) have specified 3 core technological components or dimensions of STDs that allow the connectivity among the stakeholders: cloud computing services, Internet of Things and end-user Internet service systems. A recent study (Buonincontri & Micera, 2016) focused on the co-creation of tourist experiences in smart tourism destinations that have adopted these technologies.

However, the conceptualization of STDs includes other key dimensions, apart from the technological ones. For example, (Carlos Lamsfus & Alzua-Sorabal, 2013) highlight these aspects: the investments in human and social capital, transport and modern ICT communication infrastructures. For these authors, these three dimensions allow achieving the expectations of tourists.

Other authors define the different dimensions of SCs and STDs but without the explicit aim of distinguishing them. (Boes et al., 2015) constructed a framework for the development of STDs based on 7 variables or dimensions (human capital, leadership, entrepreneurship, innovation, social capital, ICT infrastructures and IoT -Internet of Things-), and they distinguish them from the dimensions of SCs that they define as people, living, mobility, environment, economy and government. In the same line, (Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang, & Koo, 2015) understand a STD as a part of the whole smart tourist ecosystem, distinguish between the attributes of STDs focused on tourists (infrastructures to improve

the tourism experience, personalization, connectivity monitoring and information in real time) and the SC's attributes, more focused on citizens (mobility, available resources, sustainability and quality of life).

Finally, another key dimension of STDs is the personalization of touristic products and services (Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2013). STDs should take into account the preferences of each tourist and offer them in real time the activities or services which are relevant or interesting to them. (Batet, Moreno, Sánchez, Isern, & Valls, 2012) The different dimensions that authors have attributed to STDs in the literature of the last years are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: Smart tourist destinations' dimensions by different authors

Dimensions	Authors
Cloud computing services Internet of Things End-user Internet service system	(Wang, Li, & Li, 2013) (Zhu, W, Zhang, L, & Li, N, 2014) (Buonincontri & Micera, 2016)
Personalisation Monitoring in real time	Connectivity Information in real time
Investment in human and social capital Transport Modern ICT communication infrastructure	(Carlos Lamsfus & Alzua-Sorabal, 2013) (Gretzel et al., 2015)
Human capital Leadership Entrepreneurship Innovation	Social capital ICT infrastructures Internet of things
	(Boes et al., 2015)

3. SMART TOURIST DESTINATIONS VS SMART CITIES

In social science, the “smart city” concept is not a new one. Although it was already mentioned in 1994 (Dameri, 2012), it has flourished during the technological revolution of the last two decades. SCs invest in human and social capital, transport and ICT infrastructures, searching for sustainable economic growth and a high quality of life (Caragliu, Del Bo, & Nijkamp, 2011).

In the current state of the art, there are some works that consider STDs as an emerging abstraction that appears after the advent of SCs (Lamsfus, Martín, Alzua-Sorzabal, & Torres-Manzanera, 2015). (Del Chiappa & Baggio, 2015) believe that the concept of STD arises from the smart city. (Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2013) consider that the main requirements for a destination to become an STD are the bases of a smart city: leadership, entrepreneurship, innovation, social capital, human capital and ICT infrastructures. However, STDs and SCs are certainly not the same. STDs employ ICTs in the touristic processes trying to improve the tourist experiences (Wang et al., 2013; Gretzel et al., 2015).

In this paper, we want to argue that SCs and STDs are strongly connected, but they are clearly two different concepts and separate realities. While sharing several important characteristics, as both are based on the use of new technologies (Gretzel, 2011), some important aspects such as the geographical boundary, the addressed target, their main objectives, the governance and their main priorities are dissimilar. These issues are commented in the following paragraphs.

In terms of the geographical boundary, there is a strong difference between SCs and STDs. While a smart city typically refers to an urban area – normally a city, or the city itself and several nearby satellite districts (in the map, the city can be recognised through the shape of a circle or a spiral), an

STD is not necessarily an urban area or a city. It can be a town, but in many cases it corresponds to a territory comprising a set of cities, for instance, Costa Brava (Lloret, Blanes, Begur, Sant Feliu de Guíxols, etc.), or Côte d'Azur (Montecarlo, Monaco, Saint Tropez and Cannes). Moreover, to be considered an STD, the place must necessarily be a tourist destination; however, this condition is not necessary in the case of SCs.

With respect to the addressed target, in an STD the target is indeed its tourists, while, for a smart city, is its citizens. Although having investors and high-quality human resources is also desired by SCs, from the economic and social points of view, their most important target is still their citizens.

This difference leads to a series of mismatched objectives between SCs and STDs. Focusing on tourists, STDs deal with issues such as seasonality, mobility, multilingualism, multiculturalism, hospitality, gastronomy, and so on. On the contrary, a smart city focuses on aspects related to the development of the city, for example, sustainable environment, waste management, smart utilities or smart economy. Indeed, a city which manages these issues well is a potential place to live or to visit, but it is not always an STD.

Another difference between STDs and SCs lies in the governance and the operating board. One of the main dimensions of SCs is the smart economy, which certainly includes the city's tourism industry. To some extent, it could be said that being an STD is only a subordinate area in the smart city's development strategy, with the contribution to enhancing a smart economy. Thus, the operating board of an STD plan can only be the Tourism Department of the city. Considering the operating board, while the local authority and the central government are normally responsible for the development of an SC, an STD is mainly driven by the tourism sector, public as well as private. The cooperation between both sectors is necessary in order to establish an STD and, in some cases, the private foundation plays a key role in the development of an STD.

The last difference between SCs and STDs is that in general, a smart city's priority is enhancing the city's performance as a whole, considering six main factors: smart governance, smart economy, smart mobility, smart living, smart people and smart environment. These factors are developed with the use of four fundamental constructs: leadership, entrepreneurship and innovation, social capital, and human capital. These constructs are supported and enabled via the implementation of technological applications and a strong ICT infrastructure. Instead, STD is oriented towards the attraction of more visitors and the achievement of intrinsic value from them, with the final aim of strengthening the destination's competitiveness in the tourism industry.

From the analysis of these differences, summarised in Table 3, it can be seen that SCs may be STDs. For example, some cities that are considered SCs and STDs are New York, Toronto, Amsterdam or Barcelona. However, not all SCs may be considered as STDs and vice versa.

Table 3: Differences among STDs and SCs

Aspect	STD	SC
Geographical boundary	It must be a tourist destination.	It may not be a tourist destination.
	It can be a town or a territory.	An urban area, or a city.
Addressed target	Tourist.	Citizen, investor, high-quality human resources.
Focused issues	Seasonality, mobility, multi-linguism, multi-culturalism, hospitality, gastronomy.	Sustainable environment, waste management, smart utilities, smart economy.
Governance and operating board	Tourism department in the destination. Private sector.	Local government. Central government. Public-private cooperation.

	Public-private cooperation.	
Priority	The attraction of more visitors and obtention of intrinsic value from them, to strengthen the destination's competitiveness in the tourism industry.	Enhancing the city's performance as a whole, considering smart governance, smart economy, smart mobility, smart living, smart people and smart environment.

4. (SA)⁶: A NEW FRAMEWORK OF THE ANALYSIS OF SMART TOURIST DESTINATIONS

This article proposes (SA)⁶, a novel framework for the analysis of STDs that comprises six sets of indicators, derived from the introduction of a “smart” component in each of the six dimensions of a successful destination defined by Buhalis and Spada (Buhalis and Spada, 2000). This basic model was first introduced in 2000 in the book *“Destination management systems”*: criteria for success—an exploratory research (Buhalis & Spada, 2000), where the 6 A-dimensions were considered as the keys to the success of a tourism destination, under a marketing approach. Since then, these six dimensions have been adopted by many other authors in tourism research. Gretzel has mentioned that STDs build on these smart services in their provision of attractions, accessibility, amenities, packages, activities and ancillary tourism services (Ulrike Gretzel, Lina Zhong, & Chulmo Koo, 2016). In another article, Buhalis again referred to this 6As when identifying a tourism destination (Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2013). From the marketing point of view, Tooman stated the 6As as the core components which most destinations include (Heli Tooman, 2013). In the novel (SA)⁶ framework, the following 6 dimensions of smartness for tourism destinations will be considered: smart attractions, smart accessibility, smart amenities, smart ancillary services, smart activities and smart packages. In this section, we detail the indicators of smartness in each of these dimensions.

4.1. Smart attractions

The concept of “tourist attraction” is complex, since it may include different kinds of products and services. According to (T.R Stevens, 1991), an attraction is a (man-made or natural) point of interest that is open to the public for entertainment, interest or education. Taking into account the smartness of the attractions, the following indicators may be considered:

Artificial attractions	Explanation
Building	E.g. visitor centre, modern building, art gallery, conference centre. These buildings are personalised with clever geolocation. Video and audio guides are provided during the visit.
Park	Artificial parks offered by the city. E.g. oceanography , botanical garden, aquarium.
Amusement	Quick-witted experience centre, sporting complex, theme park.
Entertainment	Cinemas, live theatres, bar/night clubs, casinos and shopping malls. These entities should be easy to find and they should apply ICTs in their operation and promotion.
Heritage attractions	Historical immersion is offered through smart devices during their visit.
Special events	Use local sensors and crowd control at large events and shows.
Attractions management	Manage the attractions in a participative and collaborative way: public-private organisations, with citizens of the destination and tourists. Transparency in the management of the attractions and adoption of ICTs to the transparent and participative management process. Listen to the necessities and preferences of tourists and adapt the attraction to them.

4.2. Smart accessibility

Accessibility is a basic element of tourism activities; thus, STDs must ensure maximum accessibility for their visitors, both in the arrival and movement within the region and in the use of their products and services. Accessibility exists in two main classes: physical and digital. The main indicators to consider to assess this dimension of analysis are the following:

Physical mobility	Explanation
Public transport	The city offers a good connection between airports, ports, train stations, bus stations and the city centre.
	There is adequate public transport between attractions.
	Good connections with the nearby tourism destinations.
Geolocation system	Provide basic help to visitors, displaying all places of interest.
Accessibility for disabled and elder tourists	Adequate public transport, transport infrastructures, attractions and tourist infrastructures in general to disabled and elderly tourists.
Traffic management	Real-time traffic management system updated with optimal routes (Arup 2010) ('Arup Publications Urban mobility in the smart city age', n.d.)
	Efficient management of intermodal transport.
	Efficient management of the parking area by using up-to-date mobile applications.
	Efficient management of the traffic (transport and people) in areas with a high flow of tourists.
Public safety	Video monitoring in tunnels, metros and unsafe areas.
Digital mobility	
Internet	There is free wi-fi connection in public spots (airport, bus station, train stations, attractions, city centre, tourism offices).
Websites	Provide a local tourism official website that follows the Web Content Accessibility Guidelines 2.0 (WCAG 2.0) and contains useful tourism links and information for tourists and investors.
Mobile applications	Provide destination mobile application that takes into account the Mobile Web Best Practices (MWBP) and the W3C (World Wide Web Consortium) Mobile Web Application Best Practices.
Social media	Establish and update frequently local tourism fan pages in social media, e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram.
Promotion	Provide on-line some promotional materials.
NFC tags and QR codes	NFC tags QR codes are applied to access information about nearby points of interest through mobile devices (GSMA 2012).
Information services	Travel information is provided in road panels, local web pages, and destination mobile applications, considering the access of people with visual impairments.
Internet of Things	Use sensors/actuators in tourist attractions or tourist areas to obtain information from tourists and to provide information to them.
Recommendation systems	Provide real-time information for tourists about cultural activities or events that fit with their personal preferences.
Accessibility management	Create assessment and management protocols to maintain and develop the destination's accessibility.

4.3. Smart amenities

Amenities can be defined as non-marketed qualities of a locality that make it an attractive place to live and work (Power, 1988) categories of amenities are generally considered: natural and built ones. Examples of amenities are wildlife and flora, recreational areas, cultivated landscapes, historical sites, social and cultural traditions, etc. (Green, 2001). Thus, amenities include many aspects that have a direct and conclusive impact on tourism. Natural and other forms of amenities can be thought of as motivators for regional migration, tourism demand structure, and a foundation for regional quality of life attributes (Power 1988). In the realm of the tourism industry, besides the natural amenities, hotel and restaurant networks play a key role in the local tourism quality; thus, they can be considered as essential amenities in the development of a destination.

It may be argued that the amenities present in STDs should incorporate the following smart aspects:

Amenities	Explanation
Natural amenities water (lakes, rivers, coastline), topography (mountains, canyons, hills), climate	Apply EMS (Environmental Management Systems) to the management of the natural amenities at two levels: local government and small and medium size companies (Lee, 2011).
Built amenities	
Hotel and restaurant management	Use Customer Relationship Management systems (CRM) for an efficient management of hotels and restaurant. Hotels and restaurants should appear in recommender systems, review sites and mobile applications.
Control system	Use marketing systems (B2B, B2C) and Central Reservation Systems (CRS).
Content management	Use perceptive Content Management Systems (CMS) which integrate with social networks and geo-positioning.
Innovative public-private network	Implement some sharp programs in order to support PPP (public-private partnership) between local government and local tourism enterprises, in order to foster efficiency, support creativity and permit innovation to flourish (Heeley, 2011).
Hospitality network	Define an innovative entrepreneurial hospitality network, using ICT and new technologies in hospitality.
Amenities management	Natural amenities: eco-regulation and sustainable management. Built amenities: sustainable management, participative public-private management in accommodation and restaurant

4.4. Smart ancillary

The ancillary services present in an STD should also present some smart properties, as described in the following table.

Bank	Provide smart banking and mobile banking service in the destination: to change money, to take money out, etc. Take use of payment integrated systems specific for tourists, in order to enhance the co-creation of service providers with tourists via their feedback.
Postal service	Provide guidelines and postal service support for tourists through tourism websites or mobile applications.
Medical service	Provide geolocation of nearby 24h chemists, hospitals and medication services.

	Provide smart multi-lingual applications which allow visitors access to their medical history and treatments.
	Provide information on medical tourism, etc. Advice on the dangers of high levels of sun exposure and make a risk profile of each visitor.
Local communities	Innovative and friendly communities strengthened through a smart citizens program.
	Creation and promotion of new spaces for travellers to meet local residents, following models geared towards cultural exchange and mutual enrichment.
Citizen journalism	Citizen journalism is an example of Web 2.0 applications that typically include collaboration among users, information sharing and creativity via the Web (Johnson & Wiedenbeck, 2009). In this case, available citizen journalism ancillary programs foster tourists (temporary citizens) to participate in destination communication through the use of ICT resources like blogs, social media or mobile applications.
e-culture	Creation of strategies which enable a visitor's respectful immersion in the history and traditions of each region.
Feedback	Apply complaints management applications which allow tourists to easily register their complaints and directly route them to the appropriate city officials ('Smart Cities: Smart City Compliance System - MetricStream', n.d.)
Ancillary management	Incorporate an international view in the management of the ancillary services, in order to make them useful for tourists. Provide specific facilities for them.

4.5. Smart activities

Smartness should also be incorporated into all the activities available at the destination.

Business-MICE (Meetings, incentives, conferences, exhibitions)	Host and create MICE-tourism activities (meetings, incentives, conferences, exhibitions), organise gatherings on areas like education, religion or health, organise retreats in the destination (Buhalis, 2000b) (Buhalis & Spada, 2000).
Leisure	Provide quick access to third-party sources, such as activities timetable, travel planning or event ticket reservations.
Nature recreation	Management of the open data of the activities.
Adventure recreation	Apply DMS (Destination Management Systems) in order to manage efficiently the activities in the destination.
Air activity	
Activities management	Manage the activities in a participative and collaborative way: public-private organisations, with citizens of the destination and tourists. Listen to the needs and preferences of tourists and adapt the activities to them.

4.6. Smart available packages

A package is the pre-arranged combination of not fewer than two tourist services when sold or offered for sale at an inclusive price and when the service covers a period of more than twenty-four hours or includes overnight accommodation (The European Council, 1990). Smartness can be brought into the packages available in a destination in several ways:

Mode of transport	Efficient management of transport services in the packages: saving energy, improving sustainability, avoiding traffic jams, respecting parking areas, using public transport, etc.
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Type of accommodation	Implement up-to-date mobile applications which offer available accommodation packages with an on-line reservation.
Services included	Offer a multi-lingual application that gives an easy overview of the available packages for tourists (Jordan, B., 2011).
Co-creation package The definition of successful tourism experiences can be achieved through the co-creation with tourists and a high level of technological support (Tussyadiah & Fesenmaier, 2009)	Design and implement chip-based Smart Tourist Cards. They should give access to a wide range of cultural and leisure activities in the destination, as well as to the public transport, tourist bus services and various discounts in shops. ('What is a Tourist Card?', n.d.) Make a smart management of the end-user Internet service systems, e.g. sharing services and virtual pockets to strengthen the interactions between tourists and the DMO.
Package management	Management of sustainable packages. Creation and management of packages in a collaborative way: public-private organisations.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The first contribution of this paper is the distinction among SCs and smart tourism destinations. As we have seen, in the literature many authors affirm that STD is an evolution of the SC concept (Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2013), although they recognise that STD is another reality. However, there has not been any work which has made an explicit list of the differences among the two concepts before. The previous works in the literature have focused more on their similarities than in their differences, perhaps because the two concepts share the use of technology as their main attribute. However, we consider that the explicit establishment of the differences is important for two reasons: to define better and clarify both concepts and to concretise the properties they should exhibit.

Moreover, the dimensions of analysis of SCs do not fit well with STDs. For example, some of the six dimensions from the smart city wheel of Cohen (2012), like the smart economy and smart living, are useful for cities but not for destinations. This is why we have defined the new (SA)⁶ framework of analysis of STDs based on the Buhalis (2000) 6-A dimensions for successful tourist destinations, incorporating the application of smart techniques to each of the perspectives of analysis. In this way, this framework is specifically suited to the analysis of STDs.

Consequently, the second contribution of this paper is the establishment of that novel framework of analysis of STDs that includes six dimensions and 56 specific indicators. This tool helps to improve the conceptualization of what is an STD and it might be very useful for destination managers, as they will have a guide towards the indicators to be measured in their city to assess its smartness and the questions to be improved in the future.

This work has been a contribution in the conceptualization of STDs, but further research is needed. We should test the framework of analysis in a pilot study to see to which level the cities that are currently considered smart destinations fulfil the proposed indicators, and which of them are more important. Moreover, the test will also show if any indicator has to be modified or added to the framework.

Furthermore, the use of this framework of analysis will help to know if all smart tourism destinations are SCs. We believe that this is not always true and the demonstration would be another important contribution to the field.

Finally, the evaluation of the smartness of tourism destinations will allow them to know if they are in a competitive position with respect to the others, will allow to establish rankings among STDs and to know which are the indicators more/less satisfied by STDs.

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HALAL TOURISM: A REVIEW OF THE STATE OF THE ART

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

When diving into this topic, the first problem a researcher finds is the confusion caused by a number of terms intended to designate the same concept (Islamic tourism, Sharia-compliant tourism, Halal tourism...), in addition to the lack of a single and shared interpretation on what Islam requires to tourism services to secure their acceptability.

Firstly, this paper tries to contribute to make clear what Halal tourism is and its requirements, as it seems to be the most appropriate term. In this line, a synthesis of the state of the art on the scientific research on Halal tourism has been carried out, based on the papers contained in Web of Science and Scopus databases, reflecting its early stage of development. Finally, this paper highlights the importance of Halal tourism as a relatively new tourism segment with great potential for global growth. As conclusions, our review of the related academic literature reflects that the study of Halal tourism is recent. So, we found a total of 22 contributions, being Battour, Ismail and Battor who produced the first relevant article in 2010.

A distinction is made between Islamic tourism, referred to the trip made for religious and pilgrimage purposes and, therefore, associated with acts of faith, and Halal tourism, which is made for recreational, leisure and social reasons. In this sense, the term "Halal" refers to practices allowed or approved in accordance with the Islamic law (El-Gohary, 2016).

In the literature, concepts as Halal, Muslim or Islamic tourism are characterised by a certain degree of ambiguity, although El-Gohary (2016, 127, 130) defends that “it is preferred to use the term ‘Halal

tourism' as the main and only term to brand and describe tourism products and/or activities that have full compliance with the rules and guidance of the Halal concept and Islamic Shariah". In this sense, Halal tourism can be understood as offering tourist services designed to meet the needs of Muslim tourists in accordance with their religious obligations and practices. Thus, the Muslim tourist wants to be able to travel and to visit other places of the world maintaining its usual forms of life and behaviours according to the Islamic law.

In this respect, it is imperative for tourist destinations to offer Halal or Muslim friendly services to attract this market segment. However, it is relevant to observe that there are no formal and unique criteria for the tourism sector. In fact, the diversity of interpretations of Islamic practices leads to different levels of demand in the world, which brings as a consequence the existence of several Halal certification organizations. In the sense, for Oktadiana *et al.* (2016), it is important to encourage tourism companies to obtain Halal certifications to attract the Muslim market segment. Nevertheless, the use of the label "Muslim-friendly" as a guarantee that tourist services respect the basic requirements of the Sharia law, despite not being completely Halal, is increasingly widespread among services providers.

Finally, the importance of a relatively new tourism segment with great potential for global growth, such as Halal tourism, is highlighted, both for demographic and economic reasons, in addition to social habits of this population.

Keywords: Halal tourism, Islamic tourism, Muslim-friendly tourism.

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WIGRY NATIONAL PARK FOR KAYAKING

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Abstract: WIGRY NATIONAL PARK FOR KAYAKING. Strategies for the improvement of tourist functions of valuable natural sites are often developed without sufficient analysis of demographic and social changes of tourist and recreational preferences in a given area. The aim of the study was to determine the opinion about the organization of kayaking tourism in one of the National Park in Poland. Diagnostic survey method was used. The survey questionnaire was designed by authors of this paper and has been validated in terms of relevance and reliability in earlier pilot studies. The questionnaire includes questions about demographic and social features, geographic origin of kayakers, forms of rafting organization as well as opinions about the park and the nature protection. The distribution of the opinion on organizing of tourism in the park was analyzed. The study shown various tourist behaviors and views in regard to demographic and social characteristics of respondents.

Key words: Wigry National Park, kayaking tourism, kayakers, demographic, tourist behaviors

INTRODUCTION

Strategies for the improvement of tourist functions of valuable natural sites are often developed without sufficient analysis of the size and structure of tourism and the directions of demographic and social changes and tourist and recreational preferences in a given area (Battisti and Favreno, 1997; Martínez-Espiñeira and Amoako-Tuffour, 2009). Due to the purity of the water and unique natural values, there is a growing interest in kayaking in protected areas. Tourists ought to be environmentally conscious and know tourist culture in case they want to penetrate sensitive to degradation areas such as water tanks and waterways as well as habitats of valuable flora and fauna so that their presence in the area does not impact the environment negatively (Randall and Rollins, 2013). The tourist infrastructure should be conducive to the protection of nature and landscape in order to minimize the possible negative effects of tourism (Kozorog and Istenič, 2013; Newsome, 2014; Siderelis et al., 2006). One of the valuable natural areas is the Black Hańcza trail within the Wigry National Park. Groups of kayakers with different features and preferences use these attractive areas for water sports. Canoe tourism on the Black Hańcza trail has a rich tradition (Proszynska-Bordas, 2013).

Water trails and riverside hostels which could serve the organized groups were expanded during the post-war Poland. Individual canoe tourism which is becoming more and more popular is a relatively new phenomenon. It is developing on the basis of canoe rentals as well as the transportation, which provides transportation of participants and water equipment to almost any place. The development of mobile telephony allows easy contact of the customer with the service provider (Cheng et al., 2016, Cholewa et al., 2015, Proszynska-Bordas, 2013) .

Along the Black Hańcza Trail within the Wigry National Park (WNP) and in the protection zone there are several campsites on private owners' lands. According to CSO about 110 thousand tourists visit annually The WNP, whereas the canoe trail is used by about 9 thousand people (2016), which gives approx. 100-150 canoeists a day during the summer season (peak canoe season lasts from about 24.06. to 20.08.). The wide-ranging information and education policy contributes to the

promotion of the values of the area which is connected with the technical availability of the area. A floating information platform was built for water sports enthusiasts on Wigry Lake in 2013, where some information of the Park's values, admission cards, maps and publications can be obtained. According to the Park service data, the percentage of tourists with admission tickets in the years 2012-2016 was about 65% (http://www.wigry.org.pl/index_en.html).

The aim of the study was to determine the opinion about the organization of tourism in the Wigry National Park, depending on the selected characteristics of tourists, which flow down the kayak route of Czarna Hańcza river.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Diagnostic survey method was used. The survey questionnaire was designed by authors of this paper and has been validated in terms of relevance and reliability in earlier pilot studies. The questionnaire includes questions about demographic and social features, geographic origin of canoeists, forms of rafting organization as well as opinions about the park and the nature protection by other tourists and observation of the tourist base in the Park. The research was carried out in the successive summer seasons in the years 2014 to 2016 in the parking spaces along Czarna Hańcza river, mainly in the villages Wysoki Most and Maćkowa Ruda, on a randomly selected group of tourists canoeing down the waterway within the WNP. 218 people participated in the survey.

Statistical inference included estimation regarding the values of distribution parameters of opinions of tourist groups which have used the waterway. Also, verification of the null hypothesis (in which no significant differences in the distribution were assumed) was included in this inference. Cross-analysis (Pearson's chi-square test) was conducted to analyze satisfaction regarding the tourist infrastructure in the WNP depending on the canoeists' personal characteristics and the way of participation in rafting in the area of the Park and some pro-ecological attitudes. The level of probability $p=0.05$ was considered to be the statistically significant level of the relations.

RESULTS

In the study group, the majority of the respondents were male (53,6%), however, considering their age, place of residence, group of women in relation to the group of men was not statistically different. Among the surveyed canoeists, women slightly more often reported higher education (53,6%) compared to men (47,3%), which is typical for the whole modern Polish society. However, these differences were not statistically significant. It was the lower professional activity of the surveyed women (54,9%) than men (69,7%) that was significantly different. In case of tourist behavior and opinions about the preparation of the Park for tourism, the studies did not show any statistically significant differences in terms of gender.

The analysis showed that the age of entire group of respondents, regardless of gender, ranged from 11 to 76 years, on average 33,2 years (male 32,5 years, female 33,9 years). Age was statistically correlated with education and work. It was connected to the distance of place of residence (younger people, they more often came from Podlasie voivodship). The younger respondents were more likely to be part of group trips, while older people preferred to canoe with their families. Young people less frequently took part in the offered education activities. The lack of the respect of nature by some tourists was often negatively assessed by the older respondents. The assessment of the Wigry National Park's preparation for tourism did not significantly depend on the age of the respondents (table 1).

More than half of the kayakers (55,6%) declared higher education. Some of them had a post-secondary (7,3%) or secondary education (19,6%). The group of people with higher education differed in many respects from the group of people with lower education. The latter were much younger, of regional origin, less financially independent (that group included youths of school age and university students who participated more often in organized groups). Highly educated people were significantly more likely to use educational services and significantly more negatively assessed tourist infrastructure of the Park (18,1%) than those who have primary or lower secondary level of education (2,1%) (table 1). This is due to the fact that the least educated group (consisting

mainly of school pupils) did not have a strong opinion about the adaptation of the terrain to tourism (36,2%) - more often than respondents with secondary or higher level of education (25,6%). Thus, it is worth to consider the factor of education in a subgroup of respondents who are more than 26 years old. Research has shown that the respondents' opinion about the park was not significantly differentiated by the level of education taking into account people over 26 years old (20,8% of kayakers having secondary education and 17,3% of highly educated people have expressed a negative opinion). Education was also not considerable when people aged over 26 years old assessed the nature protection rules followed by other tourists.

Table 1. Respondents opinions about preparation of the WPN for kayak tourism according their sociodemographic and geographic characteristic.

		Opinion		
		good	did not have	negatively
Age (years)	up to 18	85,1	14,9	0
	18-25	69,7	25,8	4,5
	26-35	77,2	10,3	12,5
	36-45	74,2	21,3	4,5
	46-55	68,9	30,5	0,6
	over 55	87,3	11,5	1,2
Gender	Female	76,5	23,5	9,8,
	Male	71,6	15,9	12,5
Education	Higher	66,3	15,6	18,1
	Post-secondary	87,6	10,2	2,2
	Secondary education	61,7	36,2	2,1
Work	Retired	85,4	14,4	0,2
	Unemployed	68,2	31,7	0,1
	Employment	74,6	7,5	17,9
	Students	75,8	20,1	4,1
	Pupils	89,1	10,9	0
Residence	Podlaskie	62,5	18,8	18,7
	another	71,2	25,4	3,4

The respondents were mainly employed (60,5%), some of them were pupils (17,2%), students (12,1%) and the rest constituted unemployed (3,4%) and retired people (1,8%). More often, the opinion on poor WNP preparation for tourism is expressed by working people (17,9%) in comparison with the rest (4,4%) (table 1).

Almost every fourth respondent came from Podlasie voivodship (24,2%), the second according to the popularity was Masovian voivodship (18,3%), others were residents of different voivodships. Western Poland (Lubusz and West Pomeranian voivodships) as well as foreigners (0,9%) constituted the least amount of the respondents. Younger tourists were mostly local. The inhabitants of the Podlasie voivodship were considerably less likely to pay entrance fees (52,9%) than inhabitants of other voivodships (65,8%). Residents of Podlasie voivodship significantly more frequently stated that they use museums and educational paths (55,6%) than the other respondents (38,9%). The park is poorly prepared for tourism in the opinion of 18,7% of kayakers from the Podlasie voivodship and 12,3% of canoeists from other parts of the country (table 1), but this is not a statistically significant difference.

Table 2 presents the assessment of tourist base of the WNP depending on selected characteristics of organization of visitors. The research group of kayakers participated in various forms of rafting. Some of them were kayaking in organized groups (32,8%), other with friends (51,2%) or individually (16,0%). The type of the group had an impact on the assessment of the quality of tourist base in the Wigry National Park. It was poorly rated by canoeists comprised of friends (15,6%) as well as organized groups (17,5%) which was considerably different than among the swimming individually (only 2,4% rated this area as bad).

The respondents spent different amount of time kayaking on the day of the survey. The majority of them canoed over 7 hours (75,8%), only a few spent 5-6 hours (13,6%) or even less than 4 hours (10,6%) on this activity. The participants of short distances were the most critical of the quality of tourist base in that area.

The percentage of people buying an admission ticket (71,5%) is the same as estimated by

the management of the park from the years 2014-2016. The payment of the fee was in relation to the length of time spent in the Park. People canoeing short distances, for less than 4 hours paid the least often. The fact of purchasing the entrance card was significantly correlated with the opinions about the tourist base in the Park (table 2).

Table.2 Respondents opinions about preparation of the WPN for kayak tourism according selected organization of visit characteristic .

		Opinion		
		good	did not have	negatively
Educational offer	Using	55,7	24,5	19,8
	No using	70,8	19,8	9,4
Entrance card	Yes	74,2	14,6	11,2
	No	73,7	15,2	11,1
Time kayaking (hours)	over 7	68,9	26,6	4,5
	5-6	71,8	18,4	9,8
	less than 4	59,4	22,3	18,3
Form of swim	Organized groups	68,4	14,1	17,5
	With friends	75,8	8,6	15,6
	Individual	81,0	16,6	2,4

The fact of visiting (at present or in the past) the surrounding educational institutions and paths was declared by every third canoeist (35,1%). It strongly depended on age, as well as on the education and occupation. The place of residence and the way of organizing the raft also contributed to the opinions. Tourists using the educational offer significantly more often criticized the attitudes of other tourists towards nature and expressed disapproval of the quality of the tourist infrastructure in the area.

The opinion about the nature protection by the other tourists was divided: the majority of canoeists (48,1%) had no objection to the attitude of other tourists towards nature, much of them were not sure about the issue (28,4%) while a small percentage of the respondents (25,2%) claimed that other tourists did not respect the nature. Those who noticed such an inappropriate behaviour were also more critical about the organization of tourism in the Park.

According to the results about the tourist infrastructure in the National Park most of the opinions were positive (68,7%), while quite a high percentage of respondents did not have an opinion (19,5%). The minority (17,3%) of the respondents was disappointed with tourism base in the Park. The most satisfied with the tourist base are pupils, canoeists with the families and people visiting the WNP for more than 7 hours (during the day of the survey). The tourist base in the Park is mostly disapproved by the canoeists having the following features: age 36-45, employed, living in the Podlasie Voivodship, traveling in organized groups or in the company of friends, taking short canoe trips, familiar with the Park's educational offer, negatively assessing the attitude of other tourists towards nature. The schoolchildren, students and people making short canoe trips tend to have no opinion. The cause may be lack of experience or too little contact with the nature. In the case of pensioners, people over 55 years old or unemployed the results are not reliable because of the few respondents in these categories.

CONCLUSIONS

The study of selected features of tourists kayaking Black Hańcza river within the Wigry National Park and the way of organizing the visit in this park as well as declared opinions revealed various tourist behaviours and views.

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COMPARISON OF THE ECO-LABELED AND NON ECO-LABELLED HOTELS OF MALLORCA ON BOOKING.COM

Extended Abstract

Aim & Scope: Green initiatives are very crucial for the hotels. Travellers have become increasingly aware of the environment and so, hotel managers must react in an environmentally responsible manner (Bohdanowicz, 2006). The eco-labels help hotels to give the green messages. They can provide a marketing advantage to certified tourism businesses, and contribute to tourists as a valuable environmental management tool (Buckley, 2002). The online hotel booking websites provide the advantages not only presenting the best price to the travellers, but also showing them the positive and negative reviews. These guest reviews have complementary roles for travellers to compare and decide to buy. Online reviews are formed of comments published by travellers on the tourism services they experience (Filieri and McLeay, 2013). Thanks to the online guest reviews, travellers get opportunity to evaluate the service quality and standards they will receive and if it will accord with their expectations (Browning *et al.*, 2013). Also by employing guest reviews, online hotel booking sites *can be a useful tool in monitoring the competitive environment of a destination and provide valuable customer feedback that is richer and more detailed than Likert response survey measurements* (Pan *et al.*, 2007: p.42). This study aims to identify and compare online guest reviews on Booking.com. The main purpose of this study is to investigate the difference related green initiatives, and customer ratings between eco-labelled and non-eco-labelled hotels.

Method: This paper examines guest reviews of the eco-labelled (Travelife) and non-eco-labelled four and five star hotels on Booking.com, with a case study on the city of Mallorca/Spain that is the largest island in the Balearic Islands as tourism destination. “Travelife” is an international sustainability certification programme for hotels. It helps 1300 hotels around the world to improve their social, economic and environmental impacts (www.travelife.org, 2017). There are 30 four-star and 6 five-star hotels employing Travelife eco-label in Mallorca. By employing qualitative method, in this study, content analysis will be used as a technique to identify and compare reviews on Booking.com. The reviews for the last one year will be collected. In the first phase of the study, the positive and negative reviews will be categorized. Then in second phase, it will be investigated that how these reviews are related with the frame of “green” (with the keywords of “sustainability, cultural heritage, environment, energy/water/waste management, pollution control, recycling”). In third phase, these data will be compared if there is a difference between eco-labelled and non-eco-labelled hotels. And lastly, it will be compared if the hotels with eco-labelled and non-eco-labelled vary according to the customer ratings.

Expected Results: It is expected that there will be a difference related green initiatives between eco-labelled and non-eco-labelled hotels. There should be less negative or more positive online reviews about eco-labelled hotels comparing with the non-eco-labelled hotels. Also it is expected that hotels with the eco-labelled will receive higher customer ratings. After this comparison, it can be said whether the eco-labelled hotels behave sensitively during their services or not.

Keywords: Online hotel booking, Hotel guest reviews, Eco-labels, Mallorca.

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SUSTAINABILITY AND TOURISM: A CHANCE TO BUILD AN ECO-CITIZENSHIP

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Extended abstract

In this article we try to outline an educational model that attempts to build a social-environmental ethic, according to the works of Villemagne and Sauvé, to identify new meanings linked to the guiding principles and human values.

It is well known that the sustainability is required when it comes to carrying out any activity. In fact, if we think about an alternative to the mass tourism –with a capital paradigm: the balance between ecological, corporate, economic, political and cultural issues– we are proposing an educational model based on the building of an eco-citizenship. The reality is that any tourist activity leads to various possibilities of learning and connection with the environment and heritage. The movement of people that you can see in every touristic activity has different effects on local economy, environment and the culture of recipient countries. These shocks can be positive or very bad. We can check out countries that are losing their ecosystems and cultural heritage. So, we have an opportunity to exercise a responsible citizenship model that promotes sustainable human development.

This paper begins with the review of the existing literature about sustainable development and the dimensions of sustainability. We can find out three main components of this concept: ecological, economical and social. It's fundamental a balance between these major factors.

The consideration of the problems referred to the natural environment requires a reflection on certain roles of citizens within society, that we develop in the next section. The role of civil society in the democratic field is critical, given that it represents the element of vigilance, defense and denunciation of the actions of public powers. The citizenship must imply in matters that are relevant in the daily happenings and, above all, considering the commitments acquired with future generations. According to Martínez and Barcena we establish the compounds of an ecological citizenship: search for sustainability, political participation and democratization, public and private connecting and "*Glocalización*" (mix Global + localization).

We sum the ideas presented through the environmental ethics in the terms used by Sauvé and Villemagne. This approach tries to incorporate the educational processes to the task of building environmental ethics, both in the individual plan and in the social field. Following these authors it is possible to derive categories of analysis from the vision that you want to focus. In our case we present mixed typologies to characterize these educational processes in the area of tourism.

Keywords

Sustainability, environmental ethics, education, eco-citizenship, tourism.

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USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA BY MEDITERRANEAN NTOs

Extended Abstract

Aim & Scope: Social media has become a major platform of information for travellers. These networks help travellers to post and share their comments, opinions, and experiences during the all travel stages, then these sharing refer for others (Xiang and Gretzel, 2010). Thanks to social media, National Tourism Organisations (NTOs) can reach a global audience with limited offers (Hays *et al.*, 2013) and interact with target group easily. Although NTOs have been seriously challenged by the rise of the social media, it has opened up the new opportunities (Akehurst, 2009). As social media is relatively new, the way and extent of using social media as a part of NTO's marketing activities vary considerably (Hays *et al.*, 2013). This study aims to explore the degree of the usage of official social media among Mediterranean tourism destinations.

Method: The main purpose of this study is to analyse and interpret data collected from content analysis. By employing qualitative method, this research seeks to gain an understanding of the use of social media among NTOs. The content analysis for this study will analyse data from official social media (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Youtube, Pinterest, Google+, Flickr, Foursquare, and Blog) addresses of countries with coasts to Mediterranean Sea (Algeria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Cyprus, Egypt, France, Greece, Italy, Israel, Lebanon, Libya, Malta, Montenegro, Morocco, Tunisia, Turkey, Slovenia, Spain). The content analysis includes information, about, posts, likes, tweets, entries, photos, videos, followers, following, hashtags and other forms of content. These social media addresses will be taken from official website of National Tourism Organisations. All the contents from 1 April to 30 April 2017 will be analysed. In the first phase of the study, the characteristics of the social media of NTOs will be researched. In the second phase, the text contained in social media will be collected and analysed by word frequency, semantic network analysis (Doerfel 1998), and content analysis.

Expected Results: It is expected that there will be a difference in use of social media and its content between Mediterranean tourism destinations.

Keywords: National Tourism Organisations, Social Media, Mediterranean Sea.

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HOW RANKING POSITIONS EVOLVE OVER TIME IN TRIPADVISOR

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ABSTRACT

The influence that the Tripadvisor Hotels Ranking has on tourists when deciding where to stay is recognized by both the academic and business world. Despite the large number of authors who have analyzed this application from multiple angles, our work focuses on an aspect that is still little studied: The Ranking Mobility, this is, how rankings evolve over time. In June-2015 we started this work by collecting data from hotels rankings in the six largest Spanish cities. On a weekly basis, we have been extracting information from the rankings in order to compare the evolution over time of more than 700 Spanish hotels' positions within the list. This was done to answer the following questions: How do ranking positions change over time?. Did the hotels best positioned in 2015 keep their positions in 2016?. Have any of the hotels made a big jump up or down within the list during the studied period?. Are changes in ranking positions similar in all the cities?.

Our analysis has allowed us to verify the enormous popularity of Tripadvisor. For a period of twelve months, since June/2015 until June/2016 just over 118,000 new reviews have been added by users of hotels for these Cities, which means an increase in the number of reviews of 38.88% in just one year. It is evident that TripAdvisor has the ability to generate new opinions and comments from tourists. A web page that can trigger the response from hotels users without any gains to write all these reviews can only be described as an extraordinary success.

Surprisingly this huge amount of reviews has hardly changed average rating of hotels. In this sense, our research shows that the vast majority of hotels (88.07%) have not changed their score throughout the analyzed period of twelve months. The 118,000 new reviews have only modified the scoring of 11.93% of hotels.

Because the scores remain unchanged, the effect of this stagnant situation is a strong rigidity in the overall ranking. On average, hotels have changed their position in the ranking by no more than 8% from the initial position within the analyzed period, knowing that 80% of the hotels in the sample do not vary their position by more than 11%.

Because these variations are so small most hotels are kept in the same area of the ranking. Thus, out of the hotels ranked in the Top 10% (Decile 1) of Barcelona and Madrid, 92% and 77% respectively remained in the same area a year later. On the other hand, out of the hotels at the bottom of the list (Decile 10) 83% in Barcelona and 71% in Madrid remained in the same decile a year later. The same applies to most of the other cities in our research.

These results highlight the fact that the TripAdvisor Ranking has reached a No Movement State with hardly any changes in the positions.

**AN OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORICAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL GEO-MINING
PARK OF SARDINIA**

Adriana Mossa

INTRODUCTION

My research consists in the analysis of the Historical and Environmental Geo-mining Park of Sardinia, the first Park to be included in the network of Geosites / Geoparks established by UNESCO in 1998.

Sardinia is an island that was exploited for its mineral resources since the sixth millennium b.c. and after the closure of the mining, all the territories that had been affected by its activities were faced with an economic and social crisis. It was then that emerged the proposal that the preservation, conversion and reuse of abandoned industrial facilities could be an opportunity if allocated to tourism and culture.

Eight areas (Monte Arci - Orani, Guzzurra, Sos Enattos - Funtana Raminosa – Argentiera, Nurra, Gallura - Sarrabus-Gerrei - Arburese, Guspinese - Iglesiente – Sulcis), covering some 3,500 square kilometres and including very different municipalities, have been identified as parts of the Park. These were chosen based on geomineral, archaeological and natural values. In the panorama of national parks this represents an atypical case due to the discontinuity of the areas included in its perimeter. The goal of the study is to investigate any progression for the abandoned mining sites which have benefited from recovery works since the institution of the Park, to record which were subsequently reconverted to new use and transformed into product, to register methods of management and financing, strategies in promotion, visitors per year and amount of human resources occupied.

METHODOLOGY

In order to understand which abandoned mining sites were eventually recovered and used for tourist purposes, I started with a desk analysis, by examining the main documents elaborated for or by the Park, focusing on the Socio-Economic Plan laid out by CRENoS (Centre for the North South Economic Research). Subsequently, I compared data of the Socio-Economic Plan (2008) with data on the official web site of the Park (<http://www.parcogeominerario.eu/>) (2017), in order to register any advances or changes. Finally I proceeded with a field analysis through direct interviews and visits, phone calls, mail enquiries to stakeholders with the aim of checking the current status of the Park and verify the reliability of the information collected.

FINDINGS

Open sites/products - Focusing only on the sites that in 2008 (year of drafting of the socio economic plan) were open to the public and taking into account only those used for tourism and museum activities which included a guided tour, and as such can be defined ‘touristic product’, the Plan identified 13 assets in 8 Municipalities. Nowadays, 9 years later, the official website reports in the Park 54 assets in the area of 27 Municipalities, 19 of them are presented as “visitable” in the territory of 14 Municipalities. Comparing these first data, we register a growth of 6 assets involving 6 more Municipalities compared to 2008.

Nevertheless, after the conclusion of a lengthy desk analysis, we find that the information on the official page of the Park is unclear, some assets reported as “visitable” cannot be referred to as ‘tourist product’, some is out-of-date, the website fails to include some places that are open and visitable (such as the Museum of Su Suergiu in Villasalto, that was already included in the Plan).

After many visits to museums and mining villages/sites and interviews over 6 months, the results of my research leads me to state that there are currently 17 open sites (between museums and sites/mining villages) that can be defined as tourist products, as they are managed by companies with guided tours and a ticket system, in the territory of 9 Municipalities. We must specify that 4 assets that have been closed in the last years, may re-open shortly.

Method of management and financing - The site management mode is totally fragmented both with regard to financing conditions and legal composition. The Park Authority does not have in its possession, ownership or other titles, no portion of the territory of competence, in essence it does not directly manage any of the sites; however, it represents a non-profit association with the Municipality of Carbonia: the Italian Center of Culture of Coal and with the Municipality of Narcao: Rosas Mining Association. Both of these are examples of excellence for different reasons: providing an annual opening, recording the largest inflow of visitors, additional services such as accommodation, bookshop, bar or restaurant. The majority of the mines have been entrusted to Igea Spa, an in-house company of Sardinia Region as a legal entity operating in the activity of the safeguarding, environmental restoration and remediation of mining areas which have been abandoned or held for sale. In recent years we are witnessing the passage of the ownership of the assets from Igea to the Municipalities. The ownership of the other sites can be attributed to Municipalities and are managed by cooperatives or cultural associations with different kinds of financing.

Visitors per year and human resources - the average for the 17 assets reaches around 91.017 thousand visits per year, and employs around 73 people, the number may change depending on the number of visitors and increases in high season.

Promotion - each museum, mining site/village has its own ways for promoting its resources, as the Geo-Park website performs only an institutional role, it is static and written solely in Italian, none of the places presented are linkable and no information on opening hours and prices are provided.

CONCLUSIONS

Since the institution of the Park in 2001, and the drafting of the Socio-Economic Plan from 2008 until 2017, we have registered both advancements and regressions, because we have witnessed new openings as well as closing of pre-existing places. So if we compare the 13 places/products that were open in 2008 and the 17 that are open now in 2017, it appears that there has been a growth of 4, but if we take into account the 4 places that may re-open in the near future and that have been reconverted for tourist use, we record an interesting growth of 8.

Nevertheless, the heterogeneity of management, the lack of an integrated network and a consequent fragmentation of communication, reduce the potential of the Park as an opportunity in the tourist market as a niche product. At the moment I am analyzing mining parks belonging to the UNESCO Circuit, looking for features similar to the Sardinian one, to identify a management model that will make the Park more valuable and make it a stronger tourist segment.

**FROM INDUSTRIAL HERITAGE TO LIVING INDUSTRY TOURISM.
AN EXPLORATIVE STUDY IN ITALY**

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Abstract

In the last decades industrial heritage sites emerged as alternative tourist destinations and their recovery was the key of relevant revitalization processes aimed at giving new opportunities to de-industrialized cities and regions. Despite the growing importance gained worldwide, industrial tourism still remains a relatively unexplored topic, lacking of a holistic and univocal definition. While some authors use the term mainly referring to visiting non-operational firms or industrial archaeology, a growing stream of literature also included visits to living industries as a part of a more comprehensive concept. Through an explorative study in Italy, the paper highlights the complexity of the industrial tourism, focusing on factory tours as a powerful tool for the valorisation of productive traditions that still survive. Specifically, we used a multiple case study research to investigate how industrial heritage and visits to active companies may enhance the tourist attractiveness of cities and regions, highlighting also the effects that this alternative tourist experience may produce on corporate image and identity.

Keywords: industrial tourism, factory tour, industrial heritage

1. Introduction

In the past decades industrial tourism offered important opportunities to many declining communities of the industrialized world, bringing new hope to the ghost towns that were born from the crisis of heavy industries and suddenly become alternative travel destinations (Timothy, 2011). In this scenario, indeed, the so-called industrial archaeology attracted a growing interest (Hospers, 2002) and its valorization became an important tool for enhancing the quality of life and contributing to socio-economic revitalization (Boros et al., 2013). One of the pioneering initiatives was undertaken in the birthplace of Industrial Revolution, Ironbridge, followed a few years later by the successful experience of Ruhr region in Germany, that also inspired many other regions, up to the formalization of the European Route of Industrial Heritage (ERIH), a tourism information network including more than 1,000 industrial heritage sites distributed among 43 countries. Prominent examples of world-wide known attractions deriving from post-industrial reconversion are also the London's Tate Modern, opened in 2000 in a old power plant closed in 1982, and the Musée d'Orsay in Paris, housed in a former railway station dating back to the 19th century.

Despite the interest of scholars, practitioners and policymakers, more comprehensive research on industrial tourism is still needed, in order to conceptualize it as a distinct form of travel. In fact, different definitions and concepts are adopted, depending on geographical contexts and types of interlocutors (Otgaar *et al.*, 2010). In those countries that can be considered as the forerunners of the phenomenon, many authors focused on industrial archaeological tourism, that is the visit to former industrial sites where testimonies of collective past can be found in forms that are made attractive for tourists (Zilli and Minguzzi, 2015). According to a wider definition adopted in a more recent stream of literature, both former and still active industrial sites can be included in the broad field of industrial tourism attractions (Boros et al., 2013). Moving from industrial archaeology, the concept of industrial tourism has been gradually expanded to include corporate museums and archives, science parks but also factory tours aimed at witnessing production processes in real time (Xie, 2015). Focusing on "living industry", this relatively new form of tourism addresses the needs

of post-modern consumers, in search for experiences rather than for mere destinations (Savoja, 2011). In this perspective, living companies may attract different types of tourists interested for several reasons to understand “how things work” (Mitchell and Mitchell, 2001) and offer a particular view on production processes and traditions that are at the core centre of local culture. Even being a powerful tool for both territories and enterprises, living industry tourism has not been included adequately in a wider scheme of industrial tourism and a holistic framework able to link industrial sites to local identity and collective memories seems to be still lacking. Our study, focused in Italy, aims to explore how factory tours can be used in order to link the creativity and quality of production processes with new kinds of tourist experience. Specifically, we used a multiple case study research to investigate how visits to living companies may enhance new uses of industrial heritage aimed at reclaiming local identity and improving place image.

In the following sections, we present the theoretical background and methodology of the research, then we discuss the main evidences emerging from the case studies; finally, we highlight the limitations and the conclusions of our study.

2. Theoretical background

Despite the growing interest emerged in the last decades towards industrial tourism, it still remains a relatively unexplored research topic (Otgaar et al., 2010). In particular, a univocal definition, encompassing all the aspects and forms of industrial tourism, is still missing and the meanings given to this term may vary significantly depending on the country. In Germany and France, for example, scholars normally associate the term with industrial heritage, intended as the complex of testimonies of the industrial past hosted in non-operational firms. In the same countries, indeed, visits to operational firms are identified with specific terms, such as *Werktourism* (factory tourism) in Germany or *visit d'enterprises* (company visits) in France. In line with the prevalent Anglo-Saxon literature, Frew (2000) separated the concept of industrial tourism from that of industrial

heritage tourism. In her view, «industrial tourism involves visits by tourists to operational industrial sites where the core activity of the site is non-tourism oriented», while industrial heritage tourism refers to visits to non-operational sites. Based on the initiatives undertaken in many declining industrial areas of the European Union, a number of scholars associated industrial heritage tourism with strategies of regional revitalization, highlighting its contribution to the preservation of a region's identity and the formation of local service activities and employment (Edwards and Llurdés, 1996; Hospers, 2002).

Beyond terminological issues, a consolidated stream of literature adopted a broader definition of industrial tourism, defined by Soyez (1986) as «every kind of movement that can be deduced to the appeal of either operational or former industrial system». According to Cole (2004), the preservation of industrial heritage allows a holistic approach to the valorization of the past, including not only physical remnants but also values, beliefs and social aspects influenced by local industrial activities. In her view «industrial heritage tourism offers a means through which to preserve, understand and celebrate this complex social legacy» enabling also local communities to connect with their past. In recent years, a growing attention has been paid to understand how industrial heritage can be exploited for tourism and integrated with contemporary working life (Xie, 2015). As pointed out by Otgaar *et al.* (2010), «industrial tourism involves visits to sites that enable visitors to learn about economic activities in the past, the present and the future». Accordingly, this type of tourism may address the need for authentic and unique experiences expressed by a growing segment of tourism market. The educational function of industrial tourism is highlighted by Chen and Morrison (2004), who defined it «as a type of tourism provided by interpreting industrial activities for the enjoyment and education of visitors. The activities can be interpreted by company plants and sites, production lines, equipment, materials, and products. The enjoyment and education are gained through touring and experiencing the industrial sites». In a similar vein, Mitchell and Mitchell (2001) focused on consumer experience tourism as a powerful tool used to strengthen the bond between consumers and brands. In their study on food and beverage producers, they

investigate how plant tours, company museums and company visitor centers may be used «to satisfy the intellectual curiosity of consumers as well as creating personal bonds with consumers, employees, investors, local residents, and other stakeholders». It seems clear that in the broad definition of industrial tourism a growing space has been given to what Savoja (2011) defined “living tourism industry”, aimed at providing direct knowledge of processes and products typical of a local territory mainly through factory tours. Indeed, several authors outlined the need for a more inclusive scheme of industrial heritage tourism and proved how living industries may offer higher and more innovative forms of authenticity compared to the traditional heritage sites (Xie, 2015).

Compared to the pioneering European countries, only more recently Italy has paid adequate attention to industrial tourism both in terms of theoretical reflection and concrete development programs. In fact, the field has been investigated with a particular focus on corporate museums, considered as a precious instrument to preserve collective memory of the past embedded in the industrial heritage (Amari, 1998). In recent years, corporate museums have attracted much scholarly attention within heritage marketing strategies and policies, aimed at valorizing historical and cultural legacies of long-lived companies (Gilodi, 2002; Montemaggi e Severino, 2007; Amari, 2010; Montella, 2010, 2012). Nevertheless, a more comprehensive view of industrial tourism is still lacking and the possible forms of integration between industrial heritage and living industries still need to be investigated. Among the research areas that are still in need of further investigation, we focused on factory tours with the main aim of understanding their potentialities and limits within the current offer of our country.

3. Methodology

In line with the objectives of the study, we adopted a qualitative methodology, with an in-depth analysis of initiatives aimed at promoting the development of industrial tourism, mainly through factory tours. Since our aim was to investigate how industrial heritage and visits to operational

companies may enhance the tourist attractiveness of cities and regions, we focused on organizational frameworks adopted in coordinated initiatives undertaken in Italy. In this direction, we used a multiple-case study approach in order to explore theoretical constructs and relationships that are not yet well defined in literature (Yin, 1994) thanks to an in-depth and comparative analysis. In order to select the case studies to be included in the study, we first realized a desk-analysis aimed at identifying structured initiatives, that is formal or informal networks of public and private operators that collaborate for the development of industrial tourism. Finally, we identified four case studies worthy of interest, that also guaranteed the ease of access to key people available for interviewing purposes. Specifically, we chose four initiatives, each with a specific organizational framework, that were quite different concerning several aspects: geographic area; number, size and industry of companies involved; nature of actors and organizations responsible for the coordination activities (public or private); evolution stage of the overall project.

Case study research was realized by integrating primary and secondary data. Primary data were collected through semi-structured interviews with actors responsible for planning and implementation of each initiative, along with direct observation and visits to some of the involved firms. In two cases the interviews were conducted face-to-face, in one case we interviewed our informant via Skype and in one case we conducted a telephonic interview. Interviews were recorded and then transcribed. Additional secondary information were obtained through the websites of every circuit. After analysing the nature of every initiative, focusing on the role of private and public actors and further external factors in enhancing industrial tourism, we identified similarities and differences among the four cases. The main characteristics of each initiative and the results of the case-studies analysis are presented in the following section.

4. Case studies

The four analysed case studies are: *Made in Torino*, *Made in Padova*, *Made in Piemonte*, *Tu non conosci il Sud!* (Table 1).

A brief description of each case study is provided below and is aimed to highlight some specific characteristics of the four initiatives, such as origins and purposes, coordinated scheme of factory tours, number and sector of involved companies, main results and future perspectives.

Made in Torino

The project was launched in 2005 by the Chamber of Commerce of Turin in collaboration with *Turismo Torino*, the local tourism promotion agency, and the Province of Torino. Originally, the project was part of a wider territorial strategy aimed at promoting the image of Turin as a European metropolis able to compete successfully in the knowledge economy, at the dawn of the Winter Olympics to be hosted in 2006. Since its foundation, *Made in Torino* was focused on the organization of visits to companies representing the excellence of local manufacturing industries. At the beginning, only few large enterprises were involved, that belonged to the automotive sector (Fiat, Iveco, New Holland), car and industrial design sector (Giugiaro, Pininfarina, Gufran) and writing instruments sector (Aurora, Lecce pen). In subsequent years, several other companies joined the programme, including enterprises in the aerospace, textile sector and other important food and beverage producers, such as Lavazza (coffee), Martini & Rossi (alcoholic beverages), Albergian (gastronomic specialties), Caffarel (chocolate). Several companies from pottery, cosmetics, textile and publishing sectors are also part of the current offer, which included in 2016 42 companies (with 36 being available also for individual tours).

The objectives of this initiative are clarified by our informant, that in the last years has been working to tourist offer development of *Turismo Torino e Provincia*: «*Made in Torino* deals with living tourism industry, it was born with seven companies with the main purpose of changing the image of the city: Turin has always been seen as a grey and sad industrial city, so it has been a

challenge to turn this “grayness” into a new part of the tourist offer». Therefore, the strong industrial identity of Turin was the starting point of this project, that targets not only tourists - specifically second or third time visitors who want to see something different from the classic tourist attractions – but also residents, that are invited to experience the productive excellences of their city and province. The originality of the initiative lies on the attention paid to the calendarization of factory tours, that allows single visitors to join a guided tour event without being part of a group. Pre-arranged tours normally leave from the city centre and include bus transportation, insurance and a guide service. The involved companies do not pay, but also do not receive any money, and normally handle visits with ad hoc staff. The local agency *Turismo Torino*, along with inducing companies to open their doors to visitors, deals with the overall organization of factory tours and is responsible for communication and marketing activities. Until 2013 the project was co-financed by the Chamber of Commerce, that due to public administration reforms in the last years have considerably reduced their tasks. Promotion activities are mainly realized through the website of *Turismo Torino* and on-site advertising since, as highlighted by the interviewed person, «this type of tourism is normally not the main purpose of the trip, we have always believed that people get to know the initiative during their stay».

During the first decade of activity, the initiative produced significant results, with a number of visitors that grew from 278 in 2005 to 4,171 in 2016. Nevertheless, a deeper analysis of these results showed that tourists represent a very low percentage of the overall number of visitors, that are mainly residents of Piedmont region. This is not completely in contrast with the objectives of the project, that was also aimed to transmit the cultural value of the local industrial tradition to all categories of stakeholders, including internal “customers”. In this sense, our interlocutor stated that «a product officially becomes touristic only if it is known by local people», but also admitted that «this maturation of the product has taken away space and places for tourists», thus limiting the development of the initiative. A possible solution could be to increase the number and frequency of factory tours, but this could also have a negative impact on the quality of the service, based on an

effective coordination with the involved companies. According to the interviewee, in fact, «the project is the result of a constant relationships building (...) companies trust our organization and *Made in Torino* has for sure a privileged link with them». In order to develop and better differentiate the present offer of industrial tourism, the project will be soon managed through outsourcing, therefore a public tender will be launched in the next few months in order to identify a tour operator able to meet the specific needs of different target markets.

Made in Padova

The project derived from an idea of the Chamber of Commerce of Padova, that in 2009 launched a call for the creation of a special magazine, aimed at telling the stories of all the associated companies. As highlighted by our interlocutor, that is one the people currently in charge of the initiative, the original idea had no commercial purposes, but just wanted to give voice to the involved companies, invited to tell in a few pages how they had achieved and maintained success.

Originally only 8 companies joined the project, that has rapidly grown and currently involves 44 medium and large companies from different sectors: food (among the others, Birra Antoniana, Asiago food and Bertelli), home automation, construction and electrical components, furniture (among the others, the well-known LAGO), fashion (one is the famous brand O-bag).

Today *Made in Padova* operates under the direct responsibility of Confindustria Padova (that is the local section of the Confederation of Italian industry) and is the main promoter of regional industrial tourism. Furthermore, it supports the internationalization of the involved companies and the valorisation of local productive excellences. Born as a magazine focused on associated firms' activities, *Made in Padova* has become also an award, called "Design Made in Padova" and organized to encourage the participation of new companies. Every year the Award is dedicated to a specific sector; along with publications, digital tools - such as short movies realized with entrepreneurs and workers during the production process - are used to stimulate the interest of potential visitors.

In this case, factory tours organized and promoted through the common project are directed to business groups and schools. As pointed out by the interviewee, «the owners are proud to host entrepreneurs that operate in the same sector». Therefore, plant tours emerge as an instrument for valorising and promoting business culture, rather than as a tourist product. In most cases, business groups invited to visit companies are hosted by Confindustria, so guided tours are normally free. However, a list of companies available for individual visits is provided by *Made in Padova*, but they must be contacted directly by the interested people. Companies involved in the project *Made in Padova* open their doors during the so-called “Fabbriche Aperte” Days, special occasions to welcome visitors and celebrate the productive traditions of the territory. In this case, the organization adopts a restricted concept of factory tours and industrial tourism, that is only to create or strengthen a bond with other enterprises and professionals. According to the interviewee, «the visit also works if it is organized for promoting entrepreneurial culture in the schools, as a means to communicate the cultural heritage enclosed in the companies, or among entrepreneurs, to share knowledge and strategic lines». *Made in Padova* also promotes visits to regional corporate museums and shopping tours to outlets.

In 2016 factory tours targeting business groups and schools involved 1,200 visitors, while 2,000 people visited local companies during “Fabbriche Aperte” days. Results regarding individual factory tours organized through direct contacts with the available companies were not measured by *Made in Padova*. Since the potential of factory tours for tourism and territorial development has significantly emerged, the project will be soon opened to other targets, such as families and individuals.

Made in Piemonte

The project was born from a wider European programme involving Italy and Switzerland in 2012. The public institution responsible for its implementation was Regione Piemonte, which delegated Unioncamere to contact and involve local companies. Compared to other initiatives, *Made in*

Piemonte is distinguished by territorial extension, number and size of companies (mainly small ones) involved on all regional territory, even if Turin and its province do not participate as they have their own organization. As highlighted by the person that we met to talk about the initiative, the main aim of the project is «to promote factory tour among local companies, as an instrument that attract visitors interested in typical local products». Visits are directed both to individuals (tourists and local residents) and groups. Unioncamere collaborated with Confindustria Piemonte in order to create the network of companies to be involved in the project. Once identified, the companies were carefully examined in order to verify whether there were all the conditions to offer the best experience to visitors. Mailander, a local agency with a high experience in territorial marketing was chosen after a public tender to promote the overall initiative and give training courses to companies' staff. Local tourist agencies (ATL) received from the Region the tasks of managing relationships with the companies and promoting the initiative through the website, tourism magazines, social networks and conferences. In 2015 *Made in Piemonte* involved 80 small companies belonging to several sectors: textile (especially handicraft production of wool and cachemire), food and wine, design and craftsmanship (including producers of accordions and harps), floriculture and even a hydroelectric power plant. Price strategy is differentiated and depends on the nature and location of the companies. In most “southern” provinces factory tours are free and visitors must pay only for tastings; in the other cases, anyway, a symbolic price of around 5 € is applied. The characteristics of plant tours may vary depending on company's location, since different organizational frameworks emerge in each province. However, the project included the realization of a handbook, in which the procedures and phases of the visit were formalized. The lack of funds to local tourist agencies, that until 2015 were intermediaries between companies and visitors, determined significant changes. The website of *Made in Piemonte* and the funny app created by Mailander remained the only way to find available companies, that at the moment must be contacted directly for booking the visit. Local tourist agencies were in charge for monitoring the initiative and also for verifying visitors' satisfaction, but due to the difficulties of the last two years

these information were not available at the moment of the interview. Beyond the quantitative data, the interviewee talked about the great relevance of the initiative, that made companies aware of the value deriving from living tourism industry. In her view, «it is a means to strengthen the links with local actors and create strong bonds with customers, because it creates empathy; furthermore, factory tours can be an additional source of income when there is a factory outlet». Our interlocutor also recognized several benefits for the territory: «you may create a kind of sentimental bond! The possibility to visit the company, in particular for local residents, determines a relationship based on fidelity and trust towards the company itself, but mostly on pride, it strengthens citizens' conscience and their link with the territory».

Made in Piemonte is experiencing a critical phase because it is strictly dependent on Unioncamere, whose competences on tourism have been significantly restricted by the latest reforms. In this scenario, it is difficult to predict future developments of the programme, but our interviewee pointed out that «we really hope that *Made in Piemonte* will survive, because its value for companies and the territory is undeniable».

Tu non conosci il Sud!

Among the analysed initiatives, this is the only one located in Southern Italy, specifically in Puglia region. The project was officially launched in 2012 on initiative of Neopatt, a social promotion association located in Lecce and made up of young entrepreneurs who had previously won a call for innovative business ideas. The promoters of the initiative, all working in the field of tourism and hospitality, were able to create a network of companies and registered a collective brand named precisely “Tu non conosci il Sud!”. As stated by one of the young entrepreneurs, «during our work we had noticed the need of tourists visiting our territory to live experiences other than traditional Salento's tourist offer, such as seaside tourism or visits to artistic and historical treasures. We gathered their desire to get in touch with local population». The programme benefited from the support of the Region, that in the last decade has been significantly investing on tourism.

Furthermore, *Tu non conosci il Sud!* collaborated with several organizations with a longer experience in the development of industrial tourism, such as *Made in Torino*, AIPAI (that is the Italian association for industrial archaeological heritage), Southern Salento museum system and other local institutions. The programme was born with the main aim of organizing industrial tourism itineraries and factory tours for individuals and groups. Nevertheless, the overall aim became the creation of a network that also included companies offering services and facilities necessary for making factory tours accessible. The need for cooperation among the numerous and small local operators was a crucial point of the programme, that also involved two tour operators for the distribution and promotion of guided tours to small agri-food and handicraft factories. As highlighted by our interlocutor, «the idea of a collective brand was born with the intention of facing supply's disaggregation, providing entrepreneurs and artisans with the tools necessary to compete successfully on tourist market, and accompanying them in terms of promotion and commercialization of their products». The programme is intended to promote “sustainable and responsible experiences” that allow visitors to discover local productive traditions, avoiding waste of resources and negative impact on the territory. Cultural identity of the territory, that also reflects in its manufacturing base, is a central theme of tourist offer organized by *Tu non conosci il Sud!*, that currently counts six small manufacturing companies and seven companies operating in service sectors (such as transportation, restaurants, tourism promotion). Specifically, manufacturing companies are very small enterprises, mostly family-owned, and artisanal laboratories, including a mill, a bakery, artistic ceramics and textile laboratories. During guided tours, normally organized on the basis of a calendar and defined depending on companies' availability, visitors are invited to participate to manufacturing activities, living a unique experience that also includes tastings and a special gift. Prices may vary depending on services included in the visit and are normally around 10/12 €. After the good results achieved in the first two years of activity, when an average of 250 people visited small companies that had never experienced this type of tourism, the project has not continued to grow, mostly because of opportunistic behaviours aimed at organizing independently

factory tours. Nevertheless, people that are still responsible for the project do not want to give up and are looking for new form of cooperation in the field of art and music, since they are sure that this initiative may still produce social and benefits for the entire local community.

Table 1. Brief description of the case studies

Name of the initiative	Geographical extension	Promoter subject	N. of involved companies	Services	Target	Results
Made in Torino	Local (city and province)	Public	42	- Booking - Transport - Professional guide - Additional services on request	-individual tourists and residents -business groups -schools	4,171 visitors in 2016
Made in Padova	Local (city and province)	Private	44	- List of companies available for visits - Editorial and consulting services to firms (movies and publications)	- business groups - schools (individual tourists and residents only during “Fabbriche Aperte” days)	1,200 visitors in 2016
Made in Piemonte	Regional	Public	80	-Website and app to find companies available for visits -Transport (only in some provinces)	- individual tourists and residents - business groups -schools	Not available
Tu non conosci il Sud!	Regional	Private	13	- Booking - Transport - Additional services (catering and accommodation when requested)	- tourists (individuals and groups)	Around 340 visitors (in 2014, last data available)

4. Discussion and implications

The analysis of the four described initiatives highlighted several differences in terms of organizational frameworks that can be adopted to promote industrial tourism. In all cases, coordination among several actors emerges as a central element for ensuring the development of industry living tourism. In each case, factory tour takes on a specific role for the development of industrial tourism, but in all initiatives it is perceived as one of the most complete and engaging experiences regarding a product, its productions process and historical significance. As highlighted by many authors (Mitchell and Mitchell, 2001; Savoja, 2011), “living the company” even if for a

very short time may facilitate the creation of a special bond with visitors, producing significant effects in terms of trust and brand loyalty. Despite the potential of factory tour as an instrument for enhancing competitiveness of both cities and firms, involving local actors in programmes aimed at structuring the offer of living industry tourism is not an easy task. In most cases, as highlighted by our analysis, the success of initiatives is linked to the proactiveness of promoters, that are often public institutions responsible for tourist development strategies. In these cases, one of the hardest phases of the project consists in engaging companies, whose interests may not converge with tourist development. In fact, as argued by Savoja (2011), in most cases companies open their doors for purposes that have nothing to do with tourism but instead are focused on company and brand image, product promotion and sale, corporate social responsibility and education. The last two motivations emerge as a common ground on which to build relationships among local actors, including companies interested to affirm their role towards various categories of stakeholders, that is not only current customers but also local communities and institutions. Furthermore, factory tour seems to be an essential vehicle to promote products characterized by strong territorial features, such as wine and other agri-food products. As pointed out by Napolitano and Marino (2015), companies and territorial areas are no longer producers of goods and services, but producers of stories and experiences. In this perspective, factory tour becomes a means to take customers (and tourists) where those stories and experiences were born, thus contributing to the valorization of cultural identity of companies and territories. It is no coincidence if three out of four initiatives had in their names a clear reference to the place-specific heritage hold in production processes and traditions that visitors may discover inside the companies. Our data seem to show clearly that each initiative of industrial tourism reflects local industrial base along with the nature of incoming tourist flows. Significant differences emerged in terms of integrated services, prices and booking systems. In the cases of Turin and Salento, along with a calendar of factory tours the programme includes other services that enrich the tourist experience; in the case of Piemonte, along with guided factory tours, only transportation is offered to visitors coming from the nearby areas; in the case of Padova, there

is not a structured offer of living tourism, while periodicals and short movies on productive activities are offered to the involved companies. Therefore, some differences emerged also with reference to the targets of each initiative. In *Made in Torino* and *Made in Piemonte* the programme was directed to several targets of individuals and groups, including residents, tourists and students. *Tu non conosci il Sud* focused on tourists and, only in a few cases, to students. *Made in Padova* targeted mainly business groups, including professionals, entrepreneurs and journalists, but also students. This is consistent with other studies (Otgaar *et al.*, 2010), that highlighted how public initiators and tourism organizations tend to define broader target groups, since they are more interested in visitor numbers, no matter what kind of visitors arrive. Nevertheless, as shown in the case of Turin, the objective of the initiative often deals with strengthening the image of a city or a region towards external but also internal stakeholder. This means promoting the involvement of operational firms in order to valorize those attributes of local identity that are strictly connected with productive culture, traditions and creativity. Therefore, factory tours seem to be a day trip option for local residents but also for students and younger people, who may enjoy the cultural value connected with discovering the roots of historical productions. Furthermore, as emerged in the case of *Tu non conosci il Sud!*, visits to small manufacturer producing handicraft goods – with the possibility to participate directly to production processes - may offer a unique tourist experience, that addresses the need for active forms of tourism and creates a kind of nostalgia towards those traditions that the shift to a service economy has totally removed. However, firms seem to have understood the importance of opening their doors not only to create a commercial bond with business groups and customers, but also to build relationships with all the other stakeholders whose opinion may be determinant for the construction of a solid reputation. It must be considered that transforming an industrial site into an attraction for tourists and local people normally requires significant investments. Of course, the attractiveness of an industrial tourism product mainly depends on the company and its products. As revealed by our investigation, in fact, tourists have a special interest in visiting manufacturing firms that produce goods with a symbolic

value for a specific region, based on old or fascinating production processes. Anyway, investing in digital equipment and professional guides, firms can make more attractive their visits, combining leisure and learning for a more exiting tourist experience.

As suggested by several authors, industrial heritage and living industries generally do not represent *per se* a push factor able to arouse the desire for travel in the potential tourist (Savoja, 2011). Moreover, industrial tourism is normally a short break phenomenon, addressed to a niche of market that is often saturated by standard tourist attractions (Otgaar *et al.*, 2010). In this line of thought, the development of industrial tourism is strongly influenced by several factors. Specifically, the presence of “classic” tourist attractions such as beautiful landscapes, famous monuments or events can make of industrial tourism sites an interesting alternative for short-time visits or even create more appeal for second time visitors. Furthermore, as highlighted especially in the case of *Made in Torino*, major tourist destinations normally offer all kinds of services (transport, accommodation, entertainment and so on) that may also contribute to make living industry more accessible and attractive. Therefore, even if it is difficult to imagine that industrial heritage and living industry may attract tourists and make them reach specific places, their best integration into the overall tourism supply may represent a big opportunity both for cities and firms.

The thirst for knowledge and the curiosity that characterize postmodern customers and tourists represent at the same time a big challenge and a unique opportunity for those firms that will be ready to open their doors. Nevertheless, factory tours must be seen only as a part of a more inclusive scheme of industrial tourism, able to combine living industry and industrial heritage in order to offer a unique learning and cultural experience to different segments of market. In this perspective, corporate museums and visitor centres may represent a bridge between the past and the present, the space where technological and scientific progress achieved over time by companies can be told to local and guest communities without revealing those secrets that must be kept inside corporate buildings.

5. Concluding remarks

This is only a preliminary study and, as such, has some limitations regarding the bounded number and the nature of case studies, that prevented us from generalizing our results. However, our study raises a wealth of interesting questions to be explored in further research, regarding several factors that may enhance or prevent the development of an inclusive scheme of industrial tourism. In order to better understand how living industry tourism may contribute to improve both the attractiveness of a territory and the image of local companies, it could be helpful to provide a detailed exploration of the views of entrepreneurs, visitors and policy makers. Of course, our results have also revealed a definite need for more investigations both within and beyond Italy, that will be achieved through further cross-case analysis in the next phase of our research.

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Tourist flows and museum admissions in Italy: an integrated analysis

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ABSTRACT

Culture is one of the strengths of the Italian tourism, and it is growing mainly in the international markets, compensating the crisis or the “maturity” of other traditional tourism activities (IRTS, 2008).

In Italy cultural heritage have been handled with little attention to the market and only in the recent period, it is starting to discuss about so-called “economy of the Culture”, as a real engine of income, business, employment and local development.

Culture definitely may represent a fundamental opportunity of our economy, in fact, in areas where cultural heritage tourism are well organized and managed, results are tangible and are from every point of view. To describe the path that from the historical-cultural heritage leads to an economically profitable tourist use it was coined in France a term derived from “mise en valeur”: the concept of “mise en tourisme” (M.Freedman, T.Antil & J.P.Gagnon, “De la mise en valeur du patrimoine au développement durable”, *Téoros*, 30-2|2011,124-127).

Being a relatively new phenomenon, there is no an established system of statistics and indicators to monitor it.

The main aim of this paper is to analyze the cultural tourism in Italy by the relation between tourism statistics and cultural statistics. Data used for this study mainly derive from the official surveys produced by Istat (Italian National Institute for Statistics): “Capacity and Occupancy in accommodation establishments” and “Museums and other cultural institutions”.

Through a georeferenced approach, mapping the variables on tourism (arrivals and bed places) and culture (museums/cultural exhibits and admissions) at Italian municipality level with reference to the year 2015, the analysis allows to identify well-defined geographical areas having significant different tourism and cultural characteristics.

It is proposed a system for categorize the Italian territory in order to identify the areas with the greatest cultural-tourism vocation, those having greatest potential for development and those with more international appeal, focusing on the most explanatory case studies.

Keywords: Italy, heritage, cultural tourism, museums, occupancy and capacity in accommodation establishments.

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**DETERMINATION OF GASTRONOMIC TOURISM CHARACTERISTICS OF
GAZIANTEP PROVINCE AS A UNESCO CREATIVE CITIES NETWORK**

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DETERMINATION OF GASTRONOMIC TOURISM CHARACTERISTICS OF GAZIANTEP PROVINCE AS A UNESCO CREATIVE CITIES NETWORK

In this study, Gaziantep province is associated with UNESCO Creative Cities Network as a gastronomic tourism destination, and in this context is aimed to identify the main gastronomic tourism characteristics. The UNESCO Creative Cities Network is currently formed by 116 members from 54 countries covering seven creative fields: Crafts and Folk Art, Design, Film, Literature, Music, Media Arts and Gastronomy. Destinations must have certain characteristics in order to be included in the UNESCO Creative Cities Network as a gastronomic city. First, it is important to have advanced culinary and gastronomic cultures that reflect the characteristics of the region. It is also necessary to have gastronomic communities in the region that have many restaurants or chefs. Local ingredients should be used in the preparation of local food/cuisine. Moreover, local gastronomic events such as festivals, competitions, conferences should be organized in the region. Local food, farmers' markets or the local food industry must be active. Finally, the region needs to have various elements such as encouraging and promoting sustainable local products.

In this network, there are 18 gastronomic cities and one of these cities is the province of Gaziantep. For this reason, Gaziantep province was determined as a study area. The qualitative research approach was utilized in this study. Document analysis was used as data collection technique and content analysis was used as data analysis technique. The document was browsed on the internet from 5 May to 9 June 2016. These documents have been provided by searching websites using various keywords such as Gaziantep City of Gastronomy, Gaziantep Gastronomy City, Gaziantep UNESCO City, UNESCO Gaziantep Cuisine, UNESCO Gaziantep Gastronomy City and Gaziantep Local Food. In this context, 39 documents have been reviewed. According to the findings, it is seen that the gastronomic tourism characteristics of the province of Gaziantep consist of four main categories and thirteen subcategories. The main categories have emerged as gastronomic identity, gastronomic

attractions, destination competitiveness and qualified labor. The main category of gastronomic attraction includes buildings, events or activities, and organizations. There are marketing, promotion and branding categories in the main category of destination competitiveness. Finally, sub-categories of training of cooks, training of service personnel, training of restaurant managers or operators, and specialization of producers are creating the main categories of a qualified labor force.

Keywords: UNESCO, Creative Cities, Gaziantep, Gastronomy, Gastronomy Tourism Characteristics

Evolving model of the implementation of Revenue Management (2005-2015)

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Evolving model of the implementation of Revenue Management (2005-2015)

Extended Abstract

This research means to globally, or as a whole, analyse which variables influence the implementation of Revenue Management and if this evolves as the process of implementation advances.

To do so, from a process of reviewing the bibliography we identified, on the one hand, the variables which can have an influence on this process and, on the other hand, those which reflect its implementation. We divided them between aspects related with Capacity management and Demand management.

As variables influencing the implementation of Revenue Management, we selected the Size of the establishment (number of rooms), Belonging to a hotel chain, the implementation of Revenue Management and the use of specific software for its administration, as well as possible relations between them. All in all we verified the repercussion of these aspects on 13 variables related with Demand management and 13 with Capacity management linked to the implementation of Revenue Management.

To analyse the joint behaviour of the variables and identify those which really have a significant influence on the dimensions of the study, we used variance-based Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). With the aim of analysing the evolution in the behaviour of the variables, we carried out measurements at two distinct moments in time (2005 and 2015), with a 10-year difference.

The study was done with a population of 4- and 5-star hotels in the city and province of Seville, which is one of the reference destinations for studies in Spain. This context is consistent with the descriptive requirements proposed for the research. With this aim, to compile the data we used a questionnaire with interviews which enabled both to guarantee a greater level of response and to have relevant information for a better explanation of the results obtained.

The results confirm that in a period of 10 years there has been an evolution in the applicability of Revenue Management which has affected the definition of the Demand and Capacity construct. Nowadays, all companies state that they have implemented Revenue Management. There is a greater knowledge of the demand variables and a big change in the measurement of the capacity dimension, including more indicators in recent times.

We can state that at the beginning what best represents the behaviour of Capacity is the Size of the hotel while the Demand dimension is best explained by the Belonging to a chain. In recent times, the latter is the most significant in explaining the behaviour of both Demand and Capacity.

Revenue Management is more advanced and sophisticated in 2015, stemming from an evolution of the information systems used, as to carry out these operations the prior registering of the data is required. This usually depends on the performance of the software that includes the Property Management System, specific software for Revenue Management activities (Revenue Management Systems) and/or Revenue Management Tools.

The model allows the joint consideration of a great diversity of variables, showing those which have turned out to be more important in the early stages of implementing Revenue Management and those whose relevance increases in mature stages. Additionally the analysis at two moments in time with a 10-year time difference enables the identifying and noting of the innovations which have supported this evolving process. Both the analysis of the joint behaviour of the variables and the comparison of the results with a time difference are a novelty with respect to previous research.

Keywords

Revenue Management, implementation, model, evolution, hotel

DETERMINANTS OF TIME PRIOR RESERVATION THROUGH BOOKING.COM: A FIRST APPROACH

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DETERMINANTS OF TIME PRIOR RESERVATION THROUGH BOOKING.COM: A FIRST APPROACH

Extended Abstract

The present work aims to identify and sort, according to their relative importance, the variables that have an influence in time (months) prior reservation of rooms in an urban destination, using the data published by hoteliers in a web portal devoted to tourism intermediation.

Research is carried out within a Revenue Management framework, set of techniques that constitute the basis for all reservation systems operating at present time. Among them, capacity, availability and price management can be considered as core pillars. It has been proofed, that a majority of studies about distribution channels use price management as the main variable of study. Hoteliers publish their rates and availability about 360 days in advance. That is why, months prior reservation has been taken as the principal variable while the rest of variables are considered predictive, in a way that the determinants of supply in terms of time can be explored and thus, identify the most important variables for hoteliers when commercializing their hotel rooms.

Before data extraction, a complex sample had to be determined. Once the top urban destinations of Spain were selected and all their three, four and five-star hotels were identified and listed, the complex sample was calculated following a simple random sampling technique. The allocation of the sample by the two preferred strata -destination and hotel category- was implemented through proportional affixation to each strata size. The whole process ensures the extrapolation of the findings. Seville is found among the top urban destinations of Spain, according to several sources, and chosen for this first approach.

Data is extracted from Booking.com on the 20th January 2017 by means of queries to Booking.com, gathering information published by hotels belonging to the sample for that day and the following 360. The data base is completed with other relevant variables.

The study considers the next variables: months of advance, hotel name, weekday of the query, type of room on offer, hotel category, number of hotel rooms, number of overnight stays (length of stay) of the query, PAX of the query, requested meal plan, cancelation policy, room price, left rooms available.

The data set is formed by 223,573 cases. Before the prediction models were built, a random partition of the cases was carried out, dividing them into two subsets: training (70%) and test (30%). The technique Random Forest is used for data classification and as a result, a correct classification of 43.02% of the cases is obtained.

The results show that the most accurate classification corresponds to the months from January to May and from October to November, coinciding with the high season of the destination. This fact proves a similar behavior of hoteliers concerning the published information of their offer for those dates.

Price is the variable with the highest influence in time prior reservation opposed to the hotel category, which has the lowest significance. Hotel name is the second variable in importance, which reflects that hoteliers behavior is significantly different compared to each other. After this two, there is a set of variables with a similar influence on the dependent one studied: left rooms available, weekday and number of hotel rooms. The rest of the variables with an influence, have a lower level of impact.

The current findings reveal that the predictive variables could remain concealed or left in the background and hence, they lead to an interest of broadening the present study with further research.

Acknowledgements: this research is being carried out with the participation of the company BEONPRICE.

Keywords

Revenue Management, distribution channels, time prior reservation, determinants, random forest

**AIRBNB LANDLORDS AND PRICE STRATEGY: HAVE THEY LEARNT PRICE DISCRIMINATION
FROM HOTELS? EVIDENCE FROM BARCELONA**

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ABSTRACT

The hospitality industry is facing a major disruption as a consequence of Airbnb and similar services. Peer-to-peer platforms have increased the supply of accommodation at lower prices than the traditional hotel sector. The consequence of this new form of competition has been a drop on hotels' profitability. In this context research on the effect of these platforms have included understanding consumers' behaviour and how firms in the traditional accommodation industry must act to preserve its profitability. This research is the first one that has compared temporary price discrimination applied by hotels and landlords using Airbnb. A sample of hotels and apartments from Barcelona, the fourth most visited city in Europe has been used. The empirical results conclude that price discrimination comparing low season prices and peak of demand season prices are similar in hotels and Airbnb apartments; landlords have learnt to apply similar revenue management. Prices applied comparing weekday's prices and weekend prices show interesting differences between Airbnb and hotels. A second objective of the research has been to test if online reputation, measured by average valuation at Tripadvisor and Booking is important in increasing the hotels' capacity to apply higher prices. The main conclusion of this paper is that online reputation can help hotels to apply higher prices and reduce the need for lower prices in the low demand season. Finally, the online reputation show not significant impact in apartments' prices, Airbnb users base their decision on price and location. These findings can be relevant for managers in defining optimum pricing policies and the profitability on investing in quality.

This empirical research analyses the impact of perceived quality in pricing differences according to seasonality. Upper-scale hotels show less difference comparing peak and low

season prices than do middle-scale hotels. Airbnb landlords discriminate prices according to seasonality, but contrary to the hotels, there are generally no differences between weekday and weekend pricing. Perceived quality seems to have a lower effect on prices for Airbnb apartments compared to the hotel industry, suggesting the idea of two clearly different business models.

Keywords: Dynamic pricing, Airbnb, service quality, lodging industry, customers' Internet valuation

Entrepreneurship and gastronomy as reinventing factors of old Bucharest city-center

Extended abstract

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Once with the post-communist transformation of Romania and its reinventing as a tourism destination opened towards the international tourism market, Bucharest has significantly increased, especially after 2000, its number of tourists both for business and for leisure purposes, gradually becoming a city break destination. Its main cultural attractions are concentrated in the old part of the city, being directly connected with the availability and sometimes lower prices of accommodation and catering services offered within this very dynamic area by the Romanian capital city.

Traditional dishes are often promoted within the tourism packages meant for incoming tourists and, consequently, should be displayed as a main element by restaurant units in this area. In this way less known Romanian culture is to be discovered and experienced by international tourists passing through Bucharest through its specific cuisine.

However Romanian traditional gastronomy is not a landmark anymore of Bucharest old city-center. The restaurants with national specific have been gradually replaced by fast food units or international restaurants which respond better to global tastes and international price standards of “travelers” on the one hand and to the needs of a more and more cosmopolite European capital city on the other hand. Bucharest restaurant area in the city center reflects to a great extent the tastes of outgoing Romanian tourists, used to travel after 1990 in important flows to certain abroad holiday destinations (e.g. Greece, Turkey) with powerful culinary traditions and which they consequently inserted in the autochthonous landscape. At the same time in order to answer the needs of international tourism demand almost all restaurant units within the area include traditional Romanian dishes in their menu. However the high general request for cheap fast food, manifested by the visitors of the Bucharest old city (most of them inhabitants appealing to catering services) and the need of restaurant units to increase their profit makes Romanian

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specific cuisine to lose its variety and in the end the competition with the global catering units and with the more elaborate and sometimes more expensive international gastronomy.

The main results of the study, supporting the above affirmations, are based on general observations and mapping of the food units within the historic center of Bucharest, on an extensive analysis of the menus of Romanian traditional restaurants located in the area and on the qualitative interpretation of the interviews with their staff representatives.

The built heritage and the recent entrepreneurship initiatives in the historic center of Bucharest as well as the increasing demand for catering services, manifested by incoming tourists passing through the central part of the Romanian capital city, increased the importance of traditional gastronomy for this area and made from it an element of tourist satisfaction and even of destination promotion.

Key words: Bucharest, old city center, gastronomy, incoming tourists

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GROWTH OF YOUNG TOURISM COMPANIES AND INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLES

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GROWTH OF YOUNG TOURISM COMPANIES AND INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLES

Abstract

Nowadays large companies have ceased to be considered as the central axis of the economy and policies, with the focus now being on small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), self-employment and entrepreneurship, which have become in new engines of growth and employment. In this context, tourism companies have a leading role. Tourism SMEs generate a high level of employment and contribute to economic development but, for this, they must consolidate and reach their maturity stage. In their early years they have to deal with problems related to their inexperience, reduced size and high mortality. That is why the study of business growth factors, and specifically in young companies, is relevant. There are numerous publications that study the phenomenon of growth of young companies. However, there is no single widely accepted theory reflecting the complexity and multidimensional nature of business growth.

From an academic point of view, the growth and development of SMEs is part of the scientific research program on business creation and entrepreneurship. Many researches have shown that institutional variables can affect not only the decision to become an entrepreneur, but also the subsequent development of the new enterprise.

For this reason, the general objective of this research is to determine if institutional factors, which are determinants of entrepreneurial activity, can be used to explain the phenomenon of growth of young tourism companies. Growth is a phenomenon that presents a high degree of heterogeneity. The main indicators for studying the growth of young companies are sales and employment.

In order to achieve the proposed objective, this work focuses on the business context of Spanish SMEs in the tourism sector and uses information from GEM databases, specifically the variables defined in the National Experts Survey (NES) and SABI (Analysis System of Iberian Balances). The impact of Spanish regional institutional factors on the growth of tourism enterprises of less than 14 years is studied, taking the variation number of workers as an indicator of growth. The data include observations from 2007 to 2015. The analysis to be developed will allow us to determine the influence of institutional factors on the growth of young tourism firms.

Keywords: institutional factors · young tourism firms · firm growth · entrepreneurship · GEM · SABI

**ENTREPRENEURIAL SKILLS AND SELF-MANAGEMENT IN TOURISM: AN
INTERCOOPERATION STUDY CASE IN ARGENTINA**

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ENTREPRENEURIAL CAPACITIES AND SELF-MANAGEMENT IN TOURISM: AN INTERCOOPERATION STUDY CASE IN ARGENTINA

ABSTRACT

Villa del Mar is a small town located in the South-West of the province of Buenos Aires (Argentina). From nine years ago up to now, this city is going on celebrating the Wetlands Festival. The aim of this paper is to analyze the Wetland Festival held annually at Villa del Mar as an example of self-managed and cooperative practice among local actors that demonstrates the existence of entrepreneurial capacities. To achieve this objective we have carried out the following activities: (1) visits of recognition and direct participation in the territory; (2) interviews with the event organizers; (3) surveys to event participants (residents and non-residents). The methodology is descriptive and within the frame of a case study. The findings indicate that, the festival is heritage of the community and every year different actors play the leadership role in the group, following a socio-economic strategy to foster the development of the village. The development of this event, contributes to the preservation and enhancement of the local identity.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial capacities, self-management, tourism.

1. INTRODUCTION

Currently, the local development approach is based on the mobilization and participation of public and private local actors as performers of local development strategies and initiatives. It refers to territories and real actors and it involves the abandonment of passive attitudes, since it is based on effort and collective decisions to set and arrange locally strategy development.

S. Boisier (2005) understands that, the empowerment of the society, i.e., increasing the capacity to make decisions at the local level is a crucial factor in local development. In this sense, development

is presented as a process determined by the social organization capacity of the actors. Therefore, in the development of a tourism space, the actors' entrepreneurial capacity, the exogenous and endogenous resource mobilization, the capacity to generate associative processes based on trust, commitment and cooperation, all become an essential pillar for tourism development.

In this way, the performance of local actors and resources mobilization for the organization of popular festivals can be a tourism development strategy. Festivals are a clear representation of territories' cultural tradition that require creative and entrepreneurial capacity and the active participation of local actors in the organization. In some cases, these celebrations become a tourist attraction itself. The development of these events contribute to local identity, folklore, historic and artistic resources preservation. They are also a good opportunity to reaffirm and to express the sense of belonging to certain community. Along with its cultural significance, festivals contribute directly to the local economy, since they have many associated activities such as gastronomy, sale of handcrafts, horseback riding, competitions, etc.

Villa del Mar (province of Buenos Aires, Argentina) is a small village situated in a coastal wetland consisting of a marsh ecosystem. It is a valuable landscape with extensive crayfish, marshes and diversity of flora and fauna. The community of the village describes wetlands as an identity resource and highlights the importance of the waterfront as patrimony of the community, a landscape closely linked to the water and the sea (Leonardi *et al.*, 2014). Then, the coastal wetland is the major player in the collective imagination, always being present in the relationship between water and local community. Villa del Mar has been celebrating for nine years the World Wetlands¹ Day, in order to add value to this singular and unique ecosystem in the region.

¹ Wetlands are internationally highly valued. Then, 2 February is, since 1977, the World Wetlands day in commemoration of the signing of the Convention on wetlands in Ramsar (Iran).

In this context, this paper presents the Wetlands celebration in Villa del Mar as an example of cooperative practice between self-organized inter-organizational networks and with collective problem solving. To achieve this objective we have carried out the following activities: (1) visits of recognition and direct participation in the territory; (2) interviews with the event organizers; (3) surveys to event participants (residents and non-residents). The methodology is descriptive and within the frame of a case study.

2. ENTREPRENEURIAL CAPACITIES AND SELF-MANAGEMENT

The French economist Richard Cantillon introduced the term entrepreneur to the economic literature at the beginning of the 18th century. From there, many authors have made important contributions to this concept². Another classical French economist, J. B. Say, argued that the entrepreneur is a leader, proactive, risk taker, and project evaluator person that mobilizes resources from an area of low to another of high productivity.

Schumpeter (1942) defines the entrepreneur as an innovator, which opens new pathways and conquers new sources of exploitation leading to economic development.

For P. Drucker (1985) entrepreneurship is also the willingness and the ability of an individual to seek out an investment opportunity, establish an enterprise and run it successfully either for profitmaking or social benefit.

Cabana, et al. (2013) according to Krauss (2005), propose three possible perspectives to analyze the study of the entrepreneur:

(i) a psychological perspective related with motivation (McClelland, 1961), personality theory (Busenitz, 1999), (Mc Carthy, 2003), (Stewart and Roth,2001) and cognitive theory (Neck *et al.*, 1999).

² The development of the concept of entrepreneurship and entrepreneur can be read in Formichella, M. (2002).

(ii) a demographic perspective, which is mainly associated to family history, i.e. the determination of entrepreneurs family, marital status, age, education level, work experience, socioeconomic status, among others, all variables affecting entrepreneurial capabilities (Cano *et al.*, 2003)

(iii) an attitudinal perspective, thus attitude is the predisposition to respond to a specific event and it is the main component of an entrepreneur profile, which can be modifiable over the time and with the environment interaction (Robinson, 1991).

Within the three perspectives, the author identifies sixteen variables that characterize the entrepreneur. These qualities are mainly related to attitudinal and psychological perspectives as passion, motivation, commitment, trust, vision, administrative skills, teamwork, adaptability, etc.³. The existence of entrepreneurial qualities in individuals of a developing territory becomes essential for the development of new businesses and ventures, as well as the growth of existing ones. However, entrepreneurship is not only the creation of enterprises (as it is often believed), but also represents a way of thinking and acting, oriented to growth and development in a comprehensive framework (Formichella, M., 2002). Therefore, the entrepreneur can be considered as an agent of development.

Rusque *et al.* (1998), carried out a research with college students to show the difference between entrepreneurial capacity and business capacity (table 1).

³ Cabana *et al.* (2013) present different authors for each variable.

Table 1: Entrepreneurial and Business Capacity

	Business Capacity	Entrepreneurial Capacity
Who holds it?	An individual	A group. All the individuals have entrepreneur capacity.
How is it promoted?	Courses to improve creativity and leadership. Knowledge about business plans.	Process with the interaction of individuals that can't achieve entrepreneurial capacity isolated
Where is it applied?	Profitable enterprises	Non-profitable organizations. Collective Projects Profitable organizations consider that development is achieved with social and economic goals.
How is the success measured?	Difference between own and other people's success	Achievement of collective goals
Nature of the Strategy	Techno-economic strategy	Socio-economic strategy
Who is the leader?	The leader is the entrepreneur.	The leader is a role that can change.
Who is the project owner?	My project is mine.	My project belongs to everybody

Source: Own adaptation from Rusque *et al.* (1998).

The agent of development must be looking for new alternatives to processes, thinking of the future without fear to the risk that change can produce, taking the initiative to summon other actors and serve as a link between them, generating a participatory management model (Formichella, M., 2002), which can be understood as cooperative self-management. Self-management promotes practices associated with the collective ideology of the entrepreneur which seeks to guarantee equal benefits, among those that are associated to events, products, projects, etc. (Sampaio, *et al.*, 2007). Participatory projects usually mean a more transparent decision-making, however, it also involves a number of costs. One of them is that it takes a while to get the consensus, and therefore decision-making process is slower than that one taken individually.

3. SCHEDULED EVENTS OR FESTIVALS

The popular festivals are a clear representation of the cultural tradition of the territories that have been incorporated, many years ago, in the resources inventories that are basis for the development of tourist destinations. In some cases, these events become a tourist attraction itself. According to Pereira Valarezo, J. (2009), "... loaded with facts and symbolic characters, through which every town in particular updates the vision that has of itself and the world that surrounds it, the festival reorders and cyclically orients relationships inside of the group, redistributes power and prestige and, above all, reproduces itself, communicating to members symbols of their identity. It is also said that not every theological, political, social or cultural action is thought today as truly successful if it does not end with a festival. In this sense, a festival is a political, cultural and social promise."

Shone (2001) defines the events as "phenomena that arise from non-routine occasions and have leisure, cultural, personal or organizational objectives set out separately from the normal daily activity, whose purpose is to illustrate, celebrate, entertain or challenge the experience of a group of people".

Britto (2002) observes that a local festival is more than just a successful moment, a party or a communication language, it is a sum of efforts and actions planned in order to achieve defined results, together with the target audience.

The development of these events, contributes to the preservation and enhancement of the local identity, being the opportunity to reaffirm and to express people's belonging to certain community. Along with its cultural significance, festivals contribute directly to the local economy with those activities associated such as gastronomy, sale of handcrafts, horseback riding, competitions, etc., which allows to increase the villagers' income.

Cultural events promote economic development and they are an incentive for the cultural heritage recovery and a stimulus for the creation of new offers and cultural attractions. They are increasingly

considered decisive elements in urban regeneration, thus cities seek, in the recovery of their assets and new cultural infrastructure, a way for attracting new visitors and even new residents. (Martinez-Mesias J.P. and Vasconez Gavilanes, R. 2014).

It is important to highlight that the development of these festivities in a community, requires not only recognition by local governments, but it also requires the existence of values and principles related to the solidary based economy. Therefore, three basic elements must appear in the community: the associativity, the solidarity and the self-management. These three elements are essential to the design and development of these events. To achieve the success of these celebrations the actors in the community should organize in their territorial space and engage each other under the values of solidarity, honesty, cooperation and unity.

On the other hand, the socioeconomic impact of an event on the organizing territory depends on several factors such as the type of event, the investment done, the projects and works that are carried out, and the change or improvement they cause. Economic impact studies, try to estimate the economic importance of events and cultural events. Although its definition may vary, its fundamental objective is to measure the effects of the presence or existence of an activity or cultural, sporting and festive, organization on a specific geographic region and in a certain time.

Currently in Argentina, festivals have a significant acceptance and provide the basis for new tourist demands. In the next section, we present the case of Wetlands Celebration in Villa del Mar⁴ as a case study in order to understand its generation within the entrepreneurial and self-management frame.

4. CASE STUDY: THE WETLANDS CELEBRATION IN VILLA DEL MAR

Villa del Mar is a small town located in the South-West of Buenos Aires province (Argentina). It is a maritime village lying on the northwest sector of Bahía Blanca estuary, and it is located in a coastal wetland formed by a marsh ecosystem. It is a valuable landscape with extensive crayfish, marshes

⁴ The socioeconomic impact of Wetlands Celebration in Villa del Mar is presented in Elías and Leonardi (2017).

(part of the plain that has vegetation) with *jumes*, *spartinas* and diversity of birds. Of them all, the *olrog's Gull*; deserves special attention because it is considered endemic and it has in this estuary good habitat conditions, especially by the abundance of food. The coastal area appears in form of estuary⁵, constituting a funnel and transitional space between grassland and seacoast with great diversity of flora and fauna.

Villa del Mar is situated in the middle of the Bahía Blanca estuary; this sector is subject to physical conditions similar to the open sea and constitutes one of the few natural coastal ecosystems that are still largely intact (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Localization of Villa del Mar



Source: Melo, Walter (2016).

⁵ Regarding the nomination of "estuary", it is considered as the inner sector of the bay, where there is no replacement of water between the intertidal, in addition to the contribution of fresh water from the mainland. Coupled with fluids from industrial use and the population increasing the temperature, it creates a different ecological behavior. It is the name that it was given by the scientific community; on the other hand, fishermen in the coasts call it "*ria*" since 1900 and the artists of coastal communities "*bay*"(Cinti 2013).

According to the national census 2010 data, the town has 327 inhabitants. The current population is comprised of a group of permanent families living in the village, and another group that stays there only on weekends for recreation. A few families engaged in artisanal fisheries - mostly low-income families, which alternate between this activity and the eventual recruitment by multinational companies and other employers, form the first group.

The Wetlands Festival celebrated in Villa del Mar every year since 2009 in February commemorating the "World Wetlands Day" is an example of self-managed practice with the objective of putting in value this particular ecosystem unique in the region.

The idea stems from the Provincial Agency of Sustainable Development, who calls different local actors for the organization of the event.

Cooperation between various local actors and the existence of entrepreneurship capacity was a key factor for its development. In the year 2017, the celebration held its ninth Edition.

The actors involved in the management of the event are:

- *Governmental Agencies:* (i) Provincial Agency of Sustainable Development, institution of provincial level; (ii) Cnel. Rosales City Council, institution of local/regional level and (iii) Tourism Secretary of Cnel. Rosales (local/regional level).
- *Non-governmental organizations (NGOs):* (i) Foundation for the reception and care of marine animals (FRAAM); Community Society of Villa del Mar (ii) and (iii) Yacht Club of Punta Alta.
- *Educational institutions:* (i) School No. 15 "Mariano Moreno" and Kindergarten No. 917 "Wetland reserve"; (ii) children's activity center.

In the organization of the event, community participation deepens and the concept of networks becomes vital. These networks have, in addition, the characteristic of "mixed" given the constant negotiations between the Government and civil society. In the last four editions an interdisciplinary

group of teachers and researchers from the Universidad Nacional del Sur was incorporated, working in the framework of extension and volunteering projects. All these actors join in the Organizing Committee to manage the celebration. As a result, the Wetlands Festival becomes a popular identity event for this community. It is a cooperative practice with networks of self-organized actors with a collective resolution of problems. Although there is much time spent on the organization and preparation of the event, it has a duration of only one day.

The Wetlands Festival is a non-profit popular celebration, where family, children and young people participate and enjoy. There are many different activities organized by the Committee as talks related to different environmental and wetland topics, educational workshops, Eco change, theatre of puppets, environmental games, interpretive walks on the coastal wetland, bird watching, low-impact sports. In addition, there are food trucks, local artisans, as well as, street musicians, jugglers, dancers, and local bands. The Festival takes place on a Sunday during February.

Following Rusque *et al.* (1998) differentiation between business capacity and entrepreneurial capacity, we can conclude that the Wetlands Festival in Villa del Mar is a good example of the latter one. The Organization Committee is a group where all the individuals have entrepreneur capacity with the collaboration of non-profitable organizations, joined in a collective project and considering that development is achieved with social and economic goals. The festival is heritage of the community and every year different actors play the leadership role in the group, following a socio-economic strategy to foster the development of the village.

FINAL REFLECTIONS

This paper has presented the Wetland Festival held annually at Villa del Mar as an example of self-managed and cooperative practice among local actors. It can be noted that it has important impacts on the community, particularly related to the development of values of solidarity and cooperation between local actors.

The realization of this event in Villa del Mar highlights that the waterfront is interpreted as collective heritage, where its inhabitants experience a landscape that is closely linked with the water.

Since the implementation of the celebration in 2008, the public has been increasing, with a special growth during the last 5 years. Word of mouth helps to register Wetland Festival in Villa del Mar as a landscape that is worth visiting.

From the analysis of this event, we can conclude that it allows the town and the wetland environment to be well known in the area. The event has also increased the local self-esteem, since the town is proud of the celebration and people feel that the wetlands are a resource that identifies their community. The community perceives it as a celebration that reflects its communal identity. In addition, a new inter-age link, mainly among young people, adults and elder people is created. This phenomenon can be observed in the intergenerational cohabitation during the event.

The community of Villa del Mar welcomes visitors, since residents and shops have been able to benefit by selling their handcrafts and food during the event. Also in the latest edition, artisanal fishermen have been able to exhibit their boats, showing a productive activity that characterizes the town.

It would be important that in future the Organizing Committee could plan an activity that leaves a legacy to benefit the community as doing some planting, mural, sculptures, etc. that can embellish the landscape of the town. In addition, the Organizing Committee considers that it would be desirable that the municipality has a greater commitment to this event.

Finally, we can highlight what was said by Nogue, (2008), the landscape, daily practices and festivities can be read as a dynamic code of symbols that speak of its culture history - its past, its present, and its future-since each culture in each historical moment makes its own interpretations on the landscape and certain significant elements in it. At the same time, in that culture there are different readings of the landscape in relation to the different social groups that conform the territory.

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THE ACCESSIBILITY OF MUSEUM WEBSITES: THE CASE OF BARCELONA

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Extended Abstract

Keywords: Accessibility, Universal Design, Website Evaluation, Museum, Barcelona.

Accessible tourism was first focused on experiences of people with disabilities while travelling and only considered the functional elements of these experiences. Nowadays, due to the recent research on the area, this definition goes far beyond this first idea and accessible tourism is considered ‘a form of tourism that enables people with access requirements to function independently and with equity and dignity through the delivery of universally designed tourism products, services, and environments’ (Buhalis & Darcy, 2011, p. 10).

People with disabilities have the same needs and desires for tourism as others (Blichfeldt & Nicolaisen, 2011). However, when searching for information, selecting information sources, etc., they may behave differently. Previous studies (Gronflaten, 2009) state that socio-demographic characteristics condition information search behaviour. Therefore, access requirements, differences in skills, among other characteristics, may lead to longer searches, different selected sources, etc. When ensuring a good provision of information for all, two concepts must be addressed. First, the information accessibility, based on its format or design. Second, the information on accessible products and services in terms of accuracy or credibility.

Cultural tourism offer is important to develop destinations all over the world, and particularly in Europe. There is an increasing number of people travelling for cultural motivations and they are particularly interested in cultural heritage (Velasco, 2009). Museums can be defined as one of these cultural attractions for the consumption and delight of cultural tourists. Museums should be prepared to meet the needs of cultural tourists while they ensure its social function (Vacas, 2000). In this context, this type of offer must be accessible to all groups of the population.

From the first moment, in order to ensure accessibility of museums to people with special access needs, the information process must be addressed. Nowadays, internet has become one of the most important channels and includes different information sources, such as websites

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(Llodrà-Riera et al., 2015). Thus, the main aim of this research is to explore accessibility and accessible information of museums' websites.

In order to do so, a sample of 48 museums from Barcelona is analysed. The analyses are based on evaluations of 43 items divided into four sections on accessibility and universal design of museum websites (website design, information formats, general products information, accessible products information).

Results show there is a trend to include information on accessibility on the websites. However, this information is not integrated in the mainstream offer, but in a separate section focusing on people with special access needs.

Considering the new perspectives of universal design, the provision of separate information may lead to segregated experiences. Thus, recommendations and implications related to the treatment of information and its provision are discussed.

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Study on the Effect of Demonetisation on Indian Tourism Industry

Shyju P J

Introduction

The Government of India cancelled the legal tender of high value currency notes of Rupees 500 (₹500) and Rupees 1000 (₹1000) with effect from the midnight of November 8, 2016. The decisions include scrapping of ₹1000 (approx. value=14 Euro, @ ₹ 71.42 per Euro), and replacement of existing ₹ 500 (approx. value=7 Euro @ ₹ 71.42 per Euro) note with new design and security features, restriction of the use of currency withdrawal limits for a short but unspecified period. These notes accounted for almost 86% of the total currency notes worth of 6,32,000 crores rupees circulated in the country till that time (Business Standard, Nov 8, 2016). According to the reports of Reserve Bank of India, ₹500 notes constituted 45% and ₹ 1000 notes were 39% which were in circulation in terms of value and low value currencies such as ₹100, ₹50, ₹20 and ₹10 constituted 16%. Decisions on regulation of currency withdrawal limits and demonetization have been taken on various grounds such as national security and controlling the parallel economy. It also intended to encourage the use of digital transactions. The decision was initially welcomed by every quarters, but in a short period of time it affected the daily life of millions of people living in India.

Critics argued that it is a wrong decision to ban currency and some intellectuals and economists pointed that the timing of such decision was illogical and impractical (PTI, The Hindu, Nov. 30, 2016). Former Prime Minister of India and economist Dr. Manmohan Singh opined that ban of currency notes is a monumental mismanagement (Times News Network, Nov. 26). Currency demonitisation was perceived with high risk as India's cash economy which was accounted heavily on GDP and employment (M. Safi, The Guardian, Jan. 2, 2017).

Debates on cash holding vs. cashless society

There are several factors deciding cash holding such as shadow economy as noted by prominent economists. There is no doubt that a parallel economy (called as black money) existed in India before demonetization. Income earned from numerous sources hoarded as cash, which has been utilized for building assets or investments in real estates or in high return business areas. Among developing countries, India ranked at 65th position in the rankings of IMF with a cumulative score of 22.4 (from 1996-2006) in the world listing of shadow economies (F.Schneider et.al, 2010). Much of the black money were invested as deposits in Swiss banks or Mauritius, Singapore etc. The second case is people stock currency notes to avoid hassles of banking transactions or pay

taxes. Many entrepreneurs who hardly file their annual earning to tax authorities taking the advantage of several loopholes in tax structure. For several decades people considered cash as an easy instrument to do every kind of transactions as it not only avoided any complexities but also as a matter of evidence and trust. It is a big challenge for every government to undertake to reduce the size of the shadow economy and make official economy more attractive (F. Schneider et al.,2010b)

The illegal use of currency for funding the terror outfits and insurgent groups were one of the main concerns to ban the high value currency notes in India. In addition to the above, fake currency networks spread all over India and abroad, which posed a great threat to the economic growth and monetary system over many years. In order to reduce the use of currency various electronic modes of payments have already been used and got popularity among the educated class. But it was not fully adopted by the people of all class due to ignorance or afraid of the cost and effort required or security of transactions. Digital India campaign launched by the present government encouraged the digital transactions at large scale. But the declaration of demonetization catalyzed the situation to adopt cashless transactions.

A review of the available reports and researches shows that the studies were focused largely on the usage of currencies. Monetary policies, devaluation of currency, inflation, deflation etc. were studied by several researchers. Baumol (1954) stated that a priori analysis of the precautionary and speculative demand for cash is difficult. Forbes magazine (1967) predicted the era of electronic money which would soon replace the cash or cheques. Charles Goodhart (2000) argued that currency is unlikely to ever be completely replaced. Further, he observed that though information technology may play an important role to reduce the use of currency notes, it couldn't be completely eliminated. According to Goodhart 'e purse' would play a greater role, as the free transferability of economic value can substantially affect the usage of currency notes.

Judson et.al. (2004), observed that domestic currency holdings can be explained by the usual transaction demand determinants. Amromin and Chakravorti (2009) explained that the proliferation of alternative modes of payment resulted in reducing cash transactions of small values, intern it also signifies that the small denomination currencies are losing its value and importance.

According to IMF reports (2010), financial regulations strengthen the institutions as it corrects the market failures. Koulayev et.al. (2012) explained the customer adoption process of various

instruments of payment. Rogoff (2014) predicted the complexities of currency ban, but stated that the advantages of paperless currency couldn't be ruled out. According to Rogoff, the long term trend will be a low demand for currency notes as it becomes technologically obsolete and advancements in technology to improve the cashless transactions procedures across the world. Rogoff stated that the currency supply in US is 7% of GDP, in the Eurozone it is 10 % and Japan it is 18%. The difficulty to analyse and compare the developments in banknote usage in European Union is highlighted in a study. Cash holdings in US per capita currency is about USD 3000, even though substitutes of cash is growing in the market. Wang and Wolman (2014) estimated model to forecast how the mix of consumer payments will evolve and to forecast future demand for currency.

Demonetisation in India

The ₹1000 note was first introduced in 1938 under the British rule and it was demonetized in 1946. Post-independence, it was reintroduced in 1954, but in 1978 the legal tender of all high value currency notes such as 1000, 5000 and 10000 were cancelled. In the year 2000, the ₹1000 currency note was reintroduced again which was used till November 8, 2016. The time line of decisions related to currency regulations were taken by the Government of India from November 8, 2016 to March 14, 2017 are mentioned below.

November 8: withdrawal limits were capped at ₹10,000 in a week from banks and 2000 from ATM on one day. Old notes were allowed to remit at bank counters but the maximum amount to exchange in new currency was up to ₹ 4,000.

November 13 withdrawal limit from ATMs raised to ₹4500, Weekly withdrawal limits raised to ₹ 24000 and ATM withdrawals raised to ₹ 2500.

November 16: withdrawal limits for current account was raised to ₹50,000 in a week.

November 23: Monthly transaction limits of ewallets raised to ₹20000 from ₹10000. No transaction costs for Rupay cards. Indian Railways waive off transaction charges.

November 24: Foreign citizens were allowed to exchange old currency up to ₹ 5000 in a week. Entries made in passports about the drawings through banks.

December 30: The last date to deposit old currency notes.

February 20, 2017: The weekly withdrawal limits raised to ₹ 50000.

March 14, 2017: Reserve Bank of India officially ended the cash withdrawal limits.

There were 17,165 million pieces of ₹500 notes and 6,858 million pieces of ₹ 1,000 notes in circulation. That amounts to a total of ₹ 15.44 lakh crore in value. The cancellation of legal tender of the currency left people cashless and it resulted in a temporary downfall in all economic spheres. Introduction of new currency note of ₹ 2000 and ₹ 500, difficulties continued as the adequate supply of required currency notes take quite long time. They were also reports that people are hoarding small designation currency notes of ₹100 and ₹50 as they were afraid that the money circulation would remain be affected for months.

According to the reports of Deolitte (2016), a long term gain is expected though there are while the unorganized sector was affected. The third quarter economic results didn't impact much as the GDP rate remain 7.2 percentage (CSO, Feb. 2017). The temporary effect of the currency regulations affected the small, medium enterprises and large organisations alike. The market demand for various products fell and as a result many factories reduced productions for short period on the expectations that economic conditions would be normal. The government made a stand that all payments of salaries and wages should be paid through banks to avoid the inconvenience of cash transactions. The following methods of financial alternatives emerged as the popular form of payment after demonetisation.

Cheques/Drafts	Debit Cards	Credit Cards	Kiosks at Shopping centres	E-wallets
Several transactions directed through bank Electronic Transfer/ Wire transfer	Banks and other agencies	Visa/Amex and other agencies	Authorised shopping malls/ Post Offices/ authorised Petrol Bunks dispense cash With a limit of ₹ 2000.	30 odd payment mechanism other than banks Every mobile network operators created their own system

The decision of government to phase out the old currency notes of high denomination also involved lot of costs and human effort. Enormous pressure was mounted on government as media reports highlighted agonies of people of various ages, farmers and industrialists suffered during this time. The Reserve Bank of India had to work on a daily basis to assess the cash requirements and ensure necessary supply to the banks. Banks witnessed long queues as shortage of cash created panic among customers as well as bank officials. Work hours of bank officials stretched these days and

mounted pressure from all corners even created high level of stress among them. Government monitored the situation carefully and came out with prompt decisions and quick actions to resolve the problems.

All actions of the government were to ensure a smooth transition of old currency notes to the new system, as well abolishing denomination of ₹1000. The process of this switch over was really unbelievably extensive, but in due course of time situations changed and the cashless days were replaced with alternative modes of payment. It is important to note that researchers debated the issues of cashless future, but as a reality, it worked in India through various phases but in a short period of time. The transition of currency notes to digital cash may take some more time, but the general perception of people to adopt digital payment mechanism has been positively influenced by the demonetization of government.

Significance of the study

The study is conducted at a crucial time when the economic conditions of the country loomed with demonetization effect. The months of November to March are the peak season of inbound tourism season of India. Tourists arrived in India during the demonetization period handled the situation but with great difficulty. The outbound tourism market show a slump, whereas domestic tourism market too didn't attract good business during this period. There are no serious researches conducted on how demonetization impacted the business and analyse the effects of this action by government. The present study aimed to understand the credibility of the agencies on the digital payment mechanism and how the increased usage of these instruments would ease business in tourism and travel sector. The present study also examines the demonitisation as a cause to increase the tax revenue and overall development of the nation.

Objectives of the Study

1. To understand the mode of payment and receipts by the organization in tourism, travel and hospitality during the announcement of currency demonitisation.
2. To study the immediate measures taken by the tourism organisations to meet the crisis.
3. To examine the impact of demonetization on tourism business in the month of November and end of December 2016.
4. The feedback and opinion of respondents on the overall effect of currency regulation and cashless transactions.
5. To explore the overall effects of demonetization on tourism entrepreneurs.

Methodology

The study is an exploratory research conducted during the period of mid of January 2017 to mid of March 2017. The major economic decisions of government and Reserve Bank of India were carefully studied and media reports on the related issues were analysed to understand the overall impact of controlling cash transactions and its impact in society, trade and the macro economy of the nation. A study plan was prepared in the beginning of January 2017, to conduct the research.

Data Collection

To collect primary data from organisations dealing with tourism, travel and hospitality in India. A structured questionnaire was emailed to the members of Indian Association of Tour Operators to collect the required data for the study. The response rate was very poor as 8 percentage. The online questionnaire was distributed through www.esurv.org an online platform to conduct the survey. 71 filled questionnaires were received out of 875 respondents who were contacted. Secondary data was collected through the reports of Reserve Bank of India notifications, reports of Ministry of Finance, Government of India and columns appeared in print and online media.

Indicative variables

The main variables of the study were basic profile of the respondents, areas of work and job experience, nature of organization, mode of payment and receipts during and after demonitisation, impact of demonetization and the opinion on converting all financial in to cashless. The opinion of respondents on the advantages and disadvantages of the digital transactions were also examined.

Analysis

Collected data was first screened through the esurvey.org, and then transferred to SPSS 20. Cross tabulation, frequency distribution, and chi square test were used to analyse the data. Personal experiences of tourists and service providers were also helpful to conduct the study. The report on the status of Indian economy after demonetization was useful to compare the findings of the primary data and draw conclusions.

Findings

The findings from primary data are divided in to three major parts. The first part explains the location of respondents, experience, types of organization and job description of respondents. The second part consists of the mode of payment and receipt system during and after the demonitisation, its impact on tourism business. The last part is the opinion and feedback of respondents how the actions of government to go for cashless transactions reflect in tourism industry.

Part I

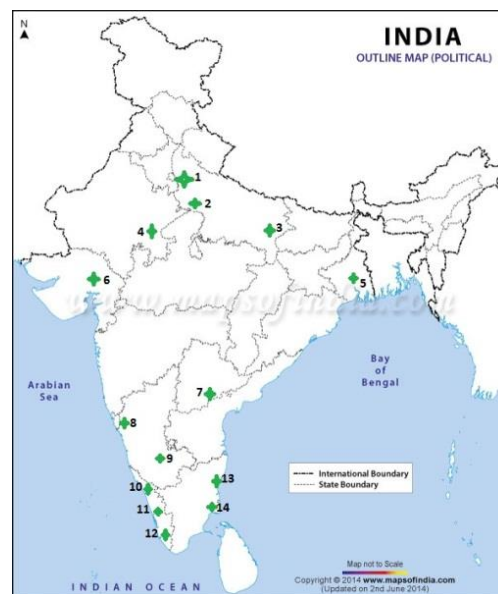
(a) The office location of respondents spread over pan India.

Table 1, Respondents details

Sl. No	Location	No. of respondents
01	National Capital Region (Delhi, Gurugram, Noida, Gaziabad)	45
02	Agra	2
03	Varanasi	7
04	Jaipur	4
05	Kolkata	2
06	Baroda	1
07	Hyderabad	2
08	Goa	1
09	Bengaluru	2
10	Kozhikode	1
11	Alleppey	1
12	Trivandrum	1
13	Chennai	1
14	Pondicherry	1

(Source: Researcher)

Figure 1, Location details of respondents

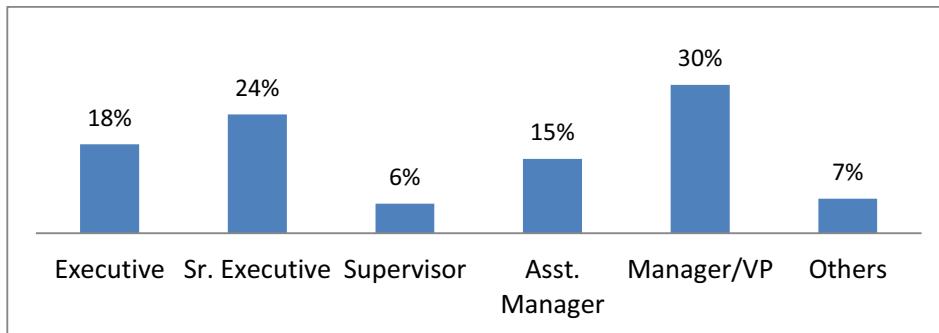


(Source: Google images)

Delhi, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Goa, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu attract major share of foreign tourists. Tourist circuits are scattered all different places, and the business is also fragmented among several hands. The above table and the figure indicates the responses received from survey. Organisations approved by Indian Association of Tour Operators operated in different states across India were contacted but the response rate was very poor. Delhi and National Capital Region is the hub of tour operation business in India. Delhi (old and New), Gurugram, Noida, Ghaziabad of Uttar Pradesh) are the head office of many tour operators. Though tourism service providers of other places work independently, they also act as the ground operators. The most visited places include Rajasthan, Goa, Uttar Pradesh, Kerala and Tamil Nadu. The response of the respondents from various places in India gives a clear understanding of how the demonitisation resulted in the market and what actions have been taken to mitigate the crisis.

(b) The bar chart mentions the designation of respondents.

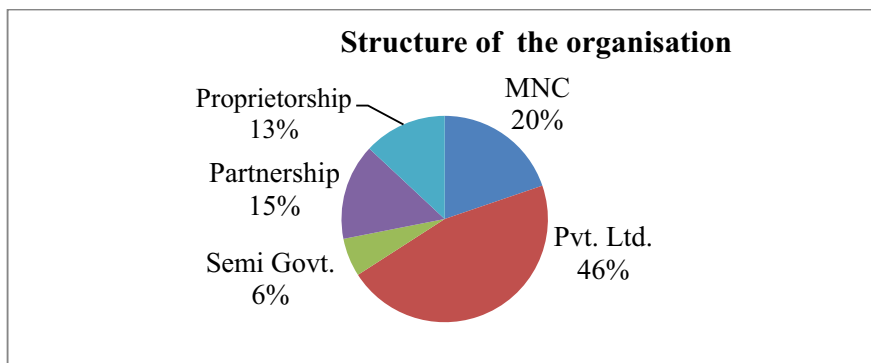
Figure 2



(c) 59% of the respondents were with an experience of more than 2 years, 20% respondents had 1-2 years of job experience and 21% respondents had experience of one year or so. The job description of the respondents varies from sales, business development, marketing, hospitality operations, aviation, others etc.

(d) The structure of the organization

Figure 3



Part II

(a) The following table indicates that tourism organisations were having multiple payment options during the time of announcement demonetisation.

Table 2, Payment mechanism till demonetisation

Type of Organisation	Cash/Cheque/Bank Transfer
MNCs	100%
Private Ltd. Companies	97%
Semi Government agencies	75%
Partnership firms	68%
Proprietorship entities	65%

(b) It is found that after the announcement of demonetization, organisations used different payment/receipt mechanism as mentioned below.

Table 3, Payment mechanism after the announcement of demonetisation

Type of Organisation	Cash/Cheque/ Bank transfer	Insisted on cheque or bank transfer	Digital payment options	Others
MNCs	7%	57%	7%	29%
Private Ltd. Companies	6%	61%	18%	15%
Semi Government agencies		75%	25%	
Partnership firms	10%	72%		18%
Proprietorship entities	11%	78%	11%	

(c) Comparing to the previous table, there are some notable changes taken up after the banning of high value currency. The multinational companies and private limited companies insisted their clients to convert transactions through bank and also introduced the digital payment options like mobile valets. Others column marks the comments of the respondents, in which various other methods used by the organisations are indicated such as swipe machines and online banking etc. In partnership business and proprietorship, it is found that these organisations also started using the multiple payment options and depends more on transactions through bank.

(d) The following table explains the impact of demonetization in the business in the month of November 2016. It is found that business enquiries reduced and there was a recession in business in comparison to the previous years. The business of multinational organisations, private limited companies and partnership firms were affected in the month of November. In total, 50.7% respondents were of the opinion that the business enquiries have decreased over last years in the month of November.

Table 4, Effect on tourism business during the month of November 2016

Type of Organisation	Business remain same	Adverse effect	Reduced business enquiries compared to previous year
MNCs	28.6%		71.4%
Private Ltd. Companies	39.4%	15.2%	45.5%
Semi Government agencies	50%	25%	25%
Partnership firms		27.3%	72.7%
Proprietorship entities	55.6%	22.2%	22.2%

- (e) The respondents' feedback on the change of business environment at the end of December 2016 after a period of 56 days. In total, 60.6% respondents agreed that the business conditions have been improved, but 39.4% felt that the conditions didn't improve much.

Table 5, Status of business at the end of December 2016

Type of Organisation	Conditions improved	Didn't change
MNCs	85.7%	14.3%
Private Ltd. Companies	60.6%	39.4%
Semi Government organisations	50%	50%
Partnership firms	63.6%	36.4%
Proprietorship entities	22.2%	77.8%

- (f) Overall impact of demonitisation

Table 6, Overall impact

Type of Organisation	Loss of up to 10%	loss 10-20%	loss 20-30%	Loss above 30%	No Impact
MNCs	14.3%	28.6%	21.4%		35.7%
Private Ltd. Companies	24.2%	3%	12.1%	6.1%	54.5%
Semi Government organisations		25%	25%		50%
Partnership firms	18.2%	27.3%	9.1%	18.2%	27.3%
Proprietorship entities	11.1%		22.2%	22.2%	44.4%

The above table is a clear indication that majority of the organization have a fall in revenue for the financial year 2016-17. The range of revenue loss is in between 10 % to 30% and an average of 15% in general.

Part III

Table 6, Feedback of the respondents on

Statement	Yes	No	No opinion
Bad experiences created a negative impression to the foreign tourists visited India during the period of demonitisation.	52.1%	39.4%	8.5%
Digital payment mechanism will add office overhead costs.	35.2%	50.7%	14.1%
Several tourists cancelled trips due to the news of currency regulations.	40.8%	56.3%	2.8%
Received support received from the service providers to tackle the limited use of currency notes.	67.6%	26.8%	5.6%
Many tourists delayed in finalizing tours due to currency regulations.	49.3%	45.1%	5.6%

It is found that,

1. Every type of organizations felt that demonetization created a bad impression about the way of things happen due to the demonetization of currency.
2. Semi government and partnership firms find that digitalisation of payment can also add office costs.
3. Smaller organizations had more cases of trip cancellation.
4. Various service providers understood the seriousness of the situation and extended support each other.
5. Except private limited companies the opinion of the organisations that demonetization delayed the trips.

Table 7, Level of agreement on effects of digital payment mechanism

Sl.No.	Statement	Opinion % (Agreed +Strongly agreed)	Mean
1	The demonetisation issues would not affect the long term growth of tourism industry in India.	61.9%	3.54
2	The tax revenue would increase considerably.	76.1%	3.84
3	Digital payments will add the tour costs.	42.3%	3.13
4	It may also result in increasing fraudulence in transactions.	42.1%	2.73
5	It will ease the entire process of business transactions.	81.7%	4.03

Majority of the respondents were of the opinion that the action of the government to regulate the use of cash will not bear a significant impact in the long run. The optimism of respondents were reflected in the statement ‘increasing of tax revenue due to the banning of old currency which will mainly lead to the development of basic infrastructure was another perspective of the respondents. Statements such as cost of tour packages may increase due to digital payment gateways and increase of fraudulence in digital transactions were not supported by many respondents.

A Kruskal-Wallis Test revealed that there is no statistically significant difference on the positive impact of demonetization on tourism across various organizations. (Gp1, n=14:MNC, Gp2, n=33:Pvt.Ltd.Co, Gp3,n=4:Semi Govt, Gp4,n=11:Partnership, Gp5,n=9:Proprietorship), χ^2 (4,n=71) =4.727, p=.316.

Discussions

The study reveals that how tourism industry responded to a very important economic decision of the government. People of all regions and states, business organisations and state controlled enterprises had a tough time to adjust with the limited availability of cash as maximum transactions and individual level and at small or medium organisations were in cash. Another notable fact is organisations never experienced this kind of cash crunch never before. New rules were introduced by government and banks to handle the situation almost every alternative day. Though there are many multi national organisations operated in India such KUONI, Radisson, Thomas Cook etc., a large number of medium size companies and a huge number of small enterprises also play a crucial role in operating tourism services. Hence the effect of demonetization was spread over all sections of the business environment. These organisations primarily dealt payment and receipt with cash, cheque or internet banking till the announcement of currency regulations. But digital payment gateways, mobile applications surged in to the business world with the introduction of demonetization. Semi government firms like Indian Railways Catering and Tourism Corporation (IRCTC) introduced POS (point of sale) machines to deal with clients who pay through cards.

The new trend of digital money handling mechanism also lead to the huge increase of money transactions going cashless and the rise of a new facilitators in the financial sector. In India Paytm, Mobikwik, State Bank Buddy, Citrus etc. are some of the leading mobile wallets, which were banked by many people during the demonetization period. In the later period, Government of India also introduced BHIM mobile app, an application that integrates payments and connects several banks.

The heat of demonitisation was highly felt in the month of November 2016, during these days, the entire economy faced greater challenges in terms of providing the support systems to Banks. This research was found that tourism industry faced a setback of business during this time as the trade enquiries decreased in comparison to the previous years. The respondents' feedback shows that by December end, conditions changed and the signs of hope of recovery of economic conditions were visible. Money transactions gradually improved and people started gaining their confidence in banks and government. From the secondary data sources, personal interviews, and estimates show that the overall economic impact of the trade is around 15 percentage decrease in earnings in comparison to the previous year. Another observation of the study is the implementation of control of currency came in the peak tourist season and the tourism market in the country could not gain

from the year-long expectations, be it in organized sector or unorganized sector. Foreign tourists faced several difficulties at various places. Restrictions of distribution of cash was applied in the banks and the long queues created embarrassing situations for tourists as well. Many local business men (unauthorized) dealing with currency exchange profited from the situation as they collected the old currencies at a lower exchange rate. Many Indian tourists dropped their plans to visit sites or do shopping. Tour operators had a struggling time to get the local services and the entire business was going on credit basis for several weeks. It also shows that the tour operators and other service providers worked in cohesion to address the challenge and trust and understanding on local service providers increased over a time.

Domestic tourism market and out bound tourism market also affected as the fear of getting stranded in strange locations due to money issues. People were also not sure of the next action by government as new regulations created confusions at some level, which indirectly resulted in delay of trips to a later date. The corporate tourism market didn't face much troubles as the financial transactions were through banks.

The feedback of the service providers indicate that the demonetization effect was a temporary crisis, and the actions taken by government to control the use of cash will yield monetary results in terms of the increase of tax revenue. More service providers will include in tax net and this will directly result in the increase of tax revenue. As all the transactions would be rooted through banks, it enables the tax authorities to easily identify the tax defaulters. The respondents opinion on increase of digital transaction may add cost as well scare of illegal transactions or fraudulence indicate that they were not much worried about these aspects at the moment.

Boost in digital transactions signal of a cashless society

The declaration of demonitisation also hinted in promoting cashless transactions at every level. All government establishments started/encouraged accepting online transfer of payments. Indian railways promoted its portal to book tickets, introduced IRCTC money an e-wallet and other online platforms to complete the payments. According to the government reports digital payments have increased in the range of 400 to 1,000 per cent since November 8 (Times of India, De. 9, 2016). Transactions through Rupay cards, USSD, Point of Sale machines also saw a huge leap in business during the days of demonetization. According to the reports of Hindustan Times (March 21, 2007) digital transactions had increased from 672 million in November 2016 to 958 million in December 2016. The latest reports of RBI shows that there is a decline in the growth of online transactions

after cash circulation became normal. Government made an ambitious target of 25 billion digital transactions in 2017-18. The cost involved in digital transactions restricts many users to use cash. Government of India introduced BHIM mobile application on 30 December 2016. This app can integrate payment gateways and banks through a single application. The Google Play Store status shows that more than 10 million people downloaded this mobile app so far. Unified Payment Interface (UPI) is another application which got wide popularity as it eases money transfers, shopping or other transactions. A country with 1.25 billion population, even if 10 percentage of the population are regularly using digital transactions, it can result in a big way. In line with other services, tourism also going to feature in the 'new economy', in which the participants use alternative forms of payment, which will significantly reduce the use of cash. Right from booking tours, using various services at destinations, shopping, moving around etc. virtually everything comes under the net of digital world. This signals a near future where cash becomes virtually obsolete.

Conclusion

This paper examined the impacts of demonitisation of currency in India. All of a sudden people realized the paper pieces that they virtually consider of great value turned up to be a burden in life. As the New York Times reported in 1996 'cash is dying', but it got rebirth in different forms which gives little burden (other than cyber security). The effect of demonetization can be summed as it created a deep impact in the minds of people about the disadvantages of holding high denomination currency and the need of adoption of digital money. Business entities also realized that use of digital money will reduce their burden at many levels. Government of India seeded the idea of grooming up a technology friendly society which will be a great asset for the country in the coming years. Transparent business, reformations in tax structure encouragement of information technology will also contribute to the overall development of nation as well as the welfare of people. The mid-year economic review shows that GDP growth rate is slightly reduced but remain stable as it forecast 7.2% growth for the year 2016-17 (CSO, Feb. 2017).

Indian Tourism industry in India also experienced the heat of this major economic decision and the ripple effect of this is visible when the annual performance reports of organisations are prepared. Things changed in the course of time, where tourists as well as the service providers quickly adopted new systems of payment. Faster decline of cash payments due to electronic and digital payment options indicates ease of doing business, which also enables us to trace the

payments more systematically. This paper could give a glimpse on the overall effects of demonetization decisions of government in tourism industry in India. There are several areas, researches can be conducted in the future which will give more concrete information on the trends, impacts and trajectories of economic policy decisions on one area which can have a great impact on tourism services. The future research implications include digital payment systems, pattern of cash use in tourism industry, collecting big data on the spending nature of tourists, payment gateways and security issues etc. will enable researchers to study and relate findings to check with the effect of major policy decisions and its effect in business world.

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The 21st century trends in senior tourism development among the baby boomer generation

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Abstract

The paper aims at presenting new forms of tourist activity of retired people in Poland in the context of their economic status as compared with seniors from other European countries. The authors indicate the changes in the forms of senior tourism that have occurred in the 21st century along with the economic development. Moreover, they attempt to verify the hypothesis put forward by Kim et al. (2015), stating that the general quality of life positively affects the wish for another journey in seniors. The results of the comparative analysis of the senior tourism in Poland and in Europe support the formulated hypothesis. On the basis of the study, the authors also prove that seniors are an internally diverse group, both with reference to their health status and financial conditions. The small tourist traffic among seniors is influenced by their health status and by their perceived economic situation.

1 Introduction

The ageing of the societies in the developed countries has been observed for years, with a specific culmination point in Europe in the year of 2004, when the number of seniors exceeded the number of the youngest population (under 14 years of age). In the recent decade, every sixth inhabitant of our continent was over 65 years of age (Alén et al., 2012), and the situation is still dynamically changing. As Śniadek (2006) points, in 2020, 25% of the European Union inhabitants will belong to the 60+ group. Every 6 seconds, the number of seniors in Europe increases by one. This results mainly from the phenomenon of compensation for the losses from the period of World War II, observed in its strongest form in Europe and the United States in the years of 1946–1964. People born at that time are referred to as the the baby-boomer generation. In Poland, the period of 1946–1955 is assumed the population explosion time, with a very high birth rate, reaching 19‰. The first Polish baby boomer was 65 years old in 2011, the last one will get to that age in 2020. The population of pensioners among baby boomers rises each day, at a pace apparently higher than the general country population. This imbalance is going to increase each year, becoming an even greater burden for the less and less efficient pension system, health service, and social welfare.

The paper aims at presenting new forms of tourist activity of retired people in Poland in the context of their economic status as compared with seniors from other European countries. Moreover, the authors attempt to verify the hypothesis put forward by Kim et al. (2015), stating that the general quality of life positively affects the wish for another journey in seniors.

In the context of an attempt to assess senior tourism functioning, the group that the phenomenon refers to should be determined first. In fact, some discrepancies can be observed here already. Hossain et al. (2003) use the term *senior* with regard to the age group of 55+, and the term *non-senior* for the group aged 15–55 years. Moreover, they divide the senior group into elder seniors (aged 65+) and younger seniors (between 55 and 64 years of age). In Alcaide's (2005) approach, the senior age begins with 55 years of age. He considers this moment a significant turning point, as it is accompanied by the emergence of new, specific needs related to age. Condition changes also appear which are predictable and refer mainly to physical complaints. Lee and Tideswell (2005), as well as Garcia and Martorell (2007) point at the age of 60 years as an important time point of changes; in the majority of people, this is when the life rhythm is modified and needs different from those present so far arise. Walker (2004) distinguishes as many as four categories of senior age. These are:

- the group of people at the pre-retirement age and those who have retired earlier (55–64 years of age);
- the group of the retired (65–74 years of age);
- the group of elder pensioners (75–84 years of age);
- the group of people at the age of 85 or more.

Dąbrowski (2006), in turn, divides seniors into three basic groups:

- people advanced in years (60–75 years of age);
- people of old age (76–90 years of age);
- long-lived people, i.e. those older than 90 years of age.

The World Health Organisation suggests a similar classification and the United Nations point at the age of 65 as the old age threshold (Kowalik 2009).

In most cases, the lower age boundary in the definition of a senior is set at or refers to the beginning of retirement age. The authors realize that assuming the retirement criterion to define the specific age group is bound with several limitations; nevertheless, for the needs of the paper, the fact of retirement was accepted as the moment of entering the senior age.

1.1 Senior tourism

Owing to the demographic conditions, the phenomenon of senior tourism is dynamically developing. Senior tourism, i.e. tourism of elderly people, is widely referred to in the subject literature. It is included, among others, within social tourism regarding people whose life situation makes it entirely or partly impossible for them to partake in tourism. This can result from economic factors, physical impairment, isolation, restricted mobility. Among these groups, as Górska (2010) points out, apart from children, youth, and families, elderly people are of special interest.

Senior tourism is often mentioned in the context of tourism of the disabled. Buhalis and Darcy (2011), when discussing groups of the disabled, enumerate elderly people among them – beside those with impaired mobility or those with temporary impairment. Age, constituting one of the impairment criteria because of the specificity of the human body functioning, is also indicated in the Spanish language literature referring to tourism. Gonzalez (2008) points at elderly people as one of the three groups remaining within the range of research on tourism of the disabled. The potential of the group with regard to tourism available in the context of demographic changes is described by Darcy and Dickson (2009), as well as by Widawski (2010, 2011).

1.2 Theoretical assumptions

Kim et al. (2015) have suggested a theoretical model of seniors' tourist behaviours with reference to their quality of life. The model is especially applicable for the population of 21st century seniors, who expect new trends in their tourist journeys, as these influence the wish for another journey in seniors. The six dimensions of the model are bound with nine hypotheses:

- H1 Engagement positively affects the perceived value in seniors.
- H2 Engagement positively affects satisfaction with tourist experience in seniors.
- H3 Perceiving tourist experience as valuable positively affects satisfaction with tourist experience in seniors.
- H4 Satisfying tourist experience positively affects satisfaction with leisure time in seniors.
- H5 Satisfaction with leisure time positively affects the general quality of life in seniors.
- H6 Satisfying tourist experience positively affects the general quality of life in seniors.
- H7 Satisfying tourist experience positively affects the wish for another journey in seniors.
- H8 Satisfaction with leisure time positively affects the wish for another journey in seniors.
- H9 The general quality of life positively affects the wish for another journey in seniors (Figure 1).

The theoretical assumptions indicate that the six dimensions, i.e. engagement, perceived

value, satisfying tourist experience, satisfaction with leisure time, quality of life, and the wish for another journey, influence one another.

The model was verified in South Korea among people aged ca. 65 years. The research has enriched the knowledge about seniors' tourist behaviours in the context of their well-being, providing an integrated approach to understanding relations between the tourist experience and the general quality of life in the late adulthood. This was one of the few studies to consider such features as quality of life or subjective well-being. It has proved the theory of activity, indicating that when elderly tourists have satisfying tourist experience, their general quality of life increases. Additionally, the higher the satisfaction with family life, leisure time, tourism, and level of safety, the bigger the general life satisfaction. The influence of the particular life dimensions accumulates, involving life perceived as a whole.

Life satisfaction is a key issue in the life of pensioners in the modern society. Therefore, the authors have decided to concentrate upon the question of seniors' quality of life how it translates into tourist journeys. The modern society of the 21st century seniors pay much attention to the new trends in tourism. It is not only recreation that they expect from tourism, but also getting to know new places and cultures.

2 Material and methods

Statistical data concerning the outgoing tourism of pensioners and disabled pensioners were obtained from the questionnaire studies entitled 'Tourism and recreation in households' (GUS, 2001, 2005, 2009, 2013, 2015). The questionnaire referred to information concerning, among others, the seniors' preferred ways of spending time intended for recreation, their participation in domestic and foreign journeys, specifying the motivation, directions, and seasonal character of the journeys, and – in the case of seniors who did not travel – explaining the reasons for not engaging in tourist journeys.

Data concerning the seniors' financial conditions were acquired from the 'Household budgets' reports for the years of 2013 and 2015 (GUS, 2014, 2016). In the research, two-stage stratified sampling was applied, with different selection probabilities in the first stratum. Field research sites were the entities for the first stage sampling, flats – for the second stage.

The basis for the sampling frame of the first stage entity sampling consisted of statistical region registers developed for census purposes, updated each year with modifications resulting from the administrative division of the country. In total, ca. 30 thousand of field research sites were created. The frame of the second stage sampling consisted of registers of inhabited flats in the

selected field research sites, developed by statistical offices. In each month of 2013, the research involved 3132 flats; thus, results from households inhabiting 37 584 flats were obtained within a year. The actual number of examined households equalled 37 181.

The descriptive and comparative methods were applied in the data analysis. The results were presented in tables and charts.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 The economic status of pensioners

According to Hołowiecka and Grzelak-Kostulska (2012), the extent of poverty in the group of retired people is definitely lower than among families with children to bring up. This has been proved, among others, in the studies by Szukalski (2008), Szatur-Jaworska (2010), GUS (2014, 2016). The relative economic status of the elderly as compared with other groups has been improving for the last 20 years. Szatur-Jaworska (2010) indicates that the average income of a pensioner's or a disabled pensioner's household equalled ca. 100–105% of the national average salary in this period, pensioners being in a much better situation than disabled pensioners, with the level of income 110–115% and ca. 80% of the average, respectively.

In 2015, the average monthly pension in the Social Insurance Institution (ZUS) equalled almost 495.3 euros (all sums converted from PLN to euros with the National Bank of Poland mean exchange rate of April 3–28, 2017, where 1 EUR = 4.24 PLN). Half of the beneficiaries received not more than 424.5 euros. The Central Statistical Office (GUS) report on old-age and disability pensions in 2015 indicates that the benefits were paid to almost 8 879 600 people, i.e. 0.1% more than in the previous year. Relatively to the population number in Poland, this group constituted 23.1%, as in the previous year, and was dominated by people receiving old-age pensions. A small but significant and specific element of the old-age and disability pension system are benefits paid by the Ministries: of National Defence, of Justice, and of the Interior. In 2015, these three ministries paid the total of 3741.5 million euros as old-age and disability benefits (a rise by 1.9% as compared with 2014). The biggest share in these expenses was that of the Ministry of the Interior: 1923.9 million euros. The average old-age pension in the ministries in 2015 equalled: 829.8 euros in the Ministry of the Interior (a rise by 2.2%), 800.8 euros in the Ministry of National Defence (a rise by 1.9%), and 865.9 euros in the Ministry of Justice (a rise by 2.0%). The biggest group of people – over 14% – received old-age pensions higher than 825.5 euros; the benefits of 6–8% of the pensioner society were at the level of 235,8–471,7 euros; whereas less than 3% pensioners were

paid the lowest benefits, of less than 141,5 euros.

Education has an impact on the old-age benefits. The pensioners' households analysis proves that the vast majority of them have basic vocational education (27.3%) or primary education (24.9%). Secondary vocational education was noted in 21.2%, and higher education only in 13.1%. Education also affects the wish of personal development, e.g. getting to know the world through travelling. In 2015, there was an income of 338 euros at a pensioner's disposal, most of the sum coming from the social insurance benefits. It was slightly higher in single households (400.7 euros), and the lowest in those of at least six persons (178.8 euros only). The average surface of a pensioner's household was 69 m², and the average number of rooms equalled 2.73. The statistical useable area occupied by a household per person was 36 m².

The biggest share (as many as 269.8 euros) in the pensioners' expenses belonged to the consumer goods and services; among them, food and non-alcoholic beverages (75.5 euros), and flat and electricity (67.2 euros). The pensioners intended 23.3 euros for health each month. A substantial amount per month was also assigned for recreation and culture (15.3 euros), restaurants and hotels (7.8 euros). The Polish pensioners spent only 2.8 euros per month for organized tourism, which points at a small share of seniors in organized tourism, and a definitely higher one in individual tourism.

The pensioners assess their financial status as average. This was the answer pointed at by as many as 61% seniors. Very good status was indicated by slightly over 7%, and bad status – by almost 4% (Table 1). The opportunities of the present and future utilizing tourism, as well as any other goods, by the baby boomer generation is closely bound with their financial status.

The level of living among the different senior populations in many countries is incomparable at present, although it has been shaped as a result of a similar process. In fact, only seemingly similar, as the political, social, and economic situation in various countries after 1945 was absolutely diverse.

Old-age pension benefits in Europe seem undeniably more advantageous as compared with the Polish experience; nevertheless, mainly the money purchasing power in particular countries should be considered in such an analysis. The most advantageous financial situation is that of pensioners living in Luxembourg, with the average old-age pension for a man of over 4000 euros (Table 2). The conditions in Austria, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Denmark are also good; in these countries, men receive pension of over 2000 euros. The worst situation is that of Bulgaria and Romania, where the average old-age pension of a man remains at the level of ca. 200 euro.

Life satisfaction is most often identified with economic well-being, psychological feeling of contentment, feeling of happiness, joy of life. In scientific literature, the notion of quality of life is

applied, and according to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), quality of life can be measured by social indices, not only economic ones, bound with the income level or productivity. Moreover, quality of life is often perceived interchangeably as subjective well-being or life satisfaction. When attempting to assess the relation between the financial status and the quality of life, one should bear in mind the importance of the individual perception of the status. In fact, the seniors' subjective evaluation of their financial condition, both present and future, turns out more pessimistic than in the case of other social groups. Quality of life is determined by interpreting the existential situation of an individual, and the personal perception, desires, needs, experience, accepted values, views, social support become the pillar for the perceived quality of life (Straś-Romanowska, 2005). It is influenced not only with the real income, but mainly with the life situation lowering the general feeling of contentment with life. Among the most frequently enumerated factors determining the seniors' disadvantageous life situation, there are illness, disability, and widowhood. All they contribute to a rise in expenses, at the same time limiting the seniors' free consumer fund (Hołowiecka and Grzelak-Kostulska, 2012).

3.2 Tourism of pensioners in the chosen European countries

According to Winiarski and Zdebski (2008), in the developed countries, the ageing of societies is one of the factors indirectly affecting tourism development in the 21st century. It results in an increasing number of tourists interested in safe transport, peace, comfort, willing to come back to the places they already know and appreciate. The senior tourist traffic is not as intense as in the case of other age groups, but in numerous countries, the share of pensioners in tourism remains even at the level of over 20%. A decrease may be a consequence of physical fitness worsening and a decline in the general health status. The rising passivity does not refer to the whole senior population. Some of them, irrespective of age, do not give up practising tourism, modifying only its intensity and level of difficulty. New trends come into being in the development of seniors' tourist activity, and the old customs also change.

Straś-Romanowska (2005) suggests that such behaviours support the theory of adaptation to age (theory of activity). Owing to the practice of tourism, seniors preserve their activity, maintain social bonds, experience joy of life, and age in an optimal way.

In Europe, the tourist traffic of seniors is apparently diverse. The share of people aged 65 years or more in the number of accommodations provided was especially high for the inhabitants of France and Cyprus, where they constituted 25% of all the accommodations provided in 2014. The seniors' share in the number of accommodations provided is substantial also in the Czech Republic,

Greece, and Sweden (24% each), Ireland, and Portugal (23% each). The other end of the scale is occupied by such countries as Malta (9%), Bulgaria, Latvia, and Slovenia (10% each), and Estonia (11%). Elder tourists are inclined to holiday journeys, especially to Spain and Greece, where foreign tourists made up for over 90% of all the number of accommodations (Table 3).

A difference is clearly seen between highly developed countries and the developing ones. In the former, tourists willingly undertake tourist journeys, unlike in the latter. The reason is substantially higher income on one hand, and a higher consciousness of tourism benefits on the other.

Seniors' tourism expenditures prove their wealth. In 2014, their share was highest in Ireland (21%) and Germany (19%). The lowest contribution of seniors' tourism expenditures was observed in Latvia (5%) and Bulgaria (6%) (Table 4). Inhabitants of Luxembourg, Austria, and Switzerland spend over 100 euro daily during their stay and lead on the list of average daily tourism expenditures. The record is closed by the Czech and Romanians, who spend only 13 euros per day.

According to Śniadek (2007), the observation of these markets indicates that the dominant global future trends in tourism will be the following:

- increasing demand for services bound with health prophylaxis and 'prolonging' youth and life (spa, wellness, resorts);
- increasing demand for rehabilitation services;
- increasing demand for off-season travelling (no crowds, milder temperatures);
- increasing demand for silent, peaceful places, mild in climate;
- increasing demand for more quiet forms of sport, recreation, and entertainment (e.g. golf courses, photography, painting);
- increasing demand for quality, comfort, and safety;
- increasing demand for convenience (e.g. eliminating architectural barriers, ergonomic hotel equipment);
- increasing demand for luxury ('small pleasures');
- increasing demand for products dedicated to those travelling alone (especially women);
- increasing demand for events dedicated to 'active, young grandparents with grandchildren';
- increasing demand for winter journeys to warm countries ('sunny winter holidays');
- decreasing demand for destinations and products perceived as 'less healthy' or less safe;
- increasing demand for cruises and aerial events;
- decreasing demand for tourist bus events.

3.3 Tourism of the Polish pensioners

The research by Oleśniewicz et al. (2015), as well as Oleśniewicz and Widawski (2015) proves that practising tourism is certainly related with taking care of an appropriate level of physical activity, wish to experience something new, to develop passions. In turn, obstacles in undertaking tourist activity are neither financial problems nor physical condition (as many as 78% of respondents are satisfied with it), but mainly lack of original, stereotype-breaking offers, such as topical trips, regional cycles, or offers bound with actively spending leisure time for single seniors or offers for seniors travelling alone.

In 2013, as many as 84.7% Polish seniors did not plan any journey. The rest took part mainly in independent (9.5%) and organized (4.1%) domestic journeys. The smallest group of seniors (merely 1.2%) enjoyed organized foreign journeys (Table 5).

On observing that so few seniors travel, one can ask how they spend their free time intended for recreation. In 2013, the favourite way of spending free time for 26% seniors was listening to music or to the radio, and watching television. Over 13% relaxed reading, and 12% sunbathing or resting in a deckchair. Wandering, walking, and cycling were the perfect way of spending leisure time intended for recreation for 9% seniors, and resting in the open for almost 9%; ca. 7% visited their allotments or practised religious services. The remaining forms of tourist activity were chosen by few seniors (1%).

The analysis of the changes in the ways of spending leisure time shows that the share of the most favourite occupation, i.e. listening to music or to the radio, and watching television, decreased substantially from 44.6% in 2001 to 26.4% in 2013. Considerable modifications were also observed in passive recreation: in 2001, it was practised by as many as 18%, and in 2013 only 12.4%. One could hypothesize that a change in the way of spending free time is taking place among 21st century seniors. Baby-boomers are better educated and more conscious that spending leisure time in front of a TV-set is not beneficial, and passive recreation is not, either (Figure 2).

The new senior society spend their time, following their hobbies, attending religious services, going to the cinema or to the theatre, and visiting museums, exhibitions or monuments of history. In all these realms, a rising trend is observed. The changes are very advantageous, and they reflect the increasing consciousness of the Polish 21st century pensioner. What could be less satisfying is the sole fact that the modifications are still slight.

Tourists' motivations are diverse, and this applies also to seniors. It would be difficult to point at a single, leading reason for tourist migrations in this group. They depend, as in the case of other groups, on the economic status, education, physical condition, or habits. Among the most

significant reasons, the needs to rest and relax are enumerated in the subject literature (Horneman et al., 2002; Lee and Tideswell, 2005). The need to meet other people and to make new acquaintances are emphasised by Acevedo (2003) or Huang and Tsai (2003). The reasons for tourist trips in the group of seniors also include the simple need to discover new destinations, with their cultural and natural attractions that the seniors have always planned to visit (Horneman et al., 2002); visiting relatives plays an important part, too. Moreover, the number of health-related stays in resorts and spa & wellness centres is rising (Widawski, 2011). These motivations characterize the new society of seniors, who appreciate the role of both physical and psychical condition. The 21st century seniors willingly educate themselves by visiting new places.

The analysis of the motivations for the planned journeys among the Polish seniors indicates that in 2013, 40% preferred recreation, 32% travelled to meet their relatives, and 16% aimed at improving their health. Sightseeing and visiting allotments had a significantly smaller share. However, the changes in the pensioners' consciousness are revealed by the observed trends. Seniors appreciated travelling in order to get to know architecture, culture, and nature; therefore, an increase was noted from 2.6% in 2001 to 3.3 in 2013 in this sphere (Table 6).

The choice of accommodation depends on the trip character and the participants' income; however, 21st century pensioners present a demand for maintaining a minimum standard, which determines the fact if the senior benefits from the offer. The length of the senior's trip is obviously variable; the farther the journey, the longer its time. What is also significant is the source of information that seniors use when taking the decision regarding a tourist trip. Most often they rely on their own long-term experience as consumers of the tourist offer. They usually gather information personally from their relatives, friends, neighbours. The mouth-to-mouth model of passing information dominates. An essential source of information is also press, willingly read by the majority of elderly people (Horneman et al., 2002).

Because of the financial status of the Polish seniors, the most popular accommodation for short domestic journeys in 2013 was staying with relatives in the case of 76% of seniors. For almost 9%, the accommodation was their own summer-time house. Only 15% of seniors paid for their accommodation.

Seniors most often travelled in summer months, from May to August (more than 12% for each month); ca. 10% of pensioners travelled in April or September. Spring, autumn, and winter seasons turnout not very attractive for seniors, apart from December, when they pay Christmas visits with their relatives.

Owing to their health status, seniors do not travel far; in 2013, as many as 76% travelled at distances up to 200 km, and among them, 34% chose distances only up to 50 km. Merely 4.5% take

journeys farther than 500 km. The total of 90% did not use booking services, travelling individually. When booking, 5% of seniors did so themselves directly with the service provider, and ca. 4% utilized special organizations.

In 2013, Polish seniors most often chose their own car (63%); a bus or train was the option for 33% of the elderly. This results from the comfort of the journey expected by them. Another advantage of travelling by car is the possibility to stop at a chosen place to relax before further journey. The most frequent aim of the pensioners' journeys was a city, the preferable recreational destination for as many as 38%. This is bound with the fact that the elderly most often travel to visit their relatives who are city inhabitants and who also offer accommodation for them. Almost 30% of seniors choose recreation in the country, and 33% by the seaside or in the mountains.

4 Conclusions

When analysing the tourist mobility of seniors, which is so much different from the activity of the remaining age groups and lower than it could be expected from the purely physical limitations, one should conclude that in the 20th century seniors, several factors accumulated, such as: age, health restrictions, the frequently difficult economic situation, weaker motivation, and lower ability to overcome barriers owing to the lower educational level. Lack of willingness or disbelief in the sense or effectiveness of the undertaken activities aiming to defeat barriers result much from psychological conditions. However, for the new, 21st century seniors, such limitations are less and less significant. Pensioners willingly face challenges and travel. One does not have to persuade American, German, or French seniors of the advantageous influence of tourism and recreation on their feeling of comfort and fitness.

On the basis of the performed analysis, one should conclude that:

- seniors are an internally diverse group;
- the quality of life affects tourist traffic of pensioners to a considerable degree;
- the Polish pensioners' health status translates into the small tourist traffic;
- the perceived economic situation remains far from the actual one.

The hypothesis that the general quality of life positively affects the wish for another journey in seniors has been positively verified. An example is the comparison of Polish and European journeys of pensioners. The higher quality of life in the Western European countries directly impacts the number of undertaken journeys, as well as the amount of money left in tourist

destinations.

In the context of the post-war baby boomer generation entering their retirement age, one should expect a gradual improvement in the group activity (Szukalski, 2008). The decisive factors in this field will include the more advantageous educational structure (increased share of people with higher education), the higher professional activity of women (decreased share of women who have never worked), the rising availability of modern technologies, and, more importantly, the ability to use it obtained before retirement. Additionally, the consciousness of the role of physical and social activity in the human life is of great significance for shaping the lifestyle. Therefore, it should be presumed that the conviction about the benefits of active tourism and recreation in the 21st century seniors will translate into the popularisation of healthy, active lifestyle.

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Table 1 Assessment of the financial status by the households of pensioners and disabled pensioners (%)

<i>Assessment of the financial status by the household</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Pensioners</i>	<i>Disabled pensioners</i>
Very good	6.6	7.4	2.9
Rather good	14.1	15.4	8.6
Average	59.8	61.1	54.3
Rather bad	14.5	12.5	23.3
Bad	5.0	3.7	10.9

Source: own elaboration based on Central Statistical Office data (*Główny Urząd Statystyczny*)

Table 2 Mean old-age pension income in the European Union in 2014 (euros)

<i>Country</i>	<i>Old-age pension (women)</i>	<i>Old-age pension (men)</i>

1	Luxembourg	2207	4017
2	Austria	1530	2498
3	The Netherlands	1356	2239
4	Sweden	1509	2146
5	Denmark	1962	2126
6	France	1263	1970
7	Germany	1035	1871
8	Ireland	1171	1859
9	Finland	1356	1849
10	Belgium	1209	1754
11	Italy	1126	1669
12	Great Britain	1004	1662
13	Spain	831	1255
14	Greece	712	953
15	Slovenia	673	890
16	Portugal	606	880
17	Malta	627	761
18	The Czech Republic	432	502
19	Poland	358	474
20	Slovakia	390	422
21	Croatia	305	405
22	Hungary	314	371
23	Estonia	316	332
24	Latvia	254	305
25	Lithuania	240	271
26	Romania	148	214
27	Bulgaria	112	171

Source: own elaboration based on European Commission data (*European Commission*)

Table 3 Tourism nights spent by people aged 65 years or more living in the European Union member states in 2014

<i>Residence of the tourists</i>	<i>Share of people aged 65+ in all tourism nights</i>	<i>Number of tourism night of the 65+ (1000s)</i>	<i>Of which:</i>	
			<i>domestic</i>	<i>foreign</i>
European Union	20%	1 248 610.9	66%	34%
Belgium	16%	14 794.0	9%	91%
Bulgaria	10%	1648.8	73%	27%
The Czech Republic	24%	32 851.8	89%	11%
Denmark	16%	18 135.5	63%	37%
Germany	21%	271 818.2	45%	55%
Estonia	11%	1526.3	41%	59%
Ireland	23%	14 632.5	27%	73%
Greece	24%	15 218.8	92%	8%
Spain	21%	128 270.7	94%	6%
France	25%	310 078.2	85%	15%
Croatia	13%	6268.5	59%	41%
Italy	17%	53 340.0	88%	12%
Cyprus	25%	4831.5	29%	71%
Latvia	10%	1714.6	55%	45%
Lithuania	12%	2276.5	49%	51%
Luxembourg	13%	1482.2	(1%)	99%
Hungary	15%	9635.4	85%	15%
Malta	9%	260.8	18%	82%
The Netherlands	21%	53 184.6	40%	60%
Austria	17%	17 842.3	40%	60%
Poland	18%	51 069.6	71%	29%
Portugal	23%	14 164.3	88%	12%
Romania	13%	9273.9	89%	11%
Slovenia	10%	1933.3	43%	57%
Slovakia	15%	4759.5	73%	27%

Finland	17%	21 370.2	60%	40%
Sweden	24%	38 789.8	50%	50%
United Kingdom	17%	147 439.3	45%	55%
Switzerland	18%	23 009.8	26%	74%

Source: own elaboration based on European Commission data (*European Commission*)

Table 4 Tourist expenditures of residents aged 65 years or more, by European Union member states in 2014

<i>Residence of the tourists</i>	<i>Share of people aged 65+ in all tourist expenditures (%)</i>	<i>Total tourist expenditures of the 65+ (million euros)</i>	<i>Average tourist expenditure per day of the 65+ (euros)</i>	<i>Difference with total average tourist expenditure (euros)</i>
European Union	16%	65 623.8	52.6	-12.7
Belgium	16%	1324.2	89.5	4.9
Bulgaria	6%	35.6	21.6	-13.6
The Czech Republic	13%	451.2	13.7	-12.8
Denmark	13%	1543.6	85.1	-20.1
Germany	19%	20 649.2	76.0	-9.7
Estonia	7%	55.7	36.5	-24.3
Ireland	21%	1287.7	88.0	-11.9
Greece	15%	274.5	18.0	-10.5
Spain	16%	3808.0	29.7	-9.4
France	20%	15 769.7	50.9	-12.2
Croatia	7%	127.2	20.3	-18.8
Italy	14%	2393.3	44.9	-12.1
Cyprus	16%	219.1	45.3	-24.8
Latvia	7%	42.7	24.9	-9.8
Lithuania	5%	43.4	19.1	-29.3
Luxembourg	12%	179.0	120.8	-9.6
Hungary	8%	185.0	19.2	-17.5
Malta	8%	24.4	93.7	-14.1

The Netherlands	17%	2546.1	47.9	-9.4
Austria	14%	1908.2	106.9	-20.2
Poland	13%	1208.4	23.7	-8.8
Portugal	17%	374.8	26.5	-8.7
Romania	7%	127.7	13.8	-12.4
Slovenia	8%	79.7	41.3	-14.5
Slovakia	8%	137.3	28.9	-29.2
Finland	13%	1647.8	77.1	-24.1
United Kingdom	12%	7365.9	50.0	-19.3
Switzerland	18%	2361.3	102.6	-3.3

Source: own elaboration based on European Commission data (*European Commission*)

Table 5 Planned holiday journeys including at least 4-night accommodation in 2013

<i>Tourist age</i>	<i>People planning holiday journeys</i>				<i>People not planning holiday journeys</i>	<i>Not applicable</i>
	<i>domestic</i>		<i>foreign</i>			
	<i>organized</i>	<i>individual</i>	<i>organized</i>	<i>individual</i>		
65 years or more	4.1	9.5	1.2	1.4	84.7	0.4

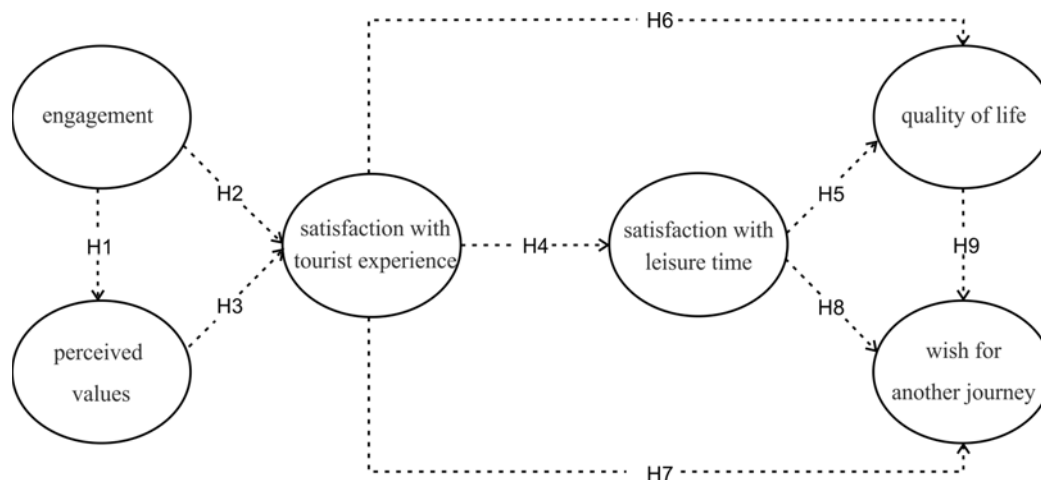
Source: own elaboration based on Central Statistical Office data (*Główny Urząd Statystyczny*)

Table 6 Short-time domestic journeys undertaken by households, according to the journey aim

<i>Year</i>	<i>Recreation, holidays</i>	<i>Sightseeing (architecture, culture, nature)</i>	<i>Meeting relatives or friends</i>	<i>Family events</i>	<i>Health improvement (e.g..resort)</i>	<i>Religious</i>	<i>Other, private</i>
2001	14.6	2.6	66.3	6.6		5.6	4.3
2005	14.4	3.0	66.6	6.9	0.6	7.2	8.3
2009	22.0	3.6	58.6	5.9	1.1	3.7	5.1
2013	22.1	3.3	59.1	6.4	0.5	2.7	3.4

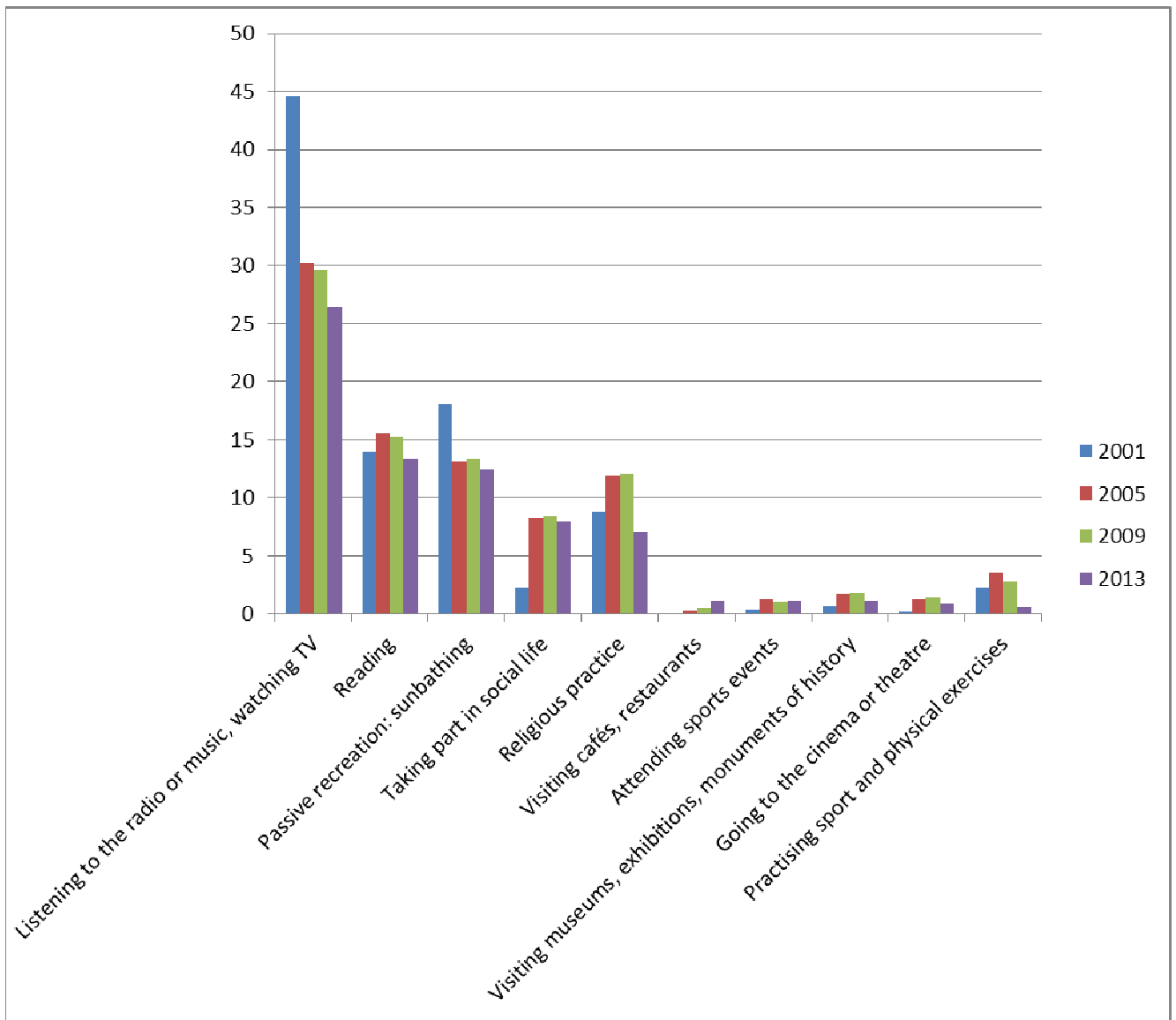
Source: own elaboration based on Central Statistical Office data (*Główny Urząd Statystyczny*)

Figure 1 The theoretical model and the hypotheses referring to the tourist behaviours of the elderly



Source: Kim et al. (2015), p. 469

Figure 2 Favourite ways of spending leisure time intended for recreation among seniors in 2001, 2005, 2009, and 2013 (%)



Source: own elaboration based on Central Statistical Office data (*Główny Urząd Statystyczny*)

Key words: modern society of seniors, modern senior tourism, economic status of seniors, pensioners' leisure time, senior tourism in Poland, senior tourism in Europe

**SEASONALITY, INFRASTRUCTURES AND ECONOMIC GROWTH IN
TOURISTIC ISLANDS.**

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SEASONALITY, INFRASTRUCTURES AND ECONOMIC GROWTH IN TOURISTIC ISLANDS

ABSTRACT

Tourism is the main economic activity in some small islands that have become very dependent on this activity. Sun and beach destinations are characterized by high levels of seasonality, with consequences on unemployment, economic activity diversification and GDP per capita. This paper analyzes the empirical evidence from the Balearic island of Mallorca, one of the most important touristic destinations in Spain. This research has analyzed the existence of correlation between seasonality and unemployment, GDP per capita, housing prices, the paper also examines the importance of location and infrastructure. The variable with a highest explanatory capacity in terms of GDP per capita is the distance to the airport. National and regional governments must consider the importance of infrastructures and the role seasonality plays in economic growth and economic activity diversification; the understanding of these relations will help to develop the most adequate public policies.

Keywords: seasonality, infrastructures, location, islands' tourism.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism and related activities is one the industries with a higher impact in terms of economic activity, representing in 2016 around 10.2% of the World Gross Domestic Product and 10% of total employment worldwide (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2016). Economist have analyzed the relation between tourism and economic growth either from a theoretical perspective (Hazari and Sgro, 2004) or empirical (Dritsakis, 2004); supporting the idea that tourism activity can lead to a higher economic growth. However, tourism activity can create some negative impact, with the idea

of a situation of Dutch Disease as one of the most important ones (Nowak and Sahli, 2007; Capo et al. 2007). In a situation of Dutch Disease the increasing demand on tourism can lead to a situation in which the investment directed to the tourism industries leads to a crowding out effect for investment in alternative industries, generating as a final effect a loss in the net welfare. This situation has been examined mainly for small islands in which tourism ranks as top economic activity. In some islands the importance of travel and tourism expenditure as a percentage of the GDP makes clear the high level of dependency on this industry; 96.5% in Maldives, 62.1% in Seychelles, 43.2% in Cabo Verde or 27.7% in Malta (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2016).

Many touristic small islands can be considered sun and beach destinations, in which tourist are attracted by the weather and the beauty of the natural landscape. This tourism is very dependent on climate conditions, making the economic activity highly correlated with the season (Donatos and Zairis, 1991; Baum and Hagen, 1999; Conell et al, 2015). One of the main objectives of many regional and local governments has been to extend the duration of the peak demand season and to reduce the level of seasonality, but this is a difficult task affected by many factors out of the control of policy makers.

In the context of the importance of tourism Spain is a clear example of how tourism has mixed effects. The financial crisis that started in 2008 was a extremely difficult period for the Spanish economy with the level of unemployment rocketing from less than 10% to more than 25% in 2013. Tourism is one of the activities that has helped to create employment and has shown as steadily and consistent growth in the last decade. International tourist arrivals have reached a maximum of 75.3 million international tourist arrivals in 2016 compared with 58.5 million of international tourist arrivals in 2006 (Spanish Statistical Office INE, 2016). But there is also an open debate about negative effects that tourism can have in terms of public space congestion, effects on housing prices or the excessive dependence of just one economic sector. Spain has different touristic destinations but many of them can be considered sun an beach touristic

destinations, with the Balearic Island and Canary Islands leading the positions of this kind of tourism activity. Table 1 shows the evolution for the island of Mallorca (Spanish Statistic Office INE, 2016), the biggest one of the Balearic Islands.

TABLE 1. INTERANTIONAL TOURIST ARRIVALS TO MALLORCA

Year	International tourist arrivals	Number of beds available
2009	9,024,039	149,495
2010	9,201,824	151,014
2011	10,111,333	150,701
2012	10,365,710	150,336
2013	11,057,460	152,071
2014	11,348,260	154,251
2015	11,649,470	152,973

As the rest of the Balearic and Canary islands, Mallorca shows a clear pattern of high seasonality; considering the last year with complete information, 2016, in February a month will low demand 164,725 international tourist arrived to the island compared with 2,359,277 tourist in July, the month with the maximum number of arrivals (Spanish Statistic Office, INE, 2016).

This paper has analyzed data for 15 different towns of Mallorca, which differ in their level of seasonality. This research has two main objectives, the first one is to analyze if GDP per capita, unemployment or housing prices are correlated with the level of seasonality, the second one is to understand the importance of adequate infrastructures and if the distance to the main entry point of tourists, the airport, is an explanatory variable for GDP per capita differences. The structure of the paper is as follows, section 2 summarizes the literature review, section 3 clarifies the data and

methodology used and the final section covers the main results, their discussion, and future lines of research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW.

Seasonality is defined as temporary different impact of tourism, measured by number of tourists, expenditure by tourists, traffic or employment, through the year (Butler, 2001). Seasonality is one of the main characteristics of many touristic destinations (Commons and Page, 2001; Cuccia and Rizzo, 2011, Bigovic, 2012). Scholars have studied the effects that seasonality has in the tourism industry including its effects on profitability, the challenge it suppose for hotels managers, the options policy makers have to try to reduce it or its relation with economic growth.

Hospitality industry is characterized by high fixed cost and a lower occupancy rate in the low demand season affects directly the firm's financial performance (Jeffrey and Barden, 2000). In the competitive environment in which hotels develop their activity differentiation and innovation can help to improve financial performance; Orfila-Sintes et al. (2016) found statistical evidence of a higher effort in innovation by hotels opening all the year rather than just on the peak demand season. Seasonality not only affects the firm performance, also affects the quality of life to people living in these areas. Seasonal employment, underemployment and unemployment are labour market characteristics associated to geographic areas with peak and low demand seasons (Jolliffe and Farnsworth, 2003), in this context firms must decide if to embrace seasonality or to challenge it. However, the policy makers' efforts to reduce seasonality show a mix of results (Koenig and Bischoff, 2004) with strategies as diversifying the touristic offer to attract potential new customers in the low demand season, implementing events and festival in the period with less tourist flows or identifying new segments markets with more willingness to visit the area out of the peak demand season.

Most scholars agree that seasonality have negative impacts, the low return due to the difficulties of obtaining adequate revenues in the low demand season act as a barrier for attracting new investment (Getz and Nilsson, 2004); in terms of labour market seasonality makes more difficult to retain talented and skilled workers (Chung,2009). According to Balaguer and Cantevella-Jorda (2002) Spanish economic growth has benefited from tourism, however, high seasonality have a negative impact in productivity levels, hence, with a negative impact on GDP per capita in high seasonality tourist destinations (Croes, 2003).

A topic that scholars in the field of tourism have addressed is tourism in islands (Gayle, 2002; Sheldon, 2005; Scheyvens and Monsen, 2008). The geographical constrains related to be and islands make difficult to rely on a competitive manufacturing sector and as a consequence the size of tourism in terms of GDP is especially significant in some of them. Obviously, not all villages will benefit to the same extent from the economic activity related to tourists' flows, the location of each village would be a fundamental factor in explaining the importance of tourism activity. Nevertheless, what becomes a relevant decision is the transport infrastructure and where to locate it, because adequate infrastructures would be crucial in developing the tourism industry. Modelling demand has shown that appropriate infrastructures is an explanatory variable with a positive correlation with number of tourists (Khadaroo and Seetanah, 2007). In particular, using regional data several authors have found that the stock of public capital affects positively economic growth, with a significant and positive income elasticity to public stock. This research focus not at regional level, it looks at the evidence from villages in Mallorca with an important touristic sector, considering the distance to the airport as a variable that measure the positive effects associated to transport infrastructures.

Considering the previous literature review the hypothesis proposed are:

H1: Seasonality has a negative impact in the level of GDP per capita.

H2: Higher seasonality positively correlates with higher levels of unemployment.

H3: GDP per capita is positively influenced by being near to the Airport.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

To test the hypothesis about seasonality and the effects associated with a nearest location to the Airport data from the island of Mallorca has been selected. Mallorca is one of the most important tourist destinations in Spain, attracting every year more than 5 million international tourists. It is an important sun and beach destination, and as a consequence seasonality is a relevant phenomenon. There are many different alternatives to measure seasonality (Karamustafa and Ulama, 2010), in this research we have measured seasonality using the Gini Index, a well-known indicator used mainly in the measure of inequality income or wealth distribution, but that using the adequate transformation can be useful in measuring seasonality. According to Lundtorp (2001) the Gini Index can be measured in tourism as proxy for measuring seasonality considering a demand or supply variable that shows a seasonal pattern. In this article we have considered the number of beds available each month at the villages that have been object of analysis. We define x_i as the number of beds available in the month i (with i taking values from 1 to 12, ordering the 12 months from the one with the lowest supply to the one with the maximum value); y_i is defined as the accumulative number of beds from the first month considered to the month i . The formula to figure out the Gini Index is:

$$G = \frac{2}{12} \sum_{i=1}^{12} (x_i - y_i)$$

This indicator takes values from 0 to 1. The extreme value of 1 corresponds to a situation in which all available beds in the year are only available one particular month; the value of 0 corresponds to the lowest level of seasonality and it reflects a situation of homogenous distribution of beds available through the year; a higher value of the indicator is a measure of higher seasonality.

The data related to the 14 villages selected, all of them Mallorca municipalities with tourism as an important contributor the economic activity proceed from the Statistical Office of the Balearic Islands (IBESTAT, 2016). The variables considered have been hotels' room available each month (2015), percentage of the employment in the hospitality industry, total population, distance to the beach, distance to the airport, rate of unemployment, Gross Income per capita and number of firms per capita, the values correspond to the last available data, 2016. Table 2 summarizes the values corresponding to each village, being them ordered from the lowest to the highest level of seasonality.

TABLE 2. SEASONALITY AND MAIN ECONOMIC VARIABLES

Village	Gini Index, seasonality	Population	Hospitality workers as a share of employment	Unemployment	Gross Income per capita	Distance to the beach (Km)	Distance to the airport (Km)
Calvià	0.3933778	50,328	21,747%	14,68%	26,530€	9,2	30,7
Sóller	0.3981364	13,684	15,066%	11,24%	24,860€	0	31,9
Pollença	0.422354	16,115	15,671%	15,48%	24,136€	0	60,7
Capdepera	0.453831	11,420	22,646%	16,79%	18,665€	0	73,2
Son Servera	0.45433	11,449	25,982%	19,26%	19,293€	0	64,2
Muro	0.463523	6,723	9,087%	15,90%	20,066€	0	57,1
Sant Ll. des Cardassar	0.46852	8,146	15,476%	12,59%	19,753€	0	59,3
Manacor	0.47057	40,170	7,570%	18,59%	21,148€	16,2	50,9
Ses Salines	0.47315	5,018	21,989%	15,56%	22,139€	0	45,7
Santanyí	0.4911	11,316	20,199%	17,55%	21,792€	0	48,6
Andratx	0.5000	11,093	20,456%	14,75%	23,482€	7,2	39,6
Alcúdia	0.5090	19,763	26,328%	18,26%	22,083€	0	59,6
Santa Margalida	0.5099	11,672	19,789%	16,04%	21,825€	11,2	56,2
Llucmajor	0.5977	34,618	13,036%	17,59%	24,953€	17,6	21,7

The first hypothesis to test is the negative effect that a high seasonality has in terms of income per capita. Applying the Shapiro-Wilk test we accept that both variables follow normal distribution, hence, their correlation is tested using the Pearson correlation coefficient. The correlation coefficient is negative, -0.085 but is not statistically significant, and hence, the first hypothesis is not accepted.

The second hypothesis tests the existence of a relation between seasonality and higher levels of unemployment. The Pearson correlation is 0.461, but again not significant. Villages with a level of

seasonality below 0.45 show an average rate of unemployment of 15.49% whereas the villages with seasonality above 0.50 have an average rate of unemployment of 17.30%. Table 3 summarizes these values. These values suggest that working with a higher sample of villages and considering more sun and beach destination would be worthy in terms of concluding the existence of a relation between unemployment and seasonality.

TABLE 3. SEASONALITY AND LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Level of seasonality	Average rate of unemployment
Below 0.45	15.49%
Between 0.45 and 0.50	15.82%
Above 0.5	17.30%

Public capital stock, infrastructures, and in tourism transport infrastructures are a key element in economic development, the fourth hypothesis test the existence of positive relation between distance to the airport and GDP per capita. The Pearson correlation is -0.826 with a p-value 0.000, hence, this relation is accepted at 1% significance level. In fact testing the regression model:

$$Gross\ Income\ per\ capita_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Distance\ to\ the\ airport_i + \varepsilon_i$$

Table 4 shows the results.

TABLE 4. REGRESSION MODEL ANALYSIS

Model	Values	
R square	0.682	
R square adjusted	0.656	
ANOVA F(1,12)	25.786	p-value 0.000
Constant coefficient (intercept)	28,856,319	t = 21.178 p-value 0.000
Airport distance (β)	-133.384	t= -5.087 p-value 0.000

According to R square and R square adjusted the difference in Income per Capita can be partially explained by how far is it village from the airport. The β value implies that each kilometre far away from the airport reduces the Income per Capita in 133.384€. As a consequence of this fact the decision about how to locate the strategic infrastructures that tourism development needs can have a definitive impact on income distribution and regional inequality.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Scholars have analyzed the impact that seasonality has in firms' performance, human resources management, economic growth or employment. Most of the academic literature agrees that reducing seasonality can have a positive impact and in fact many touristic regions have tried to apply policies to reduce seasonality with mixed results. Many of the empirical studies haven

considered regional data, in this context this paper has analyzed municipalities' data, trying to compare if villages in the island of Mallorca with different levels of seasonality show important differences in relevant economic variables.

Unemployment rate correlates negatively (-0.826) with seasonality, however the result is not statistically significant; future research considering a biggest sample of municipalities data would be useful in understanding how seasonality impacts on the labour market. The correlation found between GDP per capita and seasonality was weaker and not significant, perhaps a possible explanation is that employment in the hospitality industry is lower as a percentage of total employment; villages with more seasonality has to develop alternative economic activities with higher productivity that compensates the negative effect caused by seasonality; this would be an interesting line of future research.

To analyze how important is the location of the airport in an island that depends to a great extent on tourism a regression considering GDP per capita as a variable depending on the distance to the airport has been used. The results are significant and interesting. Each kilometre of distance to the airport reduces GDP per capita in 133.384€; distance to the airport matters, and the model has certain capacity to explore differences in GDP per capita, R square adjusted being 0.656. This an interesting result not only for scholars, also form policy makers that must consider how the location of the transport infrastructures can affect GDP per capita at municipalities level and have important consequences on terms of inequality. Future research that widens this analysis to other touristic islands would be extremely useful in a better understanding of the relations between public capital stock and economic growth in touristic islands.

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COMMENTS ON TOURISM SECTOR AND GOVERNMENT POLICIES IN TURKEY

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Extended Abstract

Purpose of the study and questions: Statistical analysis of tourism sector in Turkey and evaluations of general effects of government policies on tourism.

- 1- Is there any positive trend in tourism sector in Turkey after 2000's. (general income/profit, total tourist number, etc.)
- 2- Comparisons with best countries in tourism.
- 3- What are the main government policies on tourism in Turkey?
- 4- Does the tourism policies have any effect on tourism in Turkey?

Method and data:

This study is carried out statistical data usage, analyse and evaluations for tourism sector in Turkey. Data was selected especially after 2000's. Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Treasury, Ministry of Development, Ministry of Finance and etc. data was used for analysing trends. For the policies on tourism; document scanning technique was used to collect data into government official resources. Analysis of documents, laws, formal letters, news, trade union reports was used.

Abstract

Tourism is the one of the trigger factor of economic growth in Turkey. Tourism helps to increase overall wealth and job opportunities throughout the country, can bring new life styles and higher level of income to run-down communities. With these positive effects on economy and society, tourism should be considered as one of the main target variables of the fiscal and structural policies. To help Turkish tourism industry reach its full potential, government should take supportive actions with the different types of policy instruments. Government should advance the tourism to higher level and gear up the huge potential of tourism industry holds to grow Turkish economy. In this study, we try to make a statistical overview on tourism industry in Turkey and analyse the government policies on the tourism sector.

Keywords: Tourism, government, fiscal policy,

JEL Codes: Z3, Z32, E62, L83

TOURISM AND DEVELOPMENT IN EMERGING DESTINATIONS: CAUSE OR EFFECT?

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT (provisional)

The purpose of this research is to analyze the tourism synergies in emerging destinations and its effects on social development and economic inequalities.

In order to do this, several hypotheses have been formulated to be tested in 152 emerging destinations worldwide. This includes 43 out of 48 Less Developed Countries (LDCs) that are characterized by having tourism activity as one of its main exporting sources.

Statistical results reveal a significant correlation between tourism GDP, government expenditures in tourism and population living in slums. In order to measure the strength of these relationships, Pearson coefficient (r) has been used.

Whereas Tourism GDP and government expenditures in tourism are positively correlated (H1), both variables are individually correlated to population living in slums in a negative way (H2 and H3).

H2 supports that tourism GDP has a potential to reduce population living in slums in destinations. On the other hand, H1 proves that tourism development requires corresponding support of public administrations so that tourism can benefit local community.

Finally, H3 remarks public initiative has a key role in tourism development and life conditions of population living in slums.

Findings call into question whether tourism development is the cause or effect of people living in poverty. It implies tourism can be considered a catalyst for local development and lift population out of poverty. On the other hand, it can also be a reason why economic inequalities become more significant in destinations

In order to make sure that tourism development is helping to enhance life conditions of poor people, tourism governance should emphasize on the development of areas that let access these people to benefit from tourism. For instance, incentives to the creation of new local SMEs, reinforcement of agreements between local producers of goods and services and foreign enterprises operating in destination, agreements with foreign investment to invest on tourism infrastructure or a good qualification in priority areas for labour in tourism sector. Above all, pro-poor politics should fulfill the needs of diverse actors in destination (public and private initiative and local community, specially including those in risk of social exclusion). Furthermore, pro-poor mechanisms are required to reduce tourism leakages and prevent these destinations from tourism incomes returning to other economies, given the high degree of foreign organizations operating in emerging destinations.

In conclusion, conception of tourism for development depends on the actions of diverse actors on destination, so that tourism can become the direct effect of local development, or on the other hand, the cause of poverty for local communities.

KEYWORDS: TOURISM DEVELOPMENT; PUBLIC INVESTMENT; SLUMS; ECONOMIC INEQUALITIES

A MULTIDISCIPLINARY APPROACH TO SPORT TOURISM EDUCATION IN A DIGITAL ERA

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ABSTRACT

Sport tourism has enjoyed a plethora of definitional and theoretical perspectives over the last three decades proposing a dynamic alternative to mass tourism with specific structural features and *modus operandi*. However, studies examining or suggesting the basic body of knowledge that would satisfy the educational needs of participants in this complex tourism form are lacking. The present study aims to minor the gap of theoretical support and direction for tourism academics and sport and tourism managers through an analysis of the involved conceptual fields. Hopefully, the result will offer a vision on the further development of sport tourism education to meet the needs of one of the most promising leisure forms. Following an analysis of the major challenges sport tourism education is facing, the article proposes the basic dimensions of a conceptual framework on which to base development of a sport tourism management curriculum.

Keywords: Sport tourism education, tourism management curriculum, ICTs

INTRODUCTION

Tourism has enjoyed remarkable developmental patterns over the last few decades, often largely influencing the national income of countries such as those in the area of the Mediterranean, other European destinations as well as exotic places of the east. Globally, the total contribution of travel and tourism worldwide is expected to generate US\$9.2 trillion by 2021. Forecasts are that by 2018, tourism will provide employment to a projected quarter of a billion people (297 million) worldwide (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2011). Unexpectedly, tourism education has not received substantial attention by the academic institutions, and certainly not equivalent to the significantly growing world tourism industry. In a globalised world, it is necessary to match the urgent demand of professional competences in the sport industry with the educational programs in sport management (Cheng, 2016).

In the same lines, the tourism industry ‘borrows’ related leisure fields to produce the core theme of the new tourism product that will shift the stagnated curve of the tourism lifecycle to a new regeneration stage. Firstly, autonomous new tourism forms demand highly specialized personnel to meet the idiosyncrasies of the core theme that becomes the main reason for travel (De Knop, 1990). In addition, this specialization is designed towards meeting the necessary adaptation that the traditional industry has to undergo in order to rejuvenate a saturated tourism offer i.e. new sustainable practices, green operating mechanisms.

Sport tourism consists one of the special interest tourism forms that has attracted the attention of the academics producing a massive volume of theoretical approaches and research output (Weed, 2009). While the industry and local authorities have embraced the beneficial new development, academic arrangements on sport tourism education is limited. The main purpose of the present study remains an in-depth analysis of the potential to effectively cover the demanding spectrum of a sport tourism curriculum both at an academic and professional level. Thus, producing a

model of applicable academic curriculum would hopefully contribute towards satisfying the educational needs for one of the most complex tourism forms, that of sport tourism.

The present conceptual paper forwards a multi-dimensional model of sport tourism education based on the latest developmental paths presented by this specialized tourism form which simultaneously engaged a wide spectrum of subject areas, taking into consideration the ever-evolving needs of the industry parts to create market-based educational paths as well as public policy developmental skills.

SPORT TOURISM IN NEED FOR SPECIALIZED EDUCATION

Despite the increased literature attention and the obvious potential of sports tourism, the lack of studies regarding sport tourism education is evident. Swart's (2000) research on sport tourism academic courses is the exception to the above, presenting eighty four sport tourism related courses worldwide offered by a variety of academic institutions. However, forty percent of the responding institutions offered specific sport tourism courses while seventy six percent offered sport tourism knowledge through existing courses. The analysis revealed also that the initiation of the programs belonged (as expected) to a twofold academic environment, those of physical education, recreation and sport management or tourism and hospitality related departments.

The evident lack of cooperation between departments and offerings of joint courses was one of the most vivid results of the present study. Departmental egoism suggests claims of dominance upon the thematic ingredients of 'sport' and 'tourism', which along with University battles for a share in research funding usually leads to fruitless efforts. Both academic long-standing fields of sport and tourism usually focus upon their core theme avoiding extension of their boundaries in front of unsecured students' career future and lack of knowledge in its others professional environment. However, following Dale and Robinson's (2001) suggestion, 'theming' would allow tourism to expand tourism education through specialist areas. The same authors support their argument emphasizing the benefits deriving from this thematic specialization like sport tourism such as bridging relationships between involved parts i.e. academics of different departments, professional institutions and industry's managers. Specialization or Dale and Robinson's (2001) 'theming' further develops and defines the importance of the academic field. Sciences have evolved through the successful offer of specialized degrees such as the characteristic example of the business studies benefitting from a wide range of related sub-subjects or inter-scientific programs. Despite some parts of the literature arguing that professionals tend to prefer more generalized education, rather than a certain specialization (Ayres, 2006) the industry and overall the employment sector benefit from new professionals of high caliber equipped with knowledge on their basic subject as well as a related specialized field.

METHODOLOGY

The present analysis provides a range of approaches to assist in the difficult task of mapping a sport tourism curriculum, not only in terms of the course structure, but also

in terms of the relationship between the course and its evolving tourism environment. The study used a range of research techniques including analysis of available secondary sources such as course guides, internet official university's sites, policy declarations, etc. In addition, the theoretical models mapping the nature and operation of the sport tourism form have been thoroughly examined to produce the basic thematic dimensions of a relevant conceptual framework. Literature review as well as search through the internet promises valid accessibility and suitability of data since the information obtained offer valuable insight to the study goals and direct information to the set objectives (Saunders *et al.*,2009).

The study engages an in-depth analysis of the theoretical approaches that have evolved over the last few decades offering different applicable forms of sport tourism. The examination of existing theoretical paradigms aims to produce appropriate fields of possible academic education leading to well skilled professionals. The study concludes with a multi-dimensional framework that could facilitate a sport tourism management curriculum encompassing all aspects as presented in the international literature and academic reality.

A CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF SPORT TOURISM EDUCATIONAL FIELDS

The relevant literature has now matured to create specific areas of applying sport tourism management fields after years of conceptual wondering and definitional arguments. Sport tourism has produced a wide variety of policy and management areas in public and commercial organizations demanding specific skills and body of knowledge to achieve effective professional performance which are analysed below.

The Public Tourism Policy Spectrum

It has been one of the most influential initiating factors of sport tourism development at both nontraditional and underdeveloped areas but also at the mass tourism destinations with long experience of producing public initiated programs and initiatives (Jackson and Weed, 2003). The highly centralized tourism systems of the certain countries met mainly at the Mediterranean have developed homogeneous models of tourism development that characterized the last four decades and produced positive results for the local economies but are now in need for product regeneration.

Jenkins (1980) early emphasized the lack of attention given to the training and education of tourism policy makers arguing that tourism policy makers' education should be academically-based rather than experience-based and certainly distant from the traditional professional training. The dependency of certain countries to government intervention in tourism dictates the need to invest on the education offered to public-sector tourism managers and administrators. The mechanisms of public policy making and the complex nature of the political action need to be thoroughly examined in any tourism education degree to enlighten governmental thinking, political influences and intra-organisational relations. Idiosyncrasies met between different political authorities that have affected tourism developments worldwide could contribute to the necessary body of knowledge.

Sustainability and Tourism Development

Alternative tourism has emerged with the rise of the new green consciousness. The negative impacts of uncontrolled tourism development met in mass tourism destinations endanger not only the local environment but also the future travelling experience. The World Tourism Organization defines sustainable development as “the development that meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and life support systems” (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005).

Sport tourism is early considered by literature to be one of the greenest tourism proposals for future development. Presenting a limited environmental impact and attracting a clientele characterized by sensitive tourist behavior and consciousness, the sustainable sport tourism profile dominated the '90s relevant literature (De Knop, 1990; Krippendorf, 1987). Sport tourism forms such as: sea sport tourism, golf and trekking are proposed as having the abilities to develop tourism according to the principles of sustainability and the everlasting natural resources and preserved environment.

Higher education programs have tried to include sustainability and this can be seen in the rise of programs such as the Tourism Education Futures Initiative, which advocates a strong focus on sustainability by identifying stewardship as an important value (Sheldon, Fesenmaier, & Tribe, 2011), and the Principles of Responsible Management Education (2011), a United Nations-supported program aimed at encouraging management and business education activities to incorporate principles from the United Nations Global Compact.

The Dynamic Tourism Industry

Heavily affected by the governmental declarations, policy announcements and central actions present an idiomorphic reaction mechanism to developments. Focused on short term returns and been skeptical on insecure long term developmental programs tourism enterprises hold the final tourism offer and its evolution.

The tourism industry has always demonstrated fast reactions to developing trends by formulating an appropriate or redirecting the previous offer. A plethora of relevant sport tourism-friendly studies strongly emphasize sport's 'integral part' in the new tourism supply era (Jackson and Weed, 2003). The commercial tourism sector evidently benefits from attracting parts of the existing but also new sport-related market segments that the sport tourism development brings. Jackson and Reeves (1996) sports tourism demand 'continuum' remains conceptually helpful to understand the spectrum of sports tourism products that can derive from tourists' sport relation and participation level. From 'occasional' where sport is significant to 'driven' where sport is the essential reason to travel this demand spectrum summarizes the numerous opportunities for the tourism business to answer through a tailor-made offer.

Similar to the above, the rise of the 'quality' perspective in management inevitably affected tourism development. One of the suggested public policy directions to face the degrading tourism offer of traditional destinations is 'quality tourism'. Improved

quality tourism offer becomes synonymous to competitive product in front of a homogeneous tourism market. Greece, Spain and similar mass tourism destination have mapped similar policies to face a stagnated tourism environment offering generous subsidies to tourism businesses to invest in the direction of 'quality' either through upgraded infrastructure or new services. Ritchie (1995) agreed that management skills should also evolve to provide a quality tourism experience on a sustainable direction. Borrowing knowledge from numerous social scientific fields a quality oriented strategy is using effective marketing tools to attract a high-end clientele while the same time engages specific knowledge from practitioners to design the viable sport tourism product. Golf, tennis, water sports, sailing and advanced fitness services have been included in public policy initiatives to revive destinations towards a quality new image.

Sport tourism has been applied in different localities to achieve a new rejuvenated offer or map a certain image for new localities wishing to invest in tourism. Spanish islands in the 90s (Lanzarote), Arabic countries in the '00s (Dubai, Qatar) as well as numerous Asian and American cities have invested heavily in sporting events such as Asian and Olympic Games, to regenerate local economies but most importantly create a strong local brand name. It is of great importance that a sport tourism management curriculum advances skills of innovative policy design, efficient marketing analysis and effective promotional mechanisms to overall produce an influential sport tourism strategy for a certain destination.

Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) effect on Tourism Experience, Education and Environment

Tourism Enterprises constitute the most dynamic part of the tourism environment advancing their operation through sophisticated technological systems and managerial functions. The existence of Web 2.0 and online communities (known as computer-mediated communities, virtual communities, or simply e-communities) has generated a great deal of interest among scholars as well as business practitioners. The emerging importance of networks, partnerships and alliances between firms and other agents and the advances in so-called Web 3.0 technologies are also changing firm structures and value chains or value networks, and the configuration of decision-making processes for managers (Garrigos-Simon., Narangajavana, Barbera-Ribera, Estelles-Miguel, 2012). Thus, the integration of information and communication technologies (ICTs) into the organizational fabric of those businesses involved in the tourism economic development, is an important key to success. Nevertheless, ICTs can be fruitful only if "certain prerequisites are satisfied, namely long term planning, innovative business processes re-engineering, top management commitment and training throughout the hierarchy" (Buhalis, 1998, p.410). Internet allows the communication on one-to-one basis, one-to-all-to-one basis and one-to-all basis (Siomkos and Tsiamis, 2004).

Furthermore, it becomes imperative to integrate technological advancements into educational environments (Cheng, 2009; Chow, 2013; Makki & Makki, 2012; Türel, 2011), in order to achieve a supportive and flexible educational system (Lee, 2010). Technological advancements in the tourism industry should also be incorporated in the sport tourism education system, since they not only support the traditional learning but also complement new forms of learning by using information-related technologies. Incorporation of ICT skills in the sport educational system creates

experiences that support the learning process of students (Stantchev, Colomo-Palacios, Soto-Acosta, & Misra, 2014), make them more active in the learning process (Saadé, Morin, & Thomas, 2012) and inevitably more competitive in the sport tourism market.

The Evolving Sports Environment

Sport is one of the most dynamic evolving social and managerial schemes of the leisure industry. The main component of the sport tourism experience ‘sport’ constantly evolves its intrinsic as well as its commercial adaptation to secure an effective development future.

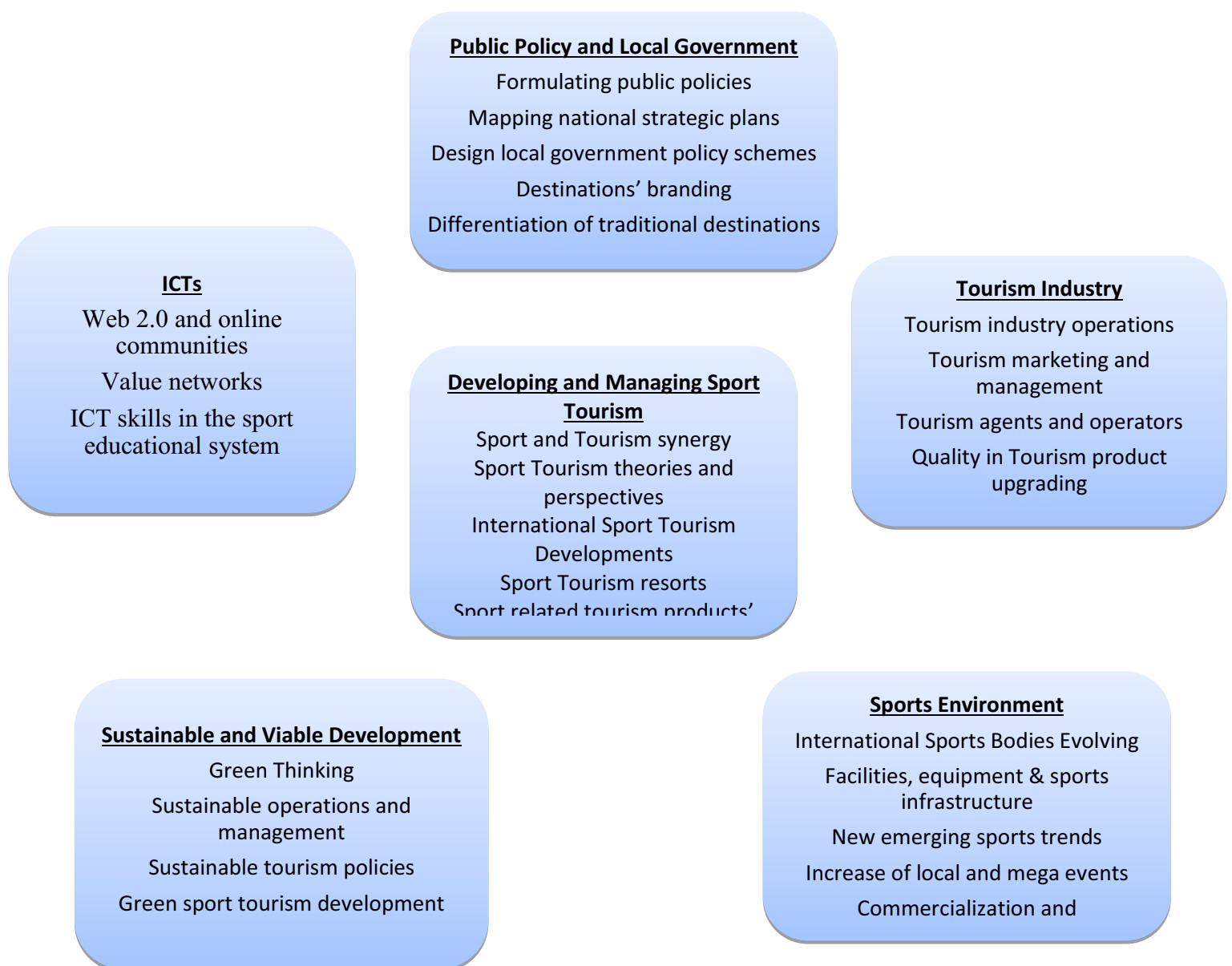
The ‘structure’ of the sports industry is one of the most complicated environments where public bodies, amateur nonprofit organizations and adversely, fierce business activity is met under the same roof. Consequently, this market function presents rapid reactive mechanisms by exploiting all promising aspects of sports in order to constantly produce innovative products. To facilitate understanding of the sports spectrum, Robinson’s (2003) typology is engaged here focusing heavily on the fast commercialization of sport following the increased demand for high quality products shifting away from spontaneous leisure. The author describes the significant ‘commercialization’ of sports bodies which largely become market-oriented with profit-maximizing strategies and innovatively responsive to the needs of the sports customer. This trend will directly affect the creation of sports products to be consumed in the tourism market which will have to constantly monitoring the emerging sports trends. Secondly, the dramatic increase of ‘sport spectating’ has become of the most significant developmental trends for cities investing in mega-events to increase attention. The magnitude of operating mechanisms involved in a large scale event commercializes sport further given the increased involvement of media, sponsors, advanced technology, international bodies, super-athletes and gigantic facilities.

THE ULTIMATE GOAL: THE SPORT TOURISM MANAGEMENT CURRICULUM

Specialised degrees should include knowledge on the nature of sport tourism initiatives’ application at different commercial environments and the demand as expressed by the respective market. The profile and behavior of the sport tourism customer as well as the different facets of sport involvement during travelling should be examined to produce knowledge for the different products offered. The wide variety of sport tourism forms dictate the need to engage apart from relevant theoretical approaches, numerous applied case studies already developed in different parts of the world successfully. The main idiosyncrasy of this tourism form is the diversity of the sport-related activities ranging from radically alternative and green to those incorporated into highly seasonal and traditional resorts.

The present analysis is summed up in Table 1 in an attempt to offer a design tool when producing a sport tourism curriculum. The study can serve as an initiating point of academic discussion and a field for amendments and definite improvements to satisfy the goals of an effective course. Different departmental as well as professional approaches could lead to an extended carrier and academic paths securing the future of sport tourism.

Table 1. A thematic framework of structuring a sport tourism management curriculum



CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The dramatic rise of tourism market segmentation would not consequent to the rise of the specialized tourism education. In the era of specialization, sport tourism education seems to be lacking specified curriculums to support new professionals as well as existing public policy makers. The main goal of the present paper was to offer a conceptual guidance towards the build of sport tourism specific curriculums based on the theoretical perspectives presented in the international literature. Building sport tourism-specific courses enhances the importance and contributes to sport tourism development further. The structuring of sport tourism curriculum constitutes a demanding task since it will inevitably engage considerable parts of other social sciences to cover the spectrum needed.

Institutions seeking to embrace a sport tourism curriculum are facing one of the most difficult thematic challenges. The dual role of educating public tourism sector policy makers, and on the other hand preparing new tourism professionals produces a four dimensional model of conceptual spheres that have to be thoroughly covered to be efficient. The widely reviewed sport and tourism interrelationship demands an increased body of knowledge at both directions to be educationally effective. Developing public tourism policy and implementation of designated programs demand political thought, sociological perspective and managerial skills. International evolving theories affect developmental policies while local political and societal conditions detect their direction. A fierce tourism industry will react autonomously to proposed public policies while seeking to satisfy expressed demand. And last but not least, sport continues to operate with an idiosyncratic mode through a non homogenous mixture of public and business partners that a curriculum should thoroughly examine.

The proposed multi-dimensional curriculum for sport tourism aims to serve as a guiding tool for academics and institutions with a common interest in sport tourism education. However, additional research is needed to enlighten the four dimensions focusing on the included elements by academics of the related fields. The complexity of issues described at the present formula urge for the thorough interrogation by related experts to maximize course efficiency.

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LANGUAGE TRAVEL SUPPLY: STAGING MEMORABLE EXPERIENCES¹

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LANGUAGE TRAVEL SUPPLY: STAGING MEMORABLE EXPERIENCES

Abstract

Drawing on a taxonomy of the language tourism product's travel components, this paper reports on a survey that was conducted in Barcelona (Spain) among 234 international university students between 2015 and 2017. The respondents had a major interest in learning Spanish and getting to know the local culture. They were requested to fill in a structured questionnaire with a combination of open and closed questions to find out different aspects concerning their profile, the opportunities for interacting with local residents, their accommodation, catering, leisure and transport arrangements in Barcelona, and the costs deriving from their academic stay. The results provide an overview of key travel-related features that must be taken into consideration in the conception, staging and evaluation of language tourism experiences.

Keywords: language tourism, study abroad, educational tourism, academic mobility

1. INTRODUCTION

The UNWTO states that cultural tourism involves movements of people originated by cultural motivations, such as study tours. Cultural tourism as a category in its own has progressively been broken down into different subtypes of activities or products with particular management approach and challenges, like educational tourism, which in turn includes the subcategory of language travel. Some definitions of cultural tourism are based on tourists' motivations, whereas others look at this phenomenon from an experiential point of view, and most definitions also encompass an operational aspect referring to specific activities (DuCros & McKercher, 2015).

This paper can be located in the intersection between language studies, the internationalisation processes carried out at educational institutions and the commercialisation of study abroad programmes. It follows from a line of study which in the last years has designed a conceptual framework for language tourism, it has identified and categorised its variables, and aims at analysing the impacts this tourism niche currently produces, as well as the ones it should generate.

The paper further develops a part of the language tourism market system related to the supply, namely the travel component of the language tourism product, which was sketched in previous studies (see Iglesias, 2016, 2017) and will be detailed in the literature review section. On the basis of this theoretical framework a survey was conducted, the results of which will be reported.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The benefits of student mobility in higher education contexts are well-known. The variety of inputs they receive enables students to learn from contrast. Furthermore, they develop their foreign

language skills and international task management competences, which usually leads to an inclination towards future professional mobility (Teichler, 2013).

A study based on 46,537 comments made by 16,861 higher education students on the platform www.STeXX.eu in 2013 concluded that they were generally very satisfied with their study abroad experience in Europe (Ellis & Van Aart, 2013). The most influential factors were the host city's atmosphere, looks and size (which accounted for 25% of all the positive reasons), the approachability and friendliness of the locals (14%), the services provided by the host university (11%), and the personal and professional development deriving from their stay (11%).

With respect to the latter, international students seemed to love discovering new cultures and were eager to learn new languages or enhance existing language competences during their study period. Developing language skills is usually considered a driver for international mobility, as living in a foreign country is regarded as the best way to improve linguistic ability. The respondents mentioned that they learned a foreign language for academic reasons or because it was a means to have better job prospects and it was part of discovering the local culture. In addition to learning the local language, some international students also took the chance to develop their English skills in a multilingual context.

The travel constituents of international mobility programmes can also be found in language tourism products. Such products consist of a combination of language learning and travel components (see Iglesias, 2017 for a more detailed explanation). Let us focus on the latter.

With respect to accommodation, establishments can be subject to different classifications following the local regulations of a given geographical area. For example, in the Spanish region of Catalonia the Decree 159/2012 enacted by the Catalan government stipulates that taking into account their basic characteristics, hotel establishments as a category are classified into two subcategories:

- a) Group of hotels: including Hotels (H) and Apartment hotels (HA). The hotels and apartment hotels are classified into seven categories according to a star rating system: one star or basic, two stars, three stars, four stars, four stars superior, five stars, and GL or great luxury.
- b) Group of hostels or pensions, classified in a unique category identified by a P.

Other distinct lodging categories for tourists' use specified in the Decree 159/2012 comprise:

-Apartments (AT).

-Campsites: categorised according to their buildings, facilities and services as luxury (L), first (1st), second (2nd) and third (3rd).

-Rural tourism establishments (TR): classified into Farm houses and Rural lodges depending on whether or not the owner obtains income from agricultural activities, livestock or forestry. For each one of these two categories different modalities exist depending on the owner's place of residence (in the same region, in the neighbouring municipalities, or in the very same house).

-Private lodging: article 69 of the Decree 159/2012 cryptically states that such lodging may be categorised in accordance with voluntary systems of tourism categorisation.

Concerning the operational aspects of such establishments, ownership has a role to play, since the kind of relationship language tourists develop with the owners can be a key aspect of the tourism language experience (for example in home stays). Being independent or part of a chain has implications in terms of business marketing and exploitation.

Cost is usually a major concern for consumers. Once they get to their destination young language tourists sometimes spend their first nights in budget accommodation options like youth hostels. Inexpensive housing alternatives are increasingly sought, for example among Airbnb users who rent short-term lodging through this on line broker. Cost may correlate with the provision of services, and the facilities and services provided by the accommodation establishments determine their categorisation according to different rating systems.

Another ingredient linked to the provision of services is specialisation. Nowadays more and more accommodation providers exist specialising in targeted lodging for academic or educational tourists, for example in a student residence hall. On the other hand, the autonomy of the language tourists can be influenced by whether they are staying at a self-catering apartment, where they can be more independent, or at a serviced home stay, where they may integrate in the family's lifestyle and daily routines. The tourists' ages are determining in this sense, as children and teenagers tend to stay with host families if they travel alone and at student residence halls if they travel as a group, while apartments are mostly used by older language travellers. Age is an important variable in relation to housing arrangements, but it is not the only one. Other demographic features such as the tourists' gender and travel party also play a fundamental role (for an in-depth description of the elements associated to demographic microsegmentation in language tourism see Iglesias, 2015a).

Regarding housing capacity, large establishments providing accommodation for large groups are conducive to different relationships among the users and between the users and the hosts, owners or staff than small lodging options.

The location in turn affects the product composition of study abroad stays, not just in terms of the travel components but also in relation to the language learning components, i.e. the educational input and language learning complements (Iglesias, 2017). Being geographically located in a city or in a natural area determines the kind of resources and tourist services language tourists have access to, and this can impact on their language tourism experience (Iglesias & Feng, 2017). Obviously, the nature of language learning programmes based on farm stays or work camps varies a great deal from those in coastal villages or in winter sport resorts, which in turn differ substantially from those in urban settings. The same can be said about their closeness to the educational or work setting, the destination's resources and their connectivity (Iglesias & Feng, 2017).

As mentioned above, some accommodation formats naturally facilitate the tourists' interaction with their peers (for example if taking part in a work camp or staying at a student residence hall, apartment or youth hostel), the locals (friends, service providers, or even teachers in home tuition language programmes) or the host families (for example in the case of au-pairs). This can have a direct effect on both the tourists' target language learning, on their perception of the local culture and host community, on their integration and identity transformation, and on the satisfaction with the overall language tourism experience. These aspects have been examined in detail in previous research (Iglesias, 2014, 2015a, 2015b, 2016, 2017; Iglesias & Feng, 2017).

Let us focus on the second category of travel-related factors, namely those referring to transport. Transport carriers can be operated by a private company (e.g. coach companies) or not privately operated. An example of the latter is Transports Metropolitans de Barcelona (TMB), the main public transit operator in Barcelona. It runs most of the metro and local bus lines in Barcelona and the metropolitan area as well as other transport services, like Barcelona Bus Turístic (<https://www.tmb.cat>). Other operational arrangements can lead to distinguishing scheduled from charter transport. In aviation, for instance, airlines may publish in advance the arrangements for their regular scheduled flights, i.e. the date and time of departure and the points of departure and arrival. This enables the airline company to sell individual seats for a scheduled flight as announced, whereas in the case of charter flights the customer and the airline agree on the date, time and remuneration for such flights.

Concerning cost, a low cost carrier has a relatively low-cost structure and offers low fares. Of course, the wide range of tariffs available nowadays, ranging from budget to luxury, are subject to the services offered by transportation companies. Services (e.g. food and beverages) can be included in the price of the ticket or not integrated and therefore be paid at an extra cost. As well as integration, another aspect of service provision is its classification in different categories. The rating system used by transport providers usually is an indication of the services offered on board. Some means of transport are not categorised following a rating system (e.g. taxis), while others distinguish between first and standard class, and use different names to refer to them (e.g. economy, tourist, business, etc.). On the other hand, although there are no golden rules when it comes to transportation capacity, the transportation of individuals may allow for independent travel, while collective transport may facilitate mass travel.

Local regulations affect the supply of transport services for tourists. For example, in terms of international air travel they can lead to a regulated transport system where a country controls its airspace or to a liberalised, unregulated system featuring an open-skies policy. In the context of aviation apart from IATA, the International Air Transport Association for the world's airlines which helps formulate industry policy at an international level (<http://www.iata.org>), national governments can also play a key role (Page, 1994).

With respect to the transportation scope, the means of transport used within a given destination can be differentiated from those enabling passengers to travel from their place of origin to their target destination, either on short or long haul journeys.

In relation to means of transport, they can be classically classified into air, water and land, and typically these categories can in turn be broken down into subcategories. Obviously, several alternative criteria can be considered to create subdivisions according, for example, to efficiency, speed, frequency, comfort, environmentally-friendly policies, carbon footprint, facilitation of interaction among passengers (on coach excursions, for instance), users' profile in terms of demographic features like age (e.g. in the case of transporting children and the special needs they may have or the travel requirements they may be subject to), and location, both concerning the geographical area where a carrier operates (e.g. in urban vs. natural settings) and regarding the closeness to the context where educational or professional activities are carried out.

As regards travel to, from or within a specific destination, the route is another aspect to be taken into account, be it direct or with stopovers. Finally, the last characteristic to consider is connectivity. In this respect, point-to-point transit refers to a transportation system which takes users directly to a destination, whereas a spoke-hub distribution network entails travelling to a central location where passengers transfer to another vehicle to reach their final destination.

Moving on to the third category, i.e. catering, board type as a subcategory can be examined. The meals arrangements in language learning programmes can range from their total or partial inclusion to their total exclusion. The kind of accommodation used by language travellers may have a correlation with the type of board. For example, home stay usually contemplates breakfast, half board or even full board at weekends, breakfast or half board can be provided at a serviced residence hall, and apartments are self-catering and therefore include no meals.

The different consumption options depend on a number of variables. Time, both in terms of availability and schedules, can be an important constraint which affects meal arrangements. Other relevant factors comprise the language tourists' gastronomic preferences, budget and cost, location, the diversity of the offer to choose from, the users' specific health requirements and their social needs, which may just lead them to satisfy their basic necessity to eat or entail different socialisation degrees often associated to leisure. Moreover, some demographic aspects like the consumers' age, origins (both in relation to purchasing power and geographical provenance) and travel companions can allow for subcategorisation.

The same taxonomy related to accommodation is valid for food and beverage establishments. To illustrate different typologies according to the local regulations the case of Spain can be observed. Each Spanish autonomous community has the power to legislate and supervise catering establishments. Some communities, like the Canary Islands, disregard categorisation, whereas others, like Castile and Leon, classify their establishments using a fork rating system. For instance,

in Asturias, following the Decree 32/2003 on the management of catering activities, catering establishments are classified in accordance with their characteristics in the following groups:

- a) Restaurants.
- b) Cafeterias.
- c) Bars, cafes or similar. Cider bars can be classified in groups a) or c) depending on their characteristics.

Furthermore, according to the quality of their facilities and services, restaurants are classified in these categories: luxury, first, second, third and fourth, identified by five, four, three, two and one fork respectively, while cafeterias are in turn classified in these categories: special, first and second, identified by three, two and one cup respectively.

To finish with, the last category that will be analysed is leisure. Most of the aspects used to categorise accommodation can actually be applied in relation to leisure establishments. A crucial aspect is the type of activities carried out by language tourists. They can be directly or indirectly related and conducive to language learning, and can therefore be regarded as language learning complements. Nevertheless, language travellers may also take part in leisure events or pursuits that have no relation at all with learning the target language (for a detailed analysis of the role and nature of leisure in study abroad language programmes see Iglesias, 2017).

The variety of leisure options on offer at language stays is increasingly valued by consumers, and fierce competition among language programme providers originates an impressive array of diversified alternatives. Different leisure consumption choices may be influenced by a number of variables, such as the time or money spent on them. Another determining factor is the sojourners' hobbies or preferences, which may not necessarily have to do with having fun itself, but with living transformational or self-realisation experiences, volunteering or undertaking social work, and the need to interact and integrate in the host community. In addition, the geographical context where leisure takes place cannot be overlooked, as the weather, location, and natural and cultural resources available at the destination can be essential players. The same can be said with regard to demographic features, which can lead to microsegmentation, for example in terms of age, gender, origins, travel party, education and occupation (Iglesias, 2015a). Of course, physical characteristics (e.g. being fit for sports) can also determine specific sorts of leisure.

The travel-related aspects that have been categorised are some of the constituents of the language tourism product composition. Nevertheless, the product itself is just one of the many elements that build up the language travel experience from a supply perspective, alongside the marketing and management structures, and the destination's environmental and social resource base. As to the demand, the key elements are the language tourists' demographics, travel behaviour, motivations and perceptions (Iglesias, 2016).

Tourism experiences have been defined by Tung and Ritchie (2011) as “an individual’s subjective evaluation and undergoing (...) of events related to his/her tourist activities which begins before (...), during (...) and after the trip” (Tung and Ritchie, 2011, p.3). Therefore, we can live memorable experiences if the process is irreversible, unique and intrinsically valuable for us, we are emotionally involved and highly focused, all our senses are engaged, we lose track of time, we look forward to it, and we do challenging but feasible activities which have a playful component and a sense of authenticity (Boswijk et al., 2012).

According to Bulencea and Egger (2015), experience design needs to take into account the push factors (inherent to users) and pull factors (relating to the supply, like the destination’s attractiveness in terms of both tangible and intangible assets). Reisinger (2013) states that tourism has a very significant transformational potential which actually underlies human well-being, and certain types are particularly conducive to it, such as educational, volunteer, cultural or community-based tourism.

For Pine and Gilmore (1999), who conceptualised the experience economy, the next stage in the experience economy consists in offering transformational experiences, so going beyond the sheer provision of isolated memories should be the aim of companies willing to distinguish themselves from the rest. Rather than satisfying customers’ needs, the own customers should play an active role in fulfilling their aspirations, desires and dreams. The companies that outperform their competitors will be the ones that can stage a series of different events that lead to experiencing self-actualisation, so apart from creating the most propitious environment it is fundamental to diagnose personal aspirations, to set realistic goals and guiding processes that can strengthen individual weaknesses, to customise such processes to suit each tourist’s profile, and to engage with them in a post-experience phase.

The above mentioned considerations regarding different aspects of the language travel experience constitute the conceptual framework underlying the research that will be reported henceforward.

3. METHODOLOGY

Data for this qualitative study were collected between April 2015 and March 2017 through a self-completed structured questionnaire distributed to a total of 303 foreign students who were not native Spanish speakers. To be more specific, 102 of them took part in a 4-month study abroad programme with Arcadia University (US) and had the possibility of taking courses from Pompeu Fabra University in Barcelona (Spain). The rest enjoyed an academic stay at CETT-UB School of Tourism, Hospitality and Gastronomy, from the University of Barcelona. In the context of CETT-UB, 113 international students benefited from university mobility programmes and 88 used the services of different study abroad providers to arrange their academic sojourns, and almost all of them took some credits of the Bachelor’s Degree in Tourism Management. They came from all over the world, most of them for 3 to 6 months, in the second semester of the academic year 2014-15 or between September and June of the academic years 2015-16 and 2016-17.

Most of the students were asked to fill in the questionnaire before or after a class. It consisted of 4 sections, each one made up of 5 questions, so it amounted to a total of 20 questions. The first 3 sections consisted of closed multiple choice questions which sometimes were combined with open-ended questions and required single answers or double answers, whereas section 4 exclusively posed open-ended questions.

Eventually 234 questionnaires were collected, yielding to a 77.2% response rate. The data corpus consisted in the information provided by international students coming from 24 different countries, but it must be highlighted that 59.8% of the respondents were from the US and that 3 of them had multiple nationalities. Each one of the 4 sections was processed separately by means of descriptive statistics in order to obtain data based on percentages and average figures.

4. RESULTS

To start with the data analysis, the initial filter question Q4 was particularly relevant when segmenting the data corpus on the basis of motivations, since it was a multiple answer question concerned with the students' travel motivations. The results show that for 94% of the international students who took part in this study learning Spanish was one of their main reasons for academic mobility, and for 63% of them getting to know the Spanish culture was also an important motivation. On the other hand, 15% of the students were attracted by the educational programme on offer at the target academic institution, and 19% had other various motives, like the city itself and the lifestyle.

The vast majority of the respondents (93%) did not have an advanced level of Spanish and considered that their prior level was basic (58%) or intermediate (35%), so there was room for improvement. As a matter of fact, 43% believed that their communicative competence in Spanish had improved a little and 40% felt their progress had been quite noticeable. Actually, 57% thought it had been quite easy to adapt to a Spanish speaking environment. The interaction with locals, reported as quite frequent by 46% of the respondents, may have facilitated such adjustment, even though more than half of them did not interact very often in Spanish with Spanish university students (59%) or with other international students (51%).

Moving on to the findings related to the use of tourist services in Barcelona, 76% of the respondents reported to share apartments, and 10% lodged at a student residence hall. As they could give a multiple response, other accommodation options were accounted for: home stay with a host family (11%), individual apartments (2%), hotels or hostels (1%), and staying with friends or relatives (1%). Additionally, 3% stated that they had used the services of Airbnb. For most of the respondents (73%) meals were excluded from the accommodation arrangements, while some meals or even all of the meals were included for 23% and 4%, respectively. Therefore, generally speaking they ate out one or twice a week (46%), between 3 and 7 times a week (46%) or even more than 7 times a week (8%). Almost everybody (99%) used public transport during their stay, in combination with taxis (42%) or private transport (4%), such as their own cars, bicycles or skateboards.

The respondents engaged in leisure activities such as cultural visits (82%), night activities (78%) and sport activities (32%). Concerning the local culture, 25% had gone on sightseeing tours around Barcelona. In addition, another 25% mentioned visiting museums, e.g. the Picasso Museum or the Barcelona Museum of Contemporary Art (MACBA). They also visited local monumental constructions such as Sagrada Familia (18%) or Parc Güell (12%), as well as Football Club Barcelona stadium (13%) or Tibidabo amusement park (3%). Moreover, 6% also enjoyed some cultural events and festivals, like the human towers (castellers). Besides, 15% made excursions to surrounding areas, such as the sacred mountain of Montserrat or the picturesque coastal village of Sitges, and 3% also travelled to other Spanish regions or European countries. Incidentally, 1% took part in volunteering tasks. In this respect, it must be pointed out that Arcadia University students are usually offered the opportunity to cooperate with t-oigo, a Spanish association which helps children with hearing impairment through their program Allies in English (<http://www.t-oigo.com>). Thus, foreign students can visit families with hearing-impaired children and spend an afternoon playing in English with them. Other more specialised volunteering tasks can also be arranged, e.g. physiotherapy students can cooperate with a multiple sclerosis centre.

In terms of nightlife, the majority of the students (67%) used to go to pubs, clubs or discos, whereas going to restaurants (14%), to the cinema or theatre (3%), and to friends' parties (3%) were less popular options. As for sport pursuits, a wide range of sports were practiced, mainly jogging or hiking (12%), working out in the gym (8%), football (4%), swimming (3%) and yoga (3%).

All in all, the academic stay in Barcelona had some associated costs for the respondents. Accommodation was often the main expense for most students every month, ranging from around €200 to €1,000 (for students with all-inclusive packages). Renting a room in Barcelona (with no meals included) was reported to cost €350-400 a month near Sagrada Familia, but the rent could actually be lower in other districts which are not in demand or higher in popular tourist areas like Barceloneta. The monthly catering expenditure ranged from €30 to €1,000 and it also depended on whether it was included in the package and on the accommodation arrangements. Staying with a host family or at a student residence hall usually involved some sort of meal provision (breakfast, half-board or even full board), whereas shared apartments were self-catering.

Regarding leisure, on average the respondents who answered this question (91%) spent about €200 per month. As mentioned above, while some students made little investment on inexpensive leisure options (€10 was the lowest reported amount), others had a more substantial budget of up to €1,500 for domestic excursions and international trips. As for transportation costs, 92% of the respondents paid €105 for a 3-month travel card allowing them to use the public transport network in Barcelona. The highest reported amount was €500 a month to cover short trips abroad.

To finish with, 83% of the respondents stayed in Barcelona for between 3 and 6 months, and the rest stayed for 7 to 10 months (3%) or even for up to 12 months (5%). Besides, 9% intended to extend their stay for a longer period of more than one year, so they will no longer be considered tourists, eventually.

5. CONCLUSION

The taxonomy of factors that has been outlined in this paper complements the one resulting from previous research so as to map the market system of language tourism. All in all, it offers an account of the different variables that need to be taken into consideration when planning, implementing and assessing study abroad stays. The survey, in turn, will hopefully contribute to provide a better understanding of how the language tourism market works, gather data which can be effectively used for benchmarking purposes and point out weaknesses and areas for improvement. This real industry insight can help organisations to make informed decisions for their effective management.

The main limitations of this conceptual framework as regards the categorisation of the travel-related aspects intervening in language tourism lie in the risk of either overgeneralising and being too vague or obvious or being too narrow. On the other hand, categories and subcategories sometimes overlap as they are interrelated. Actually, the fact that alternative classifications are possible must be acknowledged.

As for the survey's shortcomings, its restricted scope allows for limited extrapolation. In addition, some aspects were superficially looked into and need to be investigated more extensively, such as cost analysis or the collateral effects of different travel arrangements.

Future lines of research can examine different types of accommodation in terms of cost and interaction potential in order to study lodging as a key factor to enhance linguistic development and socio-cultural integration. Thus, the immersion levels of study abroad sojourners can be looked into, as well as the benefits for themselves and for the host community members. On the other hand, given that the cost of accommodation may be similar to the cost of tuition, various lodging options can be investigated to reduce its economic impact on the total budget. Besides, the influence of prior language tourism experiences on both tourists and locals can also be analysed. Moreover, the way motivations for international mobility are shifting can be observed, for example towards social goals or specialised content. All these aspects are of vital importance in programme design and destination promotion.

Different impacts can be researched focusing not only on the language tourism industry but also on sustainability of the destinations at a micro or macro level. Furthermore, the impacts on the individuals' identity can also be explored. Language tourism as a subtype of educational tourism provides the perfect ground for transformational experiences which are truly memorable from the two-fold perspective of tourism activity and foreign language acquisition (Iglesias, 2014), hence the need for authenticity in the relationships between those who take part in language tourism experiences. As we have seen in the survey results, language tourists engage with the local culture through language learning and interact with the host community (the host families, their classmates and the locals they deal with) at different integration levels. They also interact with other international students and establish meaningful relationships.

Moreover, language tourists can engage in post experience actions which promote a continued contact with the host community and culture and make it possible for them to go on improving their language skills. This paves the way for consumer loyalty and customer retention, as it can be the origin of follow-up visits. If the language tourism experience has been satisfactory, favourable word-of-mouth can also lead to customer attraction and positive anticipation.

In conclusion, the language tourism providers who can design and stage such memorable transformational experiences will stand out from the rest. The most successful ones will be those which make sure that these elements are paramount in their programmes: motivating learning methodologies and materials, challenging but accessible contents, opportunities for authentic, stimulating contact with locals which promote emotional involvement and long-lasting relationships, purposeful social activities, and enjoyable leisure options according to each individual's profile and taking into account personal push factors.

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Model of agro-tourism farms for environmental education through inter-active trails

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This research responds to the need to systematize and give continuity to environmental processes developed by researchers for more than a decade, to promote sustainable community tourism through the creation of trails, ecological, thematic, ethnic, guided and self-guided, based on direct observation of available resources here at Finca San Francisco belonging to the State Polytechnical University of Carchi where through investigative processes, suitable sites are detected so that visitors share on the natural cultural environment, a series of interpretive stops ranging from traditional games, visit the research station, observation of small animals such as rabbits, guinea pigs, to the planting of a variety of natural and agricultural species such as tree tomatoes, medicinal plants, and reach a creek where a suspension bridge to admire the flora and fauna of the place, down to the last stop where the bovine variety to delight with milking and making the frothed milk is built and observe a field day in agricultural relating to cattle. The purpose was to build an environmental education model by reconstructing the path conducive to community based experiences in the practice of environmental knowledge and storytelling place as Huaca Frog and historical. The work is based on the qualitative paradigm with ethnographic approach interpretative. It was divided into 3 phases: 1. Dip researcher in the national context for through research farms and agro tourism estates. 2. Analysis of elements necessary for them to become agro-ecological farms 3. Conceptualization and construction of an environmental education model for sustainable community tourism, through information and participant observation and in-depth interviews with key informants farm. The findings allowed the collection of information through milestones identified as: The ranch house as a tourist model, stop Interpretive to retrieve knowledge games, the story through puppets, the scientific area, (weather station) veranda landscape, trails of uvilla, gazebo indigenous crops of Carchi, a mythical industry as the legend of the black bus, a bridge to watch the water, flora and fauna of the area, and the place of milking cows as a tourist resort, to finally deliver food to llamas and sheep the place. The model considers its theoretical foundations and educational dimensions

Keywords. Agroturístico model, tourism rural, walking trails

Being the limits of the parish Huaca; To the north the Canton Tulcán, to the south the Montufar canton, to the east the Province of Sucumbíos, to the west the Canton Tulcán and the Canton Montufar; Its geographical coordinates: 00-38'-29 " lat. North, 77-43 ° - 35 'Long. West. It is of cold climate of height, its temperature varies of 3 to 18 ° C with an average of 10 ° C, precipitation 1100 mm annual.

1.1 1.3.- JUSTIFICATION

The investigation, diagnosis and zoning of the San Francisco estate is of great importance for the Career of Tourism and Integral Agricultural Development as for the Polytechnic University of the State of Carchi, since at present it does not have a particularized diagnosis nor with an ordering of areas .

The development of this work will be a great contribution for all the subjects that are dictated in the San Francisco hacienda giving the student the learning tools in a didactic form. The research topic will not only serve UPEC students, but also as a link with the community, it is intended that the San Francisco Hacienda is the center of consultation; The information that is generated will be shared with all the Province of Carchi and with the whole Country.

In addition, agro-tourism focused on the care and protection of the environment. In carrying out this research work and its respective application the San Francisco estate would become self-sustaining.

1.2 1.4.- OBJECTIVES

1.2.1 1.4.1.- GENERAL OBJECTIVE

To carry out the zoning of the San Francisco farm in order to formulate an integral plan of agricultural production that serves as a tool for the teaching and learning of the students of the EDIA

1.2.2 1.4.2.- SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

- Demarked areas based on similar specific conditions of the areas in order to be used in certain agricultural or livestock activities
- Map each of the geographical areas into homogeneous lots, based on potential use and skills; Agro ecological, topographical. And design a proposal of land use and zoning of the San Francisco estate that contributes to improve its production
- Design a proposal that contributes to improve the production, administration and learning of the students of the School of Integral Agricultural Development.
- Bibliographic review

The National Council for Control of Narcotic and Psychotropic Substances CONSEP, held as a judicial deposit the property named Hacienda San Francisco, located in the Calera sector, San Pedro de Huaca Canton, Province of Carchi apprehended in the operation "Brussels".

CONSEP, making use of the legal powers that it is entitled to be able to assign in lodge the movable or immovable property seized or comisados for infraction to the Law, to the entities or organisms that are in charge the application of the same, to the Direction Of Social Rehabilitation and those of educational or cultural purpose.

Dr. Hugo Ruiz Enríquez, Rector of the Polytechnic University of Carchi "UPEC". It requested, through an official letter dated July 11, 2007, the loan of the aforementioned hacienda, the same one that will be used for the training of trained professionals in the agricultural and environmental area, with its Schools of Integral Agriculture, Tourism and Ecotourism.

CONSEP, after a review of the documentation sent by the State Polytechnic University of Carchi, in a session held on September 13, 2007, in the fifth item on the agenda, resolved to hand over the property in favor of the State Polytechnic University Of the Carchi, the same one that will be used as a practice and research center for the training of trained professionals in the agricultural and environmental areas, with its schools of Integral Agriculture, Tourism and Ecotourism. By means of office of September 17, 2007 for a period of three years and may be renewed as necessary.

The "CONSEP" after its permanent evaluation at the Hacienda San Francisco has renewed the loan for three more years.

Since the date of delivery on loan the Polytechnic University of Carchi with its authorities, teachers, administrators and students has been working tirelessly, both in the infrastructure and academic part.

In this real estate the university has carried out agricultural research, and it has been possible to link with the community to be part of the progress of this area, in the site there was no drinking water but with the management with the municipality San Pedro de Huaca and contributing with the Technical study by the UPEC was achieved the drinking water system benefiting fifteen families of the place, in the same way was managed before the IOM (World Organization for Migration) the 3Km pavement for which it was contributed with the technical study and design of the .Benefits to thirty families and the recolect

Current situation of the San Francisco Hacienda

Nature has been subject to continuous deterioration caused by man's misuse, both in its

renewable and non-renewable natural resources. The human being, despite his wisdom and intelligence, has not been able to measure the limits of development in his different productive activities; And, with his irrational behavior has created serious environmental problems. The deterioration of natural resources, particularly of soils, has reached unsustainable levels, jeopardizing the long-term viability of agricultural production and the survival of large numbers of farmers.

The geographic characteristics that Ecuador possesses are unique due to several causes such as: being located on the equatorial or equinoctial line, being crossed by the Andes mountain range and influenced by two marine currents; And, own part of the Amazon Basin. These peculiarities make it possesses a number of areas, so that the management plans that are proposed must be exclusive.

The study and ordering of areas should be taken as a system of multiple interactions; Called zoning. This is a management tool that integrates; The technical-scientific knowledge, with the proposals of the social agents. In this sense it is necessary to negotiate and adjust the model to be implemented in accordance with the various proposals that exist. In addition, zoning is not about obtaining maps that crystallize knowledge, but develop a management tool that can incorporate scientific, economic or social changes.

It is common in our underdeveloped countries to give priority to the economic part to partially meet the needs of society; But exposing the environment to a gradual and constant deterioration. For these reasons it is necessary to carry out management plans that, once implemented, become the basis for sustainable development, where economic, social and environmental aspects interact. As Castroviejo, M; Herrero J. (1992), on ecotourism, should give impetus to sites that contain natural and agro-tourism areas.

In Hacienda San Francisco, owned by the State Polytechnic University of Carchi, it can be seen that a large part of the area is dedicated to traditional agricultural and livestock work, which causes loss of fertility in the soil and underutilized the farm on the basis of its capacity to Use, as Little says, Christian. (2002), but good farming practices, soil and water conservation practices are implemented, such as: low agricultural and livestock productivity, deterioration of the soil resource, damage to the ecosystem and problems in the health of workers, and Sustainable development is achieved to achieve this goal can be opted for the following alternatives.

Indicates Barzetti, Valerie. (1993). What:

- A.- That the extraction of renewable resources should not be greater than the carrying capacity.
- B.- For non-renewable resources, the benefits of exploitation, at least one part is invested in similar but renewable resources; Y,
- C.- The emission of pollutants must not exceed the quantity that is recycled.

And in order to avoid inadequate and unplanned agricultural practices, which in many cases exceed the carrying capacity of resources, management plans must be made for the different productive systems: forestry, livestock, agriculture, conservation, Is what we intend to do in the future with this proposal. Rivas, Humberto (1998).

It is also possible to observe that in the San Francisco farm a traditional production system has been developed, which does not allow a good management of the Natural, Economic and Social Resources for which it is tried to analyze the current problematic of the farm, establishing three zones study:

Productive zone.- Currently the farm is only used for classroom and pre-professional practices.

This results in the lack of coordination between; The administration, teachers and students, since it is not considered a self-sustaining farm, capable of providing social and environmental economic benefits; Which guarantee excellence in the quality of education, research and service to the community. The lack of planning makes me aware of a slow development process that causes the following problems:

Livestock component: Currently the farm has a shed with guinea pigs with an area of 60 m², whose capacity is 500 guinea pigs; The same that is being underutilized because there are only 100 guinea pigs, due to inadequate planning in the management of production; Not having specific areas that provide forage for their food and an exclusive caretaker responsible for this area.

NARRATIVE SUMMARY

OBJECTIVELY VERIFICABLE MEANS VERIFICATION MEANS ASSUMPTIONS

To propose an integrated management model for the San Francisco Agroturistic Farm, considering the participation of the surrounding communities, with a view to promoting a sustainable development of the sector, using as strategies, endogenous, economic and human development. Comprehensive management of the AGROTURISTIC FINCA designed and completed UNEGRADO MODEL OF AGRICULTURAL PROPERTY (MIFAT) Budget execution Compliance with established deadlines

To analyze the models of integrated management of an Agrotourism Farm. . 90% of Agrotourism texts of integrated management models of a FINCA purchased Text Completed with the developed model Acquisition of specialized bibliography

Validating models (MIFAT) through expert workshops 80% of Agrotourism workshops executed with international experts 6 international workshops of Agrotourism farms, 12 local workshops developed Budget according to requirements and time

Diagnosing the profile of the visitor, market research and institutional and community empowerment 100% of respondents require a model of agro-tourism management for the FINCA Visitor's profile sheets, market study and institutional and community validity

Total acceptance of those involved in the project draft

Collect and carry out an inventory of FINCA projects and studies 80% of resources inventoried and referenced at the end of 24 months Projects executed, plans designed, documents developed Degree of involvement, commitment, educational level Ecosystem quality, number of sources Water, species of biodiversity,, Types of natural landscapes. Officials willing to provide necessary information on FINCA SAN FRANCISCO

Monitoring, geo referencing and mapping of FINCA zones to feed the model 100% of the resources monitored and designed are ranked and categorized at the end of twenty four months Total hectares, coordinate points, Area zoning , Maps of current and potential uses, water maps, soil maps, hierarchy charts. Geographers ready for institutional cooperation

Applying the model (MIFAT) on the agrotourism farm. 50% of the MIFAT model implemented. Paths, labeling, signage, terraces, barriers, winds, agroforestry orchards, fruit trees, nurseries, greenhouses, nurseries Short time to apply the model. State of deplorable time The participation of teachers and students limited Lack of inputs in due time

Encourage community participation in local development processes, based on the expression of the participatory diagnosis 80% of the population and organizations participate in the diagnosis of FINCA. Environmental education programs, internal projects Massive participation of institutions and community

Implement sustainable pilot farming experiences in the FINCA 50% of the pilot experiences carried out in the FINCA Environmental training Design of agro tourism gardens to the local community Massive participation of teachers, students and community

Develop a comprehensive MIFAT FINCA management plan that incorporates the vision and expectations of the local population, grassroots organizations, public institutions and other key stakeholders. 100% of the Technical Document elaborated in which programs, projects and activities are included, at the end of the research Plan Agroturismo socializado Lack of Budget to edit the Model MIFAT DE LA UPEC

To train undergraduate students in the project through participation in the activities 90% of students of the Agricultural and Tourism Industries Career participate in the activities of the project Students with linkage and thesis of Undergraduate. Systematization of activities There is a massive collaboration of the beneficiaries with the help of the university and institutions

Promote the articulation and work in RED of the institutions involved in the project 80% of institutions involved in an AGROTURÍST FINCAS NETWORK

Conclusions and recommendations

The theoretical structuring of a model of Agrotourism tourism, took advantage of the landscape of the Finca San Francisco, when designing, trails. Areas of life, soil studies, area maps, such as contours, soil types, vegetation, agricultural area, scientific zone, recreation area, milking house, on-site museum, reforestation zone for minor animals, botanical garden , interpretation center,

Positive Factors

In the form of an annotated list, the success factors obtained during the execution of the project are collected, so that they can be reused in future projects and use the knowledge already applied. Recording aspects such as:

- Positive experiences. The formation of a RED DE AGROTURISMO, with farms of the province of Carchi.
- Causes of success, The support from the authorities of the University in every sense, with the collaboration of each of the courses of the Tourism Career, which practically highlighted several projects:
- As puppets, guides, trails, signs, a tourist bridge, recreation areas, which with fruitful efforts were completed.
- The insertion of students' work in integrative projects. To be able to carry out similar investigations.
- Designing a new project for senderization and revaluation of the Qhapac Nán Route and archaeological sites with European funds.
- New integral model FINCA MIFAT

Negative Factors

In the form of a commented list the negative factors obtained during the execution of the project are collected, so that it can be avoided to commit them in future projects. Recording aspects such as:

- Negative experiences. The total non-collaboration of the students, had to be required to carry out the projects.
- Causes of problems encountered

The lack of communication and the giving of talks to see the importance of the project for tourism

Issues overcome

The delivery of materials on the part of the contractors as they are labeling, and referents of the farm such as the construction of a suspension bridge, a community store, a museum site, the orchid, the path of native fruit trees. Reforestation of the scientific area, design and construction of the agricultural recreational part, which will be complemented in future on interim and external projects

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USING FLICKR TO ANALYZE ISTANBUL'S IMAGE AS A CULINARY DESTINATION

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Abstract

Travel photos (images) may facilitate an in-depth understanding of emotions and experiences of tourists and meanings they attach to a particular destination. Travel photos taken during a trip make tourists' experiences visually permanent and easier for them to share experiential components about the destination via social media such as Facebook, Flickr and Twitter. There is an increasing tendency among tourists to share their travel photos and experiences on social media. Photos can offer insights of tourists' experiences in a destination as well as image of the same destination. Given this, this study aims to investigate tourists' food photos taken in Istanbul and posted on Flickr and analyze Istanbul's image as a culinary destination. From January 01, 2010 to December 31 2016, about 2,061,402 photos were shared on Flickr related to Istanbul. Of these 2,061,402 photos, about 44,941 of them were related to food. These photos were content analyzed based on different aspects. The research findings reveal eight main categories of food photos taken by tourists in Istanbul and shared on Flickr. They are (1) restaurants serving local dishes, (2) fresh fruits and vegetables, (3) street foods/street food vendors, (4) herbs and spices, (5) drinks, (6) deserts/sweets, (7) tourists' consuming local food, and (8) tourists' engagements with other tourists and locals while consuming food. Under each of eight categories, several sub-categories are also identified. This current study reveals unique photos of foods and food experiences of tourists in Istanbul posted on Flickr and offers specific theoretical and practical implications on marketing of an urban destination. This study inductively defines and extracts the meanings of foods for tourists through their representation in photos shared on Flickr. The research findings provide valuable insights to DMOs about the meanings attached to foods and food experiences by tourists and effective uses of these representations in marketing of an urban destination like Istanbul.

Keywords: food, culinary, gastronomy, image, destination marketing, tourism, social media.

Tourists' Perceptions of Guimarães' Attributes (Portugal): a Cluster Analysis

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Keywords | Cluster analysis, cultural/heritage tourism, destination's attributes, Guimarães, tourists' perceptions.

Theoretical framework | To obtain clearer and better knowledge of tourists' behavior and of their overall satisfaction towards a specific destination or a set of tourist attributes a place can offer, it is essential for tourism managers and marketers to better position and promote the destination (Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Chi & Qu, 2008; Martin & Bosque, 2008; Campo-Martínez, Garau Vadell & Martínez-Ruiz, 2010; Moreno, Gálvez, Ortuya, & López-Guzmán, 2016).

Satisfied tourists are more likely to repeat visits (Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Bosque & Martín, 2008; Campo-Martínez et al., 2010; Antón, Camarero & Laguna-García, 2017) and, moreover, share their positive experience with family and friends. With regards to the intention of returning to a certain destination, it is relevant to mention that loyalty and repeated visits are not the same, that is, tourists can show to be loyal to a destination and, even so, not to return to it (Nam, Ekinici & Whayatt, 2011).

On the other hand, the composition of the travelling group may also play a role in the level of satisfaction attained and related intention of repeating a visit (Lee, Petrick & Crompton, 2007; Campo-Martínez et al., 2010). Furthermore, within a group visiting a place, we can expect finding individuals expressing diverse levels of overall satisfaction and wishes of returning to the destination.

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Research objectives | This study uses a case study of the relationship between the economic globalization, tourism of the destination in the long term of the country to explore the differences in the level of the destination from visiting the country.

The study of tourism (tourism) is important for the cultural heritage, tourism of the country. Tourism is a multi-dimensional concept in the tourism of the long term, the economic center of the country by UNESCO, the world cultural heritage in 2001 and the 2012 European Council of Culture, which allows the increasing of the international visibility of the country.

Study methods and data analysis of the research methodology consisted of qualitative and quantitative methods. The survey was applied to 422 tourists who visited the country during 2014 and 2016.

The questionnaire was developed by the tourism services of the municipality of the country. The research method, the English version were available for visitors in the country office. The study of the country fill in the survey included the following: the relationship of the visitor to the destination, the motivation to visit; the reasons for the visit to the destination, the opinion of the visitor on the level of the destination they go from the visit, the satisfaction, the reasons for the visit to the destination of returning or of recommending the visit to family and friends (the effectiveness of the visit to the destination, the opinion of the visitor on the previous inquiry in the country; the visitor's previous inquiry of the visitor about the demographic features (gender, age, level of education, residence, marital status, income level).

The analysis of the data was done using SPSS software, version 24.0, which allowed the following procedures:

- 1) In the first step, the relationship between the country, using the demographic variables for the 18 items during the visit of the country, was performed. The demographic variables were derived from the country, so the country could be grouped only by their perception of the country's relationship not by their demographic profile;
- 2) In the second step, the demographic features of the visitors included in the country groups obtained in the country were compared to their profile;
- 3) In the third step, the variables were used to identify the differences between the country's regression of the destination level, the globalization of the country, the previous experience of the destination, the international recommendation, the variables were applied because in the variables were included in the country groups.

Main results and Contributions of the research, the main objective of the study was to inquire on the level of the destination of the country from visiting the country and their willingness to return to the country or, the recommendation of the visit to family and friends.

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Conclusions

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**Tourism training as a tool for enhancing Employee's
Performance and Organization Competitiveness. Applied to
Ministry of Tourism – Egypt**

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Abstract

Training is indispensable strategic tool to increase the performance of employee and organization keep increasing training budget yearly with believe that it will earn them Competitive advantage. This Paper examined the effect of Training as an effective tool for enhancing Employees Performance and Organization Competitiveness in Ministry of Tourism in Egypt. Questionnaire tool method was used as a research design. (250) of Employees and 90 Manager were Participated. So this Paper made use of one main hypothesis as there is a Positive effective of Training Policies on Training effectiveness. Descriptive Statistics were used to analyze data collected. Chi-Square statistical too was used to test the hypotheses. Findings indicate that there is strong relationship between the tested dependent variable and independent construct.

Keywords: Training – Ministry – Tourism – Performance – Competitiveness

INTRODUCTION

Training includes all attempts to improve productivity by increasing an employee's ability to perform. (Nickells, 2002). Training both physically, socially intellectually and mentally is very essential in facilitating not only the level of production but also the development of individuals in an organization. According to (Okanya, 2008) Training need occurs when the existing or anticipated short fall in overall performance is the most appropriate and effective remedy. Cole (2011) submitted that training is the preparation for an occupation or for specific skills which are job or task oriented rather than personnel.

Moreover, Training aims to develop competences such as technical, human conceptual and managerial for the furtherance of individual and organization growth. Training is very important in tourism organizations because employees make things happen effectively. Training is a function of human resources management concerned with organizational activities

which aim to improving the performance of individuals.(Robert, 2014)

In Tourism Sector, according to (Fahmy, 2013, Gad elrab, 2009) and (Brophy & Kiely, 2002) Tourism training refers to the activity and procedure which aim to provide the personell in tourism sector with data and skills which lead to increasing their performance in their work and achieve the goals.

TOURISM TRAINING IMPORTANCE

According to Hearst, (2015) and Jack, 2013) tourism training in the organization has some importance as:

- Tourism training presents a prime opportunity to knowledge of all employees and adopts new technologies and methods.
- Tourism training can help to address weakness that a lot of employees have weakness in their workplace skills. Training programs allow them to strength en these skills and improve it.
- Tourism training improves employees' performance and helps them to perform their jobs and become more aware of safety

practices and proper procedures for basic tasks. Also training can build employees confidence because they become stronger understanding the responsibility of the work.

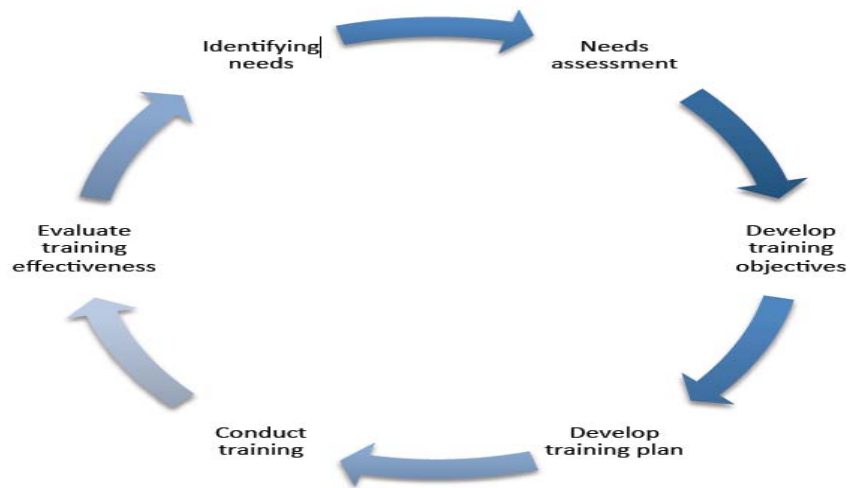
- Tourism training ensures that employees have a competent experience and background knowledge.
- Tourism training helps the employees to be satisfied and motivated towards their work.

TOURISM TRAINING POLICES

Some experts and researchers according to (Barau, 2008) and (Abiodun, EJA 2013): have identified training policies which refers to: firstly, Identification of training needs: it means and refers to personnel who want to be trained and improve their positional attitude. Secondly, designing training programs, which identify the make training programs suite to the content and aim and prepare the qualified trainers and identify the suitable techniques for each training subject. Thirdly, Training implementation which means makes the timetable schedule for

training program, and prepares the place and training data. Lastly, training evaluation and identify the outcomes from training programs.

Beside, according to (Uyen , 2013)The training content varies depending on the need of different business lines and the preference of the employers and the staff. Yet, most of the organizations share a common framework when it comes to developing an employee’s learning process. Logically, a well-organized process comprises of six steps as shown in the figure below.



Usually, the training process begins with identifying needs to figure out the gap between what is required and what presently exists, then evaluate the needs and develop training objectives and finally plan to evaluate the training effectiveness.(Ali, 2012).

PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

Human Resources consider one of the main factors which help institutions to have the competitive advantage and its success to arrive to global markets. And concentration on this element by developing, training and providing him with skills help to improve the performance. Training considers one of the most important factors to develop Human Resources and one of the best ways to develop the performance, especially in Tourism sector. Which help organizations to achieve their hoped results.

Some studies showed that there is a lack of awareness of some institution of the importance of training and shortage of Training programs in some tourist institutions (Loteif, 2013) and Ahmed, 2016)

So it is important to do some studies which related to training process in tourism sector. Therefore Problem of Study concentrates on showing the role of training programs in improving the performance in tourism Ministry in Egypt. If Training Policies effect on Training effectiveness positively.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The general objective of this Study is to examine how training will be an effective tool to organizational efficiency especially in Ministry of tourism, while other different objectives include:

1. To identify the importance of training in enhancing employee's performance and productivity in Ministry of tourism in Egypt.
2. To measure the affecting training polices on training effectiveness.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

There is a Positive effective of Training Policies on Training effectiveness

THEORIES OF LEARNING AND TRAINING

There have been various theories propounded to explain the relevance of training need in any organization. More recently social learning theory, employees acquire new skills and knowledge by observing other members of staff whom they have confidence in and as well believe to be credible and more knowledgeable (McKenna and Supyk, 2008). Social –learning theory offers us insight into what a training exercise should include. Specifically, it tells us that training should provide a model, it helps the trainees’ attention, provide motivational properties, and help the trainee file a way what has been learned for later use. And if the training has taken place off the job, allow the trainee some opportunity to transfer what has been learned to the job.

Basically, the social –learning model tell us that training should provide the trainee with a given model to follow, specific goals to achieve, an opportunity to perfect the skills, feedback on how well the trainee is progressing and praise for transferring

the acquired skills to the job. These recommendations should guide the human resources managers in designing, implementing and operating any employee's training.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The empirical data for this study were collected through well-structured questionnaire, which was prepared and distributed among the employees and managers in Ministry of Tourism in Egypt. The reason for the choice of location for the Study is because it is the main organization which responsible for Tourism sector in Egypt. Impact of training polices on training effectiveness was measured using 36 items instrument which was divided into section A und B. Section A consisted of 6 items which was used to collect personal data from the respondents such as their age, sex, marital status, education background, job section, working experience. Section B consisted of 30 items regarding the constructs of the subject matter. Five point Likert Scale (5) strongly agree, (4) agree, (3) undecided, (2) strongly disagree, (1) disagree. That best

describes the extent to which the respondents agree with each items in the questionnaire was used. Descriptive methods of analysis were used to analyze the data. A total of 250 copies of questionnaire for employees and 90 copies for managers were administered with the scope of selected location, having sorted the returned questionnaire, only 210 copies of questionnaire for employees (84%) were validly used while 40 copies (16%) were unvalid. And 120 copies of questionnaire representing (75%) were validly used while 30 copies (25%) were unvalid.

POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The target population for this research work is the employees and Managers in the Ministry of tourism in Egypt. The population of this Study is about 250 employees and 90 managers.

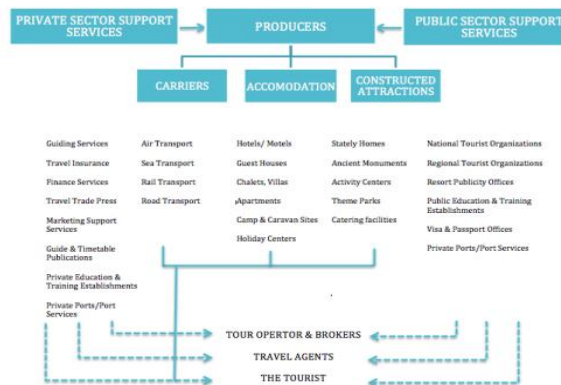


Figure 1 - Tourism Stakeholders (Holloway & Taylor, 2006)

INSTRUMENT OF DATA COLLECTION

The instrument used for collecting the data was structured questionnaire using 5 Point Likert Scale (5) strongly agree, (4) agree, (3) undecided, (2) strongly disagree, (1) disagree that best describe the extent to which the respondents agree with each item in the questionnaire was used. Descriptive methods of analysis were used to analyze the data. A total of 250 copies of questionnaire for employees and 90 copies for managers were administered with the scope of selected location, having sorted the returned questionnaire, only 210 copies of questionnaire for employees (84%) were validly used while 40 copies (16%) were invalid. And 120 copies of questionnaire representing (75%) were validly used while 30 copies (25%) were invalid.

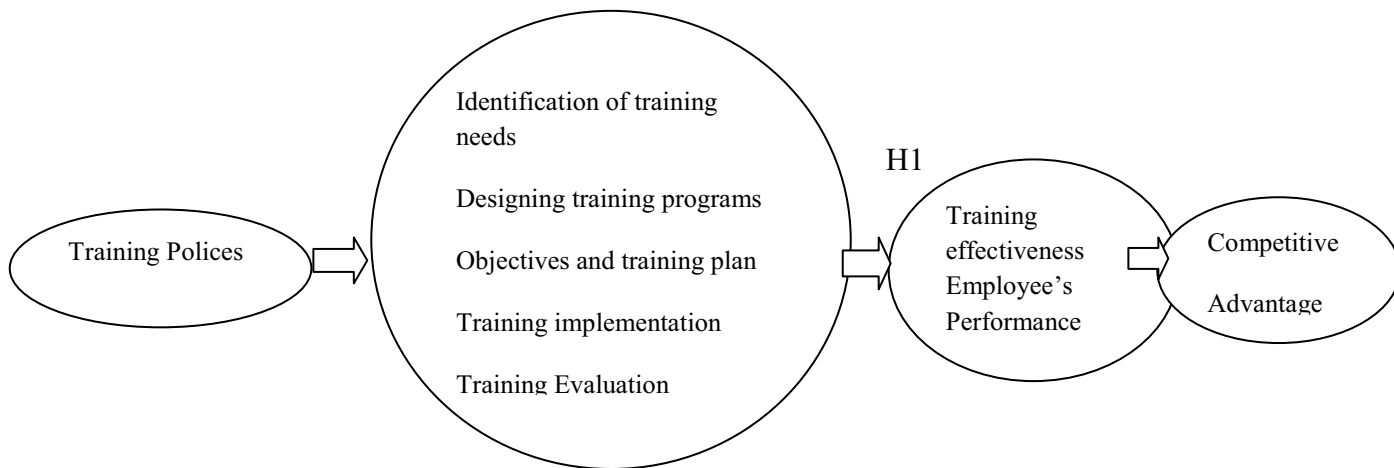
SOURCE OF DATA COLLECTION

Two sources were used: (A) Primary sources of data collection. First hand data (information) for this research work was collected using questionnaire. (B) Secondary source of data

collection. Data was also collected from text books, Journals, and other similar sources.

RESEARCH MODEL

This Study will give attention to the effectiveness Training on Employees Performance and orgaionzational competitiveness in Ministry of Tourism in Egypt, and measure the affecting of training polices on training effectiveness However as obtained in literature reviewed, we proposed the following model.



Proposed Study Mode

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

- The demographic characteristics of respondents indicate that 147(70%) of employees sample size was male and 66 (73%) also male from managers sample size. While 63(30%) of employee’s sample size was female and 24 (27%) of manager sample size.
- The results indicated that 120 (57%) of employees have experience more than 10 years and 37(18%) have experience more that 15 years and the rest have experience less than 10 years. But 64(71%) of managers have experience more than 10 years and the rest less than 10 years.

Training Policies	Employess			Managers				
	N. of forms	Mea n	SD	N. of forms	Mean	SD	T value	Sig.
Identification of training needs	210	2.80	0.476	90	2.43	0.572	2.314	0.003

Designing Training Programs	210	2.87	0.517	90	2.70	0.579	1.787	0.066
Objectives Training Plan	210	2.70	0.526	90	2.81	0.682	0.097	0.743
Training implementation	210	2.92	0.570	90	2.63	0.543	1.475	0.127
Training Evaluation	210	2.90	0.572	90	2.57	0.565	3.479	0.027
Training Effectiveness	210	2.85	0.374	90	2.86	0.347	0.647	0.497

**Means opinions towards training policies from Employess
and Managers point of view and difference between them**

The previous table indicates that there is difference means of employees' opinions and managers towards identification of training needs polices and Training Evaluation. But designing training programs polices, Objectives and Training plan and training effectiveness, we find the employees opinions agree with managers opinions.

**Chi Square for affecting Training Polices on Training
effectiveness**

Training Policies	Employess			Managers		
	Chi square	df	Sig.	Chi square	df	Sig.
Identification of training needs	5.814	3	0.04	8.453	3	0.03
Designing Training Programs	7.363	3	0.02	10.874	3	0.02
Objectives Training Plan	12.190	3	0.00	30.232	3	0.00
Training implementation	10.014	3	0.01	17.265	3	0.00
Training Evaluation	15.00	3	0.00	7.984	3	0.04

From previous table which show if there is an affecting for training polices in Ministry of tourism in Egypt on its effectiveness. It shows:

- There is significant effect of training needs identification on training effectiveness from employees' point of view, that chi

square value (5.814) and df (3) and Significance less than (0.005) which mean accept the significant hypothesis and these factors are dependent from each other, and from managers point of view, chi square value was (8.453) and df (3) and Significance less than (0.005) which mean accept the hypothesis of study and these factors are dependent, and this accept with (Khan, et.al, 2015) which assure that to reach by training to effectiveness , it is necessary at first to identify training needs.

- There is significant effect of designing training programs on training effectiveness from employees' point of view, that chi square value (7.363) and df (3) and Significance less than (0.005) which mean accept the significant hypothesis and these factors are dependent from each other, and from managers point of view, chi square value was (10.874) and df (3) and Significance less than (0.005) which mean accept the hypothesis of study and these factors are dependent, and this accept with (Falola, et.al, 2014) which assure that to reach by

training to effectiveness , it is necessary design training programs suitable for its content.

- There is significant effect of objectives and training plan on training effectiveness from employees' point of view, that chi square value (12.190) and df (3) and Significance less than (0.005) which mean accept the significant hypothesis and these factors are dependent from each other, and also from managers point of view, chi square value was (30.232) and df (3) and Significance less than (0.005) which mean accept the hypothesis of study and these factors are dependent, and this accept with (Chidiebere, et.al, 2015) which assure that to reach by training to effectiveness , it is necessary to find the clearly objectives.
- There is significant effect of training implementation on training effectiveness from employees' point of view, that chi square value (10.014) and df (3) and Significance less than (0.005) which mean accept the significant hypothesis and these factors are dependent from each other, and also from managers point of view, chi square value was (17.265) and df (3) and

Significance less than (0.005) which mean accept the hypothesis of study and these factors are dependent, and this accept with (Alheity, 2016) which assure that to reach by training to effectiveness , it is necessary to implement carefully and suitable to its content and follow it.

- There is significant effect of training evaluation on training effectiveness from employees' point of view, that chi square value (15.00) and df (3) and Significance less than (0.005) which mean accept the significant hypothesis and these factors are dependent from each other, and also from managers point of view, chi square value was (7.984) and df (3) and Significance less than (0.005) which mean accept the hypothesis of study and these factors are dependent, and this accept with (Fraag, 2012) which assure that to reach by training to effectiveness , it is necessary to evaluate training programs step by step.

CONCLUSION

Base on the findings of this paper, we acknowledge the importance of training, and there the results have indicated that there is a positive relationship between training policies and training effectiveness from employees and managers' point of view in Ministry of tourism in Egypt, and proves a positive corrected of the main hypotheses H1. There is a Positive effective of Training Policies on Training effectiveness. Finally, there is difference means of employees' opinions and managers towards identification of training needs polices and Training Evaluation. But designing training programs polices, Objectives and Training plan and training effectiveness, we find the employees opinions agree with managers opinions. At the end the authors recommended that all tourism organizations before beginning in training program. It have to identify the training needs, then design training programs, then implement, and evaluate training programs to get the most benefit from Training process.

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**ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEMS RESULT FROM VISITORS TO HIERAPOLIS-
PAMUKKALE WORLD HERITAGE SITE PEDESTRIAN AREA**

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ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEMS RESULT FROM VISITORS TO HIERAPOLIS-PAMUKKALE WORLD HERITAGE SITE PEDESTRIAN AREA

Abstract

The interventions and pressures of nature of mankind have led to significant changes on natural factors, which are now threatening human life. The protected areas, which have the potential to be damaged due to intensive use of the existing tourism areas and have a potential suitable for the changing tourism concept in the world, have become important tourism destinations. But the effects of the tourism on the ecosystem have become a matter concern in the 1960s. In order to protect these areas, a number of conservation policies have been developed, including legal regulations, taking preventive measures, raising public awareness, and introducing certain restrictions on protected areas.

In this research, it is aimed to determine the environmental problems in the protected areas used for tourism and the approaches to these problems. For this purpose, a questionnaire was applied to local tourists who visit Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site Pedestrian Area (Travertine Area) by using standard forms and by interviewing 400 people on site. The results of the survey conducted for evaluation and a number of suggestions were developed in order to eliminate the identified problems or to prevent the problem from occurring.

Keywords: World Heritage Site, Tourism, Environmental Problems, Pamukkale, Denizli

1. INTRODUCTION

The free time and income level, which started with the industrial revolution and increased in parallel with technological developments, changed people's lifestyles. So people have turned to tourism activities to evaluate their leisure time. Due to increasing demands and economic factors have come to the forefront in the developing tourism sector (Mansuroglu and Kınıklı 2009). Significant changes on natural factors and consequences of natural interventions and pressures have become a threat to human life today. These negative effects and consequences of the nature cannot be prevented by modern technology, nor can they be transformed into the old ones by nature's self-renewal (regeneration) in a short time. Thus, the "natural balance" that all natural factors come

together harms because of wrong and excessive usage. Therefore the environments of all biotic things, especially people, affect the ecosystems negatively (Yücel and Babus 2005). Güلكal (1999) stated that some endemic plant species are threatened by Ihlara Special Environmental Protection Area, increase in the structure near the settlements and that soil pollution arising from solid and liquid wastes in the study area and lead (Pb) in underground and surface water resources. Bahadır (2013) identified factors such as unintended use of agricultural land, over-fishing, risk of forest fires, and the difficulty of transport capacity in the Kovada Lake National Park as the biggest environmental problems of the future of the national park. Castellani and Sala (2012) have detected noise and high-level air pollution resulting from heavy traffic in the Oltrepo Mantovana (Italy) protected area.

Protected areas have become important tourism destinations due to the damage caused by intensive use of tourism and recreation. Therefore, natural areas have played an important role in determining the tourism areas (Simon et al. 2008). For nearly 100 years, parks and protected areas have been working on the issue of recreational use causing problems on the ecosystem (Cole 2004). However, the impacts on the ecosystem of tourism began to become a matter of concern in the 1960s (Eagles et al. 2008). For this reason, where and how to intervene in the use of visitors in protected areas is being discussed and searches are being continued in this area as to which occupational disciplines the team will work with (Cole 2004). In order to protect these areas, a number of conservation policies have been developed, including legal regulations, taking preventive measures, raising public awareness and introducing certain restrictions in protected areas. The most important objective in the development of such conservation plans is to prevent degradation, destruction and destruction of natural resources and to enable future generations to use them (Kervankiran and Eryilmaz 2014). World Heritage Sites are declared by UNESCO. UNESCO has designated 6 cultural and 4 natural criteria for the world heritage site declaration. Monuments and sites of international importance must provide at least one of these criteria in order to be a world heritage site (Kultur ve Turizm Bakanligi 2014, UNESCO 2014).

In this research, it was aimed to determine the environmental problems and resources of the visitors to the Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site by conducting a literature study on the environmental problems in the protected areas and the problems caused by their use for tourism and recreational purposes. Also we had a survey with 400 people to determine the problems on “the sources and effects of environmental problems”. The results of the survey conducted for evaluation and a number of suggestions were developed in order to eliminate the identified problems or to prevent the problem from occurring.

2. MATERIAL and METHOD

2.1. Material

This study was carried out in the Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site, located 20 km north-west of the Denizli provincial center, within the boundaries of the Pamukkale Special Environmental Protection Area (Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site Pedestrian Entrance-Travertine Area). The study area was first declared as 1st Degree Archaeological and 1st Degree Natural Site. In 1988, due to its natural and cultural values, it was taken to the World Heritage List; in 1990 it became a Special Environmental Protection Area. The results of the work carried out by the General Directorate of Nature Conservation and National Parks have been declared as Wetland Area. As a result, the area is protected in many different statutes (Cevre ve Sehircilik Bakanligi 2014, Doga Koruma ve Milli Parklar Genel Mudurlugu 2014, Kultur ve Turizm Bakanligi 2014, UNESCO 2014).

Other materials of the work are listed below:

- Domestic tourists visiting in Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site Pedestrian Entrance (Travertine Area).
- Questionnaire form applied to visitors to determine the source and effects of environmental problems,
- The related literature,
- IBM SPSS 20 program used for data analysis and evaluation

2.2. Method

The study was carried out between July and October 2015 to identify the sources and effects of environmental problems of domestic tourists in Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site Pedestrian Entrance (Travertine Area), Turkey.

The main objectives of the study were

- Indicating size of the sample population,
- Selecting interview method,
- Design of the questionnaire,
- Pre-testing and revision of interviews,
- Data collecting and
- Analysis and interpretation of data.

Indicating size of the sample population: Number of 400 people was selected according to the sampling size for the population over 100 000 justified by Arkin and Colton with 5% error efficiency (Pulido 1972). In sampling this number was represented with randomly selected 400 people in total among of domestic tourists in Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site Pedestrian Entrance (Travertine Area).

Selecting interview method: Due to faster and reliable results, face to face interviews were preferred in the study instead of standard data forms.

Design of the questionnaire:

- The sources and effects of environmental problems
- Socio-economic character.

For the determination of “the sources and effects of environmental problems” 6 main questions (Likert scale of 5 and sorting criterion) were asked to samples. On the “Socio-economic Characteristic”, relation between the factors of gender, age, profession, education level that effecting socio-economic characteristics was studied.

Pre-testing and revision of interviews: Interview forms were developed in cooperation with experts working on environmental issues and interviews and evaluated under the major processes of content, construction, interpretation and evaluation. Pre-testing was carried out by the first face to face interviews with randomly selected 30 inhabitants living in Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site Pedestrian Entrance (Travertine Area).

Data collecting: According to population percentage of tourists within Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site Pedestrian Entrance (Travertine Area), number of individuals was selected randomly for the interviews.

Building up scaling system: Indicating a scaling system was indicative in the selection of question types.

Analysis and interpretation of data: The questioner form covers two main chapters; identify the sources and effects of environmental problems and socioeconomic character. IBM SPSS 20.0 software used to assess the relation between scores and levels of identify the sources and effects of environmental problems and socio-economic characteristics (gender, marital status, age, education level). Following the evaluation of frequencies and percentages cross tabs and chi-square test were used to test statistical significance that accepted as alpha level of 0.05.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Socio-economic characteristics

There is close relation between socio-economic characteristics and identify the sources and effects of environmental problems intentions. Gender, marital status, age and education level on the environment were investigated in this section (Table 1). Of the respondents 66% were male and 34% female while 43.5% of them were married, 55.7% single and 0.8% divorced. Table 1 indicates the information on gender, marital status, age and education level of the respondents. Education is a key milestone in the creation of environmentally responsible behavior. Great majority of the respondents in 43% are between the ages of 18-24, and the majority of high school (37%) and university (37%) graduates according to their education level.

Table 1. Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents (%).

<i>Gender</i>	<i>(%)</i>	<i>Marital status</i>	<i>(%)</i>	<i>Age groups</i>	<i>(%)</i>	<i>Education</i>	<i>(%)</i>
<i>Male</i>	66.0	<i>Married</i>	43.5	<i>18-24</i>	43.0	<i>Primary school</i>	3.8
<i>Female</i>	34.0	<i>Single</i>	55.7	<i>25-34</i>	27.8	<i>Secondary school</i>	11.8
		<i>Divorced</i>	0.8	<i>35-44</i>	14.8	<i>High school</i>	37.0
				<i>45-54</i>	9.0	<i>High school (University)</i>	3.5
				<i>55-64</i>	4.5	<i>University</i>	37.0
				<i>+65</i>	1.0	<i>Post-graduate</i>	7.0

3.2. Identify the sources and effects of environmental problems

Participants in the questionnaire ranked problems in the field due to the high number of users as garbage (31.7%), water pollution (26.3%), collapse of travertine's (22%), and inadequacy of usage areas (18.5%). Some respondents also stated that historical items in the area could be damaged by overcrowding (Figure 1).

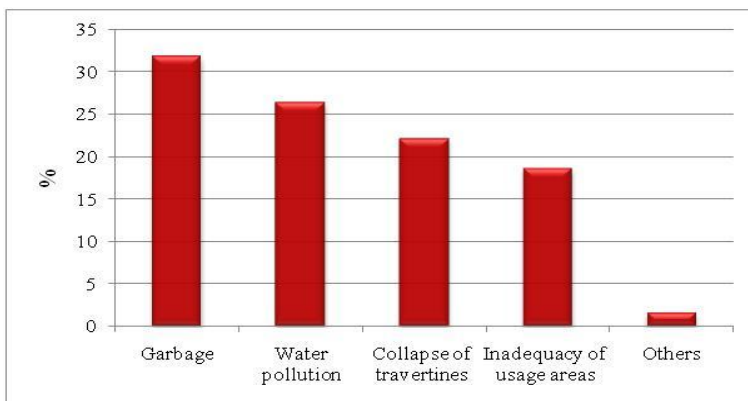


Figure 1. Environmental issues related to the number of users.

When visitors to the site are asked to rank the source of the negative areas in terms of their importance, there is a lack of auditing at 1. degree (26.2 %) and 2. degree (15.8 %), and users at grade 3.

Weight scoring has been done to create the ranking of importance. From the “1st degree level to the 3rd degree level”, a coefficient from 3 to 1 is given with a direct proportional reduction. By multiplying the numerical values of each grade specified for the causes by the degree coefficient, arithmetic averages are taken and separate points are obtained for each reason. Percentage scores were calculated based on the sum of all the points of the causes, and a percentage weighted score

was obtained. For example, the total score for the lack of auditing was calculated as 564 (106x3=318 score, 92x2=184 score, 62x1=62 score). According to points to the weighted average “lack of auditing” (23.3%), “operators in the field” (17.7%) and “users“ (15.2%) are seen as the three most important responsibilities of the negatives in the area (Table 2).

Table 2. Distribution of causes of negative impacts according to importance order.

<i>Reasons</i>	<i>1. Degree</i>	<i>2. Degree</i>	<i>3. Degree</i>	<i>Average By Weighted Points</i>
<i>Operators in the field</i>	23.5	11.8	12.0	17.7
<i>Lack of co-operation between institutions</i>	6.2	10.8	5.8	7.6
<i>Complexity of authority between institutions</i>	3.3	5.5	8.5	4.9
<i>Technical staff not having authority</i>	5.7	8.3	8.3	7.0
<i>Intervention of local administrators by central government</i>	3.8	6.8	4.8	5.0
<i>Lack of control</i>	26.2	23.0	15.5	23.3
<i>Relevant plans have not been in line with the natural, cultural and social features of the area</i>	8.5	9.5	7.8	8.7
<i>Not to consider technical information</i>	4.8	15.8	16.3	10.4
<i>Users</i>	17.7	8.8	20.5	15.2
<i>Others</i>	0.3	0.0	0.8	0.2
Total	100	100	100	100

The relationship between the socioeconomic status of the participants and the level of jurisdictional participation offered to them in the second part of the questionnaire was examined. For this purpose χ^2 statistical analysis method was used. The results of the analyzes made are presented in Table 3.

Navigating on the travertines is harmful to the travertines: In this standpoint, 28.7% of the women strongly agree and 28.8% of the men agree. Married agree with this statement in their response at a rate of 30.9 percent in the form of a significant relationship is observed ($\chi^2=36.857, p<0.001$). A significant correlation wasn't found between the responses of the group under the age of 25, while the increase of the age group, depending on the response observed in a significant relationship. The results of all age groups of visitors on the travertines shows that the thought of damaging the structure of travertines. So the same proportion of the age group 45-54 (44.4%) agree and strongly agree with the statement ($\chi^2=22.889, p<0.001$) in the form of a response, supports those conclusions.

I believe, due to the crowd, natural, cultural and historical items in the area can be damaged: In this standpoint, both men ($\chi^2=70.962$, $p<0.001$) and women ($\chi^2=68.485$, $p<0.001$) there were significant differences between a statistical sense. I strongly agree with this standpoint that the ratio of men (30.3%) is lower than that of women (37.5%). Most people over the age of 35 responded that “strongly agree” with this standpoint. It can be said that as the ages increase, the concerns about the deterioration of the natural, cultural and historical elements in the area increase. There are significant differences in responses to high school ($\chi^2=46.122$, $p<0.001$), university ($\chi^2=57.676$, $p<0.001$) and post graduate ($\chi^2=12.071$, $p=0.002$) respondents. However, there is no difference in the answers that primary school ($\chi^2=1.800$, $p=0.615$), secondary school ($\chi^2=3.106$, $p=0.540$) and high school (university) students college graduates ($\chi^2=0.286$, $p=0.593$).

I believe, due to crowd the structure of the travertines will deteriorate more be quickly: There are significant differences in the responses to this standpoint for males ($\chi^2=72.629$, $p<0.001$) (and for females ($\chi^2=69.074$, $p<0.001$).

Dirtiness in the travertines is caused by the visitor density: There is no significant difference according to the answers given by the men ($\chi^2=5.508$, $p=0.239$), but there are significant differences according to the answers given by the women ($\chi^2=12.676$, $p=0.013$).

Table 3. Visitors’ opinions about Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site Pedestrian Entrance (Travertine Area).

		Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Unstable (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Chi-square test	P value
<i>Navigating on the travertines is harmful to the travertines</i>								
Gender	Female (n=136)	8.1	19.1	19.1	25.0	28.7	16.574	0.002
	Male (n=264)	12.9	13.6	20.1	28.8	24.6	25.053	<0.001
Marital status	Married (n=174)	6.9	13.1	20.0	30.9	29.1	36.857	<0.001
	Single (n=223)	14.9	17.6	19.8	25.2	22.5	7.324	0.120
	Divorced (n=3)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	-	-
Age	18-24 (n=172)	18.6	19.2	19.2	24.4	18.6	2.128	0.712
	25-34 (n=111)	6.3	15.3	24.3	26.1	27.9	18.234	0.001
	35-44 (n=59)	5.1	15.3	18.6	30.5	30.5	13.797	0.008
	45-54 (n=36)	5.6	5.6	11.1	44.4	33.3	22.889	<0.001
	55-64 (n=18)	5.6	0.0	22.2	22.2	50.0	7.333	0.062
	+65 (n=4)	0.0	25.0	0.0	25.0	50.0	0.500	0.779
Education	Primary school (n=15)	0.0	6.7	13.3	26.7	53.3	7.667	0.053
	Secondary school (n=47)	21.3	6.4	19.1	25.5	27.7	6.511	0.164

	High school (n=148)	14.9	21.6	14.2	27.0	22.3	8.689	0.069
	High school (University) (n=14)	0.0	7.1	35.7	50.0	7.1	7.714	0.052
	University (n=148)	8.8	14.9	23.6	29.1	23.6	19.294	0.001
	Post graduate (n=28)	0.0	10.7	25.0	14.3	26.0	10.571	0.014
<i>I believe, due to the crowd, natural, cultural and historical items in the area can be damaged</i>								
Gender	Female (n=136)	0.7	14.7	11.8	35.3	37.5	68.485	<0.001
	Male (n=264)	8.3	19.7	8.3	33.0	30.3	70.962	<0.001
Marital status	Married (n=174)	10.3	29.7	7.4	29.1	23.4	89.486	<0.001
	Single (n=223)	14.9	25.2	10.8	28.8	20.3	51.919	<0.001
	Divorced (n=3)	0.0	66.7	0.0	33.3	0.0	-	-
Age	18-24 (n=172)	7.6	19.8	14.5	34.9	23.3	35.849	<0.001
	25-34 (n=111)	5.4	14.4	9.9	36.9	33.3	44.991	<0.001
	35-44 (n=59)	5.1	23.7	0.0	27.1	44.1	18.085	<0.001
	45-54 (n=36)	0.0	19.4	8.3	36.1	36.1	8.000	0.046
	55-64 (n=18)	5.6	5.6	0.0	22.2	66.7	18.000	<0.001
	+65 (n=4)	0.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	75.0	1.000	0.317
Education	Primary school (n=15)	0.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	40.0	1.800	0.615
	Secondary school (n=47)	14.9	17.0	19.1	19.1	29.8	3.106	0.540
	High school (n=148)	6.8	20.9	8.8	36.5	27.0	46.122	<0.001
	High school (University) (n=14)	0.0	0.0	0.0	57.1	42.9	0.286	0.593
	University (n=148)	4.1	20.3	8.1	35.1	32.4	57.676	<0.001
	Post graduate (n=28)	0.0	0.0	7.1	32.1	60.7	12.071	0.002
<i>I believe, due to crowd the structure of the travertines will deteriorate more be quickly</i>								
Gender	Female (n=136)	1.5	16.9	8.8	36.8	36.0	69.074	<0.001
	Male (n=264)	7.6	18.2	10.2	34.1	29.9	72.629	<0.001
Marital status	Married (n=174)	4.6	18.3	4.6	33.7	38.9	82.571	<0.001
	Single (n=223)	6.8	18.0	14.0	34.2	27.0	62.550	<0.001
	Divorced (n=3)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	-	-
Age	18-24 (n=172)	6.4	23.3	13.4	33.7	23.3	37.709	<0.001
	25-34 (n=111)	6.3	12.6	9.9	38.7	32.4	47.153	<0.001
	35-44 (n=59)	5.1	16.9	5.1	33.9	39.0	29.729	<0.001
	45-54 (n=36)	0.0	16.7	2.8	47.2	33.3	16.222	0.001
	55-64 (n=18)	5.6	5.6	5.6	11.1	72.2	30.889	<0.001
	+65 (n=4)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	-	-
Education	Primary school (n=15)	0.0	6.7	6.7	60.0	26.7	11.400	0.010
	Secondary school (n=47)	14.9	21.3	17.0	19.1	27.7	2.255	0.689
	High school (n=148)	5.4	22.3	8.1	35.8	28.4	50.311	<0.001
	High school (University) (n=14)	0.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	50.0	0.000	1.000
	University (n=148)	4.7	18.2	10.1	36.5	30.4	52.811	<0.001
	Post graduate (n=28)	0.0	0.0	10.7	28.6	60.7	10.786	0.005
<i>Dirtiness in the travertines are caused by the visitor density</i>								
Gender	Female (n=136)	9.6	20.6	21.3	28.7	19.9	12.676	0.013
	Male (n=264)	15.9	19.7	21.2	24.6	18.6	5.508	0.239
Marital status	Married (n=174)	5.1	14.9	7.4	34.3	38.3	6.229	0.183
	Single (n=223)	5.9	20.3	11.7	36.0	26.1	10.928	0.027
	Divorced (n=3)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.000	1.000
Age	18-24 (n=172)	13.4	22.7	19.8	23.3	20.9	5.384	0.250
	25-34 (n=111)	17.1	13.5	25.5	25.2	18.9	5.892	0.207
	35-44 (n=59)	16.9	18.6	22.0	30.5	11.9	5.661	0.226
	45-54 (n=36)	2.8	27.8	16.7	36.1	16.7	11.500	0.021
	55-64 (n=18)	11.1	22.2	22.2	27.8	16.7	1.444	0.836
	+65 (n=4)	0.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	75.0	1.000	0.317
Education	Primary school (n=15)	13.3	20.0	6.7	26.7	33.3	3.333	0.504
	Secondary school (n=47)	19.1	19.1	27.8	17.0	17.0	1.830	0.767
	High school (n=148)	15.5	22.3	18.2	23.0	20.9	2.811	0.590
	High school (University) (n=14)	0.0	28.5	14.3	42.9	14.3	3.143	0.370
	University (n=148)	13.5	18.9	22.3	31.1	14.2	15.176	0.004
	Post graduate (n=28)	3.6	10.7	32.1	21.4	32.1	9.143	0.058

4. DISCUSSION

Socio-economic characters (gender, marital status, age and education level) of the domestic tourists in Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site Pedestrian Entrance (Travertine Area), Turkey have an impact on to identify the sources and effects of environmental problems as indicated by similar previous studies in Turkey Gulkal (1999), Demir (2001), Bahadir (2013). In the surveys conducted by Simon et al. (2003), Yuksek et al. (2008), Maggi and Fredella (2011) and Dag and Mansuroglu (2016) evaluating the effects that visitors have caused in tourist areas, according to the type of recreational activity that is performed on every field, it is stated that the effects of different levels will lead to. In this study, navigating on the travertines is harmful to the travertines, due to the crowd, natural, cultural and historical items in the area can be damaged, due to crowd the structure of the travertines will deteriorate more be quickly and dirtiness in the travertines are caused by the visitor density is demonstrated.

The travertines in the Pamukkale Special Environmental Protection Area with the number of visitors approaching 2 million in recent years will be damaged if the necessary precautions are not taken for the travertines (disturbance of travertine formation, deterioration of travertine formation, deterioration of structure) and Hierapolis ancient city (wear and tear) due to tourism and recreational activities. Hierapolis-Pamukkale World Heritage Site is important for the preservation of the resources and for the future related to the future, and for the preparation of all plans related to the city and the area in order to remove the environmental issues from the landscape, taking into consideration the natural and cultural landscape values.

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Reassessing airline mission statements to address changing trends and contemporary components of importance, a content analysis

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Abstract

From business, marketing and management perspectives, mission statements have an important bearing on a business and in the airline industry mission statements inform and connect international and heterogeneous stakeholders. Moreover, mission statements help airlines differentiate from competitor statements by expressing unique corporate personalities. Significant research was conducted on airline mission statements over a decade ago, the industry has since transformed with the rise of new global carriers and changing consumer trends. The purpose of this study is to examine components included in recent airline mission statements to updated findings from previous studies. The analysis evaluates mission statement content of 79 passenger airlines around the world. The outcomes reveal products/services, customers and location/markets as the top three most prevalence components included in recent airline mission statements. Subsequently, mentioning safety in mission statements has been increasingly important as airlines seek to ensure trust and confidence of consumers. Results and conclusions build on an existing framework of ten mission statement components and make comparisons across components and identified world regions.

Keywords: Mission Statements; Airlines; Stakeholders; Content analysis

1. Introduction

According to David (2012), mission statements give meaning to an organization and emphasize company qualities and values to attract customers. Mission statements outline future goals, directions, existence and responsibility (Eden and Hyndman, 2001), and scholars argue that mission statements are integral to a company's intentions to deliver service quality (King et al., 2014). Businesses implement strategies and plans to ensure consumers are aware of a company's intentions and business practices (David et al., 2014; Powers, 2012; Wang and Lin, 2011) so consumers can better measure the effectiveness business operations (Braun et al., 2012). Previous studies on mission statements in the business and management literature have analyzed content of companies based on similar industries operating in different countries (Baetz and Bart, 1996; Verma, 2010; King et al., 2014; Bartkus et al., 2004; Wang and Lin, 2011). With an emphasis on difference, the airline industry represents a unique industry for assessing mission statements. Accordingly, from business, marketing and management perspectives, mission statements have an important bearing on an airlines operation due an airline's role in connecting international and heterogeneous stakeholders. Moreover, mission statements help airlines differentiate from competitor statements as a way to express unique corporate personalities. Over a decade ago, Kemp and Dwyer (2003) evaluated airline mission statements. Since this time, the industry has rapidly transformed with the rise of new global carriers and changing consumer trends. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine components included in recent airline mission statements to updated findings.

Research assessing mission statements has seen increased attention among businesses, corporations and industries, resulting in increased interest among academics (Baetz and Bart, 1996; Williams, 2008; King, et al., 2010; Yozgat and Karatas, 2011; Rajasekar, 2013). To businesses, mission statements communicate a company's intentions to inform relevant stakeholders, such as customers, employees, suppliers, investors and community about the organization, what they offer, goals/aspirations to deliver service quality and value, meet consumer demands and offer insight into the future plans and directions of the company (Ackoff, 1987; Bartkus et al., 2004; Eden and Hyndman, 2001; Genç, 2012; Jyoti and Sharma, 2012; King et al., 2014; Wang and Lin, 2011). Regardless of whether a matter mission statement is a short sentence or a long paragraph, it helps

the organization to differentiate itself among competitors (Bart, 1997; Kemp and Dwyer, 2002). Moreover, the statement expresses unique personalities and the corporate character of an organization (Chun and Davies, 2001). As noted by Ackoff (1997), and further emphasized by Bartkus et al. (2004), well-structured mission statements can help an organization meet the demands of the different stakeholders groups: customers, employees, investors, suppliers and communities. Kemp and Dwyer (2003, p. 636-637) further argued: “a mission statement needs to be specific enough to instill purpose in—but broad enough to effectively reconcile differences among—the organization’s diverse stakeholders”. For instance, a non-profit organization will focus on public benefits in its mission statement in order to create social value (Wang and Lin, 2011). Regardless of the service delivered, management teams will refer to their mission statement when making decisions (Moin et al., 2012). Furthermore, mission statements help create a sense of belonging and promote company culture by inspiring employees to act in accordance to the organization’s values (Lin, 2012). This has been an important component of corporate culture for decades (Klemme et al., 1991), and today there is more emphasis on both employee and customer satisfaction (David et al., 2014; Jyoti and Sharma, 2012).

This research seeks to update the literature on airline mission statements by conducting a more recent analysis of airline mission statements. A content analysis method is used in this paper to reassess content. This study focuses on 79 passenger airlines to look at how industry missions have changed in the past decade, building on a previous study conducted by Kemp and Dwyer (2003). The next section will start by discussing the literature on mission statements by overviewing purpose and components before looking at the importance of mission statements specific to the airline industry. The following section discusses the approach and content analysis before presenting descriptive results and a wider discussion of the key components observed in the findings. The concluding section summarizes the findings and offers some insight into managerial implications. Such research is important to update because of changes and increased competitiveness in the passenger airline industry. Today companies are pressured to respond to changing consumer demands and safety standards; mission statements put forward a framework showcasing how company’s intend to deliver quality passengers.

2. Mission Statements

According to Kemp and Dwyer (2003, p. 636) “a good mission statement describes an organization’s purpose, products and services, markets, philosophy, and basic technology”. More recently, Kotler and Keller (2012) suggest a strong mission statement should have the following attributes: focus on specific company goals; stress major policies and company values; define major competitive dimensions of the company; and long-term vision of the company. Bringing these perspectives together, David et al. (2014, p. 98) state: “mission statements should be informative, inspiring, enduring, concise, clear, and conducive to both employees and customers forming an emotional bond with the firm”. In addition, mission statements should be concise, meaningful and memorable (Kotler and Keller, 2012). Based on the descriptions of mission statements by Kotler and Keller (2012) and David et al. (2014), when we interpret mission statements, elements such as company goals, policies, company vision, being clear and concise, and inspiring, are important, and link to different components further outlined below.

2.1. Purpose and components of mission statements

Based on the quotes above, mission statements need to clearly identify company intentions and commitments towards stakeholders (Bartkus et al., 2004). Well-crafted mission statements can influence how people perceive a company’s intentions, influencing people through the implementation of philosophical or ethical aspects (Verma, 2010). Because mission statements are important messages communicated by companies, they need to clearly (and concisely) convey

information to stakeholders, even the general public. While numerous scholars have looked at mission statements, most are more concerned with the content of mission statements, for instance looking at how companies communicate business objectives and markets to consumers (see Campbell and Yeung, 1991a; Chun and Davies, 2001; David, 1989; Leuthesser and Kohli, 1997; Lin, 2012; Terrill and Middlebrooks, 2003; Wang and Lin, 2011). As recommended by Chun and Davies (2001), mission statements allow stakeholders to know ‘who’ a company is expressing corporate character or personality to, linked to business sense, identity and strategy. Generally, a mission statement also include information outlining how a company will better achieve and sustain growth and serve the interests of shareholders (Terrill and Middlebrooks, 2003; Wang and Lin, 2011).

Campbell and Yeung (1991a, 1991b) suggested four components that need to be included in mission statements: 1) purpose; 2) strategy; 3) behavior; 4) company values. Similarly, Pearce and David (1987) looked at how companies define mission statements by analyzing particular content based on eight pre-determined components; however, David (1989, 2007) has since modified their approach to suggest nine components. According to David (2007), the nine components are: 1) customers/clients; 2) products or services; 3) location; 4) technology; 5) concern for survival; 6) philosophy; 7) self-concept; 8) concern for public image; 9) concern for employees. Relevant to this study, Lin (2012) proposed safety as an important component in airline mission statements because transport safety is at the forefront in airline management and company image (see also, Genç, 2012). Contemporary mission statements include the above mentioned components: outlining goals, direction and the existence of an organization opposed to solely offering strategic plans regarding organizational development. In short, from an academic perspective, mission statements represent an important area of research to look at wider trends and to assess company strategies, immediate future plans and longer-term visions for growth (Wang and Lin, 2011).

In terms of general business insight, mission statements are also guidelines for non-routine decision-making, stated as control mechanism to ensure everything and everyone is on the right track and working towards shared objectives (Bartkus et al., 2004). Similarly, Lin (2012) puts emphasis on creating a sense of belonging, or company culture, inspiring employees to contribute to the values of the company. Finally, Baetz and Bart (1996) noted that stakeholders will be more satisfied if they can provide their input when companies outlined mission statements to ensure their voices and interests are integral to the company.

2.2. The changing airline industry

The global aviation industry has become one of the most competitive service industries, even more so given the rapid expansion of low cost carriers in the last decade (Detzen et al., 2012; Pels, 2009; Yetiskul and Kanafani, 2010). It is crucial for each airline to give the public a strong impression about who they are, what they promise their customers, and the benefits of flying with them in an increasingly competitive business environment. The aviation industry is inherently different from other service industries because passengers, employees and investors are heterogeneous, and internationally considering, the industry transcends cultural business boundaries. Therefore, airline mission statements are the most effective and easiest way to notify passengers, current and prospective employees, and the general public about the airline. Similar to the point above, from a corporate and internal operations perspective, mission statements inform employees and investors about the benefits an airline provides with the aim of achieving a designated standard of service quality. By reading and understanding mission statements, stakeholders not only gain insight about a particular airline’s core values and benefits, they are informed of options based on aspirations and commitments—which help distinguish one airline from its competitors.

Mission statements play an important role in an airline’s operation, which influence business approaches, management and marketing styles. Company visions involve strategic management styles, which assist organizations when to determine and adopt approaches to protect against threats

in increasingly competitive and changing business environments (Rajasekar, 2013). David and David (2003) suggested an organizations mission statement should be reviewed periodically to adapt to changing business environments and react to consumer demands. This will ensure operations and strategies keep up with changing market trends. Another perspective suggests change to a company's mission statement reflects the growth of a company (Entrepreneur Media, 2014). From these perspectives it is reasonable to assume that mission statements of airlines have significantly changed in the last 10 years.

3. Method: content analysis

Content analyses have been used in a number of studies in business research (e.g. David et al. 2014; Harwood and Garry 2003; King et al., 2014), and more specifically in the areas of transport management (e.g. Halpern and Regmi, 2013; Kemp and Dwyer, 2003). A content analysis was used in this study to evaluate and understand the elements of mission statement provided by each airline included in this study to address contemporary content included in mission statements using deductive approach. The purpose of this study is to examine the components included in recent airline mission statements, as well as update findings from previous research conducted by Kemp and Dwyer (2003) over a decade ago. There are 240 airlines from 118 countries registered on International Air Transport Association (IATA), which carriers 84% of air traffic of the world, including both passenger and cargo airlines (IATA, 2014). The mission statements of 79 passenger airlines, including both full service carriers and low cost carriers categorized based on the five regions identified by IATA (*The Americas, Europe, Africa and Middle East, China and North Asia, and Asia Pacific*) were selected to go through a content analysis about its components (see Table 1). It must be noted that most companies have a mission statement, but not every mission statement is complete and adequate. 79 passenger airlines around the world were selected based on the following criteria. Foremost, the airline had to be registered with the International Air Transport Association (IATA), and mission statements needed to be complete enough to be analyzed. In some cases, airlines registered with IATA did not include their mission statement on their website—so it is not readily accessible, and therefore deemed incomplete. For a mission statement to be complete it had to provide an overview and focus.

[Table 1 about here]

Ellingson (2011) suggests using existing frameworks to assist with linking content to patterns to determine what is being communicated. The purpose of conducting a content analysis of airline mission statements is to gain further insight about what particular content is included in current mission statements based on a categorization criteria outlined in the above literature review (see Table 2). Deductive approaches allow researchers to develop their own framework as a point of reference to update previous studies (Julien, 2008, King et al., 2014; Patton, 2002; Gold and Grotti, 2013), in addition to further exploring existing theoretical frameworks (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). Specific to this paper, by adopting the guidelines identified by Pearce and David (1989), updated by David (2007), Kemp and Dwyer (2003), and Lin (2012), the ten components outlined in Table 2 represent the coding scheme used to evaluate the components of mission statements. Table 2 provides definitions for each mission statement component, and any keywords or phrases noted in each airlines mission statement use this criteria as the point of assessment to determine if a particular component existed in an airline's mission statement.

[Table 2 about here]

The mission statements of the selected airlines were acquired from official airline websites. Two coders were involved in the study. Each of the coders independently analyzed and recorded the

components of the selected mission statements. ‘1’ is assigned to the component if present and ‘0’ is assigned for the component if absent from the mission statements assessed. Following the evaluation, the coders then compared interpretations. In order to test the inter-rater agreement of the content analysis, Cohen’s Kappa is calculated using SPSS. Cohen’s Kappa is used to measure inter-rater agreements of categorical (qualitative) items (Landis and Koch, 1977). The average inter-rater agreement based on Cohen’s Kappa was 0.75, which reached substantial agreement between the coders. In terms of regions, the inter-rater agreement of the coders on The Americas, Europe, Africa and Middle East, and Asia Pacific were 0.71, 0.76, 0.70 and 0.72, respectively. In China and North Asia region, it was almost perfect agreement (0.87 Cohen’s K value) between the coders.

4. Results, data analysis and discussion

This section will present the results of the content analysis in two parts. The first section will present the descriptive results followed by a discussion that looks at the main components observed in this updated study. Since five main components were consistently observed, the authors interpret these based on changing business trends, consumer demand patterns, and regional differences.

4.1. Descriptive results

As shown in Table 3, the results revealed that *products/services*, *customers* and *location/markets* are the most prevalence components in the assessed airline mission statements. Out of 79 airlines, there are 63 airlines (79.7%) that state the *products/services* they provide to passengers. 52 airlines (65.8%) pointed out *customers* in their mission statement and 46 airlines (58.2%) indicated specific *location/markets* in their statements. In contrast, only 4 airlines (5.1%) talked about *technology* in the mission. The additional *safety* component was stated by 27 airlines in their mission statement (34.2%). Figure 1 presents all ten components. The graph in Figure 1 is organized by region to see how each component compares by designated IATA region.

[Table 3 about here]

[Figure 1 about here]

Table 4 shows percentages of components that exist in airline mission statements, as compared to Kemp and Dwyer’s (2003) study ten years prior—showing very different results. In 2003, most airlines emphasized *self-concept* (88.0%), followed by their company *philosophy* (80.0%) and *customers* (72.0%). In contrast, more recently airlines are focusing more on their *products/services* (79.7%), *customers* (68.8%) and *location/markets* (58.2%). As the current results show, airlines today pay less attention to components of *self-concept* and *philosophy* which were highlighted most in 2003. As compared to 2003, *concern for employees* saw increased focus from a number of airlines, where the percentage has increased from 22.0% (2003) to 41.8% (2013). The component with the least attention was *technology*, decreasing from 22.0% (2003) to 5.1% (2013). An explanation for this points to the ubiquity of technology as essential to contemporary business practices, whereas in 2003, an emphasis on technology perhaps attempted to suggest a competitive advantage in the market.

[Table 4 about here]

To address differences across regions, observed in Table 5, five different components consistently ranked in the top three by region. Airlines in *The Americas* region were most concerned with *customers* (73.3%) in their mission, followed by *products/services* (66.7%) and *concern for employees* (53.3%). Unlike the airlines from *The Americas*, *European* airlines mentioned *customers*

the least (60.9%), but *products/services* and *location/markets* were stated the most in mission statement, with both achieving 78.3%. Because each country in Europe has a flagship airline (i.e. France: Air France; Germany: Lufthansa; Great Britain: British Airways), it is not surprising that *location/markets* were most commonly observed given national significance and geography. Moving on, there were only two airlines that did not talk about *products/services* in the *Africa and Middle East* region. There has been rapid growth in the Middle East carriers in particular in the last decade (see O’Connell, 2011). Carriers such as Emirates, Etihad and Qatar Airways highlight their service quality in their marketing. In the *Africa and Middle East* region, *customers* are ranked second in mission statements (68.8%), followed by *safety* (50.0%). In the *China and North Asia* region, 81.8% of the airlines assessed mentioned *products/services*, 72.7% focused on *safety* and 63.6% noted *concern for employees*. Lastly, *Asia Pacific* airlines were most concerned with *products/services* (85.7%), followed by *customers* and *location/markets* (both with 71.4%).

[Table 5 about here]

4.2. Discussion of content and changing trends

Providing adequate service quality and targeting specific markets will lead to consumer satisfaction and perceptions of service quality (Nam et al, 2011). The outcomes of this study reveal *products/services*, *customers* and *location/markets* are the top three components included in airline mission statements, globally represented, in 2013. The results highlight a number of differences as compared to Kemp and Dwyer’s (2003) earlier study. The existing literature suggests increases in components such as *products/services* and *customers*, in particular, link to perceived values, experience and branding contribute positively to consumer satisfaction (Brakus, et al., 2009; Iglesias et al., 2011; Şahin et al., 2011). It is reasonable to assume that airline marketers focus on emphasizing to passengers and potential customers the products or services that has most satisfied their customers so that they have better flying experience with a particular airline.

Products/services, *customers* and *location/market* are emphasized in mission statements showing how airlines are more and more trying to promote their products in accordance to consumer demand. Based on service quality, out of the world’s top ten airlines awarded by Skytrax, six are from Asia Pacific, proving to the global consumer market and aviation industry that they offer some of the best services among the worldwide airlines. From this understanding, this relates to why airlines from *Asia Pacific* region often highlight their *products/services* in mission statement. *Products/services* focus on what is offered or sold by the airline, examples include “Jetstar’s mission is to offer all day, every day low fares to enable more people to fly to more places, more often”, or Ethiopian Airlines who note: “to become the leading Aviation group in Africa by providing safe and reliable passenger and cargo air transport, Aviation Training, Flight Catering, MRO and Ground Services”.

Whereas, examples where mission statements focus on *customers*: “To maintain profitability, efficiency and excellence in aviation services to meet the expectations of our customers” (AeroMexico), “We seek to earn customer loyalty by consistently exceeding our customers’ expectations” (American Airlines), “The customer is the centre of our attention: we provide reliable services for passengers” (Lufthansa) and “providing heart-to-heart service to our customers” (China Eastern Airlines). Austrian repeatedly puts emphasis on *customers*: “our customers expect technical reliability, punctuality, and an orientation to service [...] ‘We carry Austria in our hearts, and ever more customers into the world,’ we do everything to ensure our customers look forward to their next flight.” Such statements help airlines attract more potential passengers and maintain long lasting relationships with their passengers. This is based on the desire to deliver a high value product to ensure consumer satisfaction. Meeting consumer demands require providing services that match the particular customer needs of their target market(s) (David et al., 2014).

From the findings, it can be seen that the airlines from *The Americas* often mentioned their *customers* the most in their mission statements, as compared to the airlines from the other regions (Figure 1). This might be due to the customer-focused culture in the region. Unlike *The Americas*, the airlines from *Europe* are more likely to concentrate on the *location/markets*. Europe (as a continent) consists of many countries, which results in numerous airlines from different countries operating in a competitive multi-country environment. European airlines thus tend to identify a certain geographic scope in order to distinguish themselves from competitors. To extend markets served, airlines join alliances, or strategic partnerships, and use techniques such as code sharing, and even franchising, for particular routes (Morrish and Hamilton, 2002). Such collaborations allow airlines to improve their effectiveness globally so they can better concentrate on serving their familiar/original market or location. Emphasizing location helps the airline to convey the spirit of its origin (country) to the passengers, for example: “to ensure Jordan will be proud of us because we represent the best of Jordanian hospitality and culture” (The Royal Jordanian Airline) and “To be an ambassador and guide for Malta” (Air Malta). Other airlines look at increased connectedness, for instance, Croatia Airlines “has connected Croatian cities with the most important European centres” and Alitalia is “Proud to show the best of our country” (Italy).

The component of *safety* is important to discuss, since it was included in this updated analysis. Some airlines have placed safety at the forefront, for instance Thai Airways stated: “In 5 decades, safety and security in flight operations have been the Company’s main concern as its number one **mission**.” Air Macau stated “to achieve the highest standards of safety and reliability” and both EVA Airways and Cathay Pacific clearly stated “safety is the core value of the airline”. Other examples include: “To be a safe and reliable airline by selecting and operating new, modern aircraft” (Arik Air, Nigeria), “Our aim is to provide a safe, reliable and seamless flying experience” (Oman Air), “We take safety and punctuality as the primary principles of our aviation services” (Hainan Airlines) and “As an international airline, we will provide the greatest flight service for each one of our customers in the safest way” (Asiana Airlines).

The airline business is a high risk service industry, it is necessary to emphasize points on safety, in terms of aircraft safety or even security measures during transactions. Safety could be one of the factors that contribute to brand trust and overall reputation of an airline. According to the statistics published by Boeing Commercial Airplanes (2013), the numbers of fatal accidents among the accidents of worldwide commercial jet fleet recorded, were reduced dramatically, from 533 cases (happened before 2003) to 75 cases (post-2003 to 2012). Besides, there are some reasons to explain why the airlines from *Africa and Middle East*, as well as *China and North Asia* emphasize *safety* in their mission statements. Some of the airlines from African nations received lower scores in ICAO aviation safety audits, which considered Africa is the least safe continent (Aviation Safety Network, 2014). As such, this interpretation suggests, *safety* was stressed with the intention to boost the confidence of passengers toward the airlines.

Unlike the findings of previous study in 2003, which emphasized *self-concept* and *philosophy*, the outcomes of the study not determine that airlines have changed their core values from being self-centered (in terms of the business) to customer oriented to cater to changing demand. In fact, David (2012) suggested: attracting customers was as a primary motive for an organization to have a business mission. Yet, previous findings observed in Kemp and Dwyer’s (2003) analysis showed a different viewpoint during the time, where airlines mentioned/put emphasis on *self-concept* and *philosophy*. For example, this can be seen through the mission statement of Caribbean Airlines: “To raise customer satisfaction by delivering our promises in providing the highest standards of service and reliability marked by genuine Caribbean hospitality [...] delivered by passionate people”. This shows that the company focuses on customers, but also emphasize their self-concept. Moreover, Singapore Airlines stated that they focus on “providing air transportation services of the highest service quality” and Emirates seek “to be the world’s most admired air services provider”. As a regional discount airline, Ryanair takes a different approach in how they distinguish themselves: “Ryanair’s objective is to firmly establish itself as Europe’s

leading low-fares scheduled passenger airline through continued improvements and expanded offerings of its low-fares service”. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that providing the right *self-concept* will lead to consumer satisfaction, especially since consumer satisfaction is important in brand marketing and shaping brand image (Genç, 2012; Nam et al, 2011).

5. Concluding remarks

Based on the findings of this content analysis, airlines from different regions tend to emphasize different components in their mission statements. For instance, airlines from *The Americas* emphasized *customers* while *Europe* airlines highlighted *location/market* in their mission statements. This might be due to the business environment or culture, or distinct regional differences because of numerous national carriers in close proximity. It is necessary for management teams to broadly assess the contemporary business environment when determining their mission statements—because of regional variations, perceptions, catering to consumer demands, meeting standards and ensuring quality and safety. Moreover, companies are adapting more consumer oriented approaches to increase service quality to satisfy passengers. Awareness of industry change is most crucial in any business. To grow in an increasingly competitive industry, successful businesses need to adapt their product and delivery standards to ‘keep up’ with the pace of change. The literature mentions that mission statements are studied based on internal perspectives of an organization, where management teams meet to assess/examine the relationship between their mission statement and performances. Conversely, this study focused on mission statement content across the airline industry. Overall, over the past 10 years airline mission statements have changed from *self-concept*, *philosophy* and *customers* to *products/services*, *customers* and *location/markets*. This paper demonstrates that airline marketing and promotion has shifted from being self-centered to more customer-oriented given the need to meet consumer demands and put emphasis on service quality.

Ultimately, this study has looked at changes since a similar study was conducted in 2003, and addresses the development of the airline mission statement. Based on these results, while mission statements are not the most important factor that contributed an organization’s success, they are however necessary to assist short-term management decision-making and frame long-term goals (Eden and Hyndman, 2001; Genç, 2012; Jyoti and Sharma, 2012; King et al., 2014; Wang and Lin, 2011). Overall, the content included in mission statements are different by regions, due to the factors such as culture, business environment and company policies. Each of these areas are where more work is needed to look more at cross-regional differences. Such an analysis is needed every few years so that researchers can offer insight and critique into changing business practices in the airline industry. Future research intends to consolidate evidence so that managers can look at the wider picture of an industry to seek how they fit in comparison with competitors.

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Table 1

Airlines mission statements analyzed in this study by identified IATI region

Region	The Americas	Europe	Africa and Middle East	China and North Asia	Asia Pacific
Airline	Air Canada Alaska Airlines Hawaiian Airlines Aerolineas Argentinas Aeromexico American Airlines Caribbean Airlines United Airlines Cubana Delta Air Lines Lan Argentina Volaris-Mexico AVIANCA Southwest Airlines Surinam Airways	Alitalia Adria Airways Air Malta Austrian British Airways Brussels Airlines Bulgaria air Blue Panaroma Italy Croatia Airlines Estonian Air Finnair KLM Royal Dutch Lufthansa Luxair Montenegro Airlines Ryanair SAS (Sweden) SATA Air Acores SWISS (Switzerland) TAP Portugal TAROM S.A Turkish Airlines Virgin Atlantic	Air Arabia Airlink Air Mauritius ALS (Kenya) Air Seychelles Arik Air (Nigeria) Egyptair Ethihad Airways Emirates Ethiopian Airlines Jazeera Airways-Kuwait Kuwait Airways Oman Air The Royal Jordanian Airline Qatar Airways SAA (South Africa)	Air Macau AirChina Cathay Pacific China Airlines China Eastern Airlines EVA Air Dragonair Hainan Airlines Mongolian Airlines TransAsia Airways Xiamen Airlines	Air New Zealand Air Asia Air Tahiti All Nippon Airways Asiana Airlines Garuda Japan Airlines Jetstar Korean Air Malaysia Airlines Qantas SIA (Singapore Airlines) SriLankan Thai Airways International

Table 2**Components of Mission Statement**

Component	Definition
Customer	Who are the target customers of the airline?
Products/ Services	What are the major products or services sold by the airline?
Location/ Markets	Where is the competing area, or main competing market of the airline?
Technology	How much is the airline concerned about technology?
Concern for survival, growth and profitability	How much is the airline committed to economic and company growth objectives?
Philosophy	What are the basic beliefs, values, aspirations, and philosophical priorities of the airline?
Self-concept	What are the competitive advantages, unique selling points and image of the airline?
Concern for public image	Does the airline show concern for social, community and environmental issues?
Concern for employees	Does the airline show concern for and appreciate its employees?
Safety	Does the airline emphasize the safety of passengers and employees?

Source: Pearce and David (1987), Kemp and Dwyer (2003) and Lin (2012)

Table 3

Number of each components existed in mission statement of 79 airlines

Component	Number	Percentage
Customers	52	68.8%
Products/Services	63	79.7%
Location/Markets	46	58.2%
Technology	4	5.1%
Concern for survival, growth and profitability	28	35.4%
Philosophy	23	29.1%
Self-concept	19	24.1%
Concern for public image	16	20.3%
Concern for employees	33	41.8%
Safety	27	34.2%

Table 4

Comparison on the percentage of airline mission statements' components

Component	2003		2013	
	Percentage	Ranking	Percentage	Ranking
Customers	72.0%	3	68.8%	2
Products/ Services	32.0%	6	79.7%	1
Location/ Markets	42.0%	5	58.2%	3
Technology	22.0%	8	5.1%	10
Concern for survival, growth and profitability	48.0%	4	35.4%	5
Philosophy	80.0%	2	29.1%	7
Self-concept	88.0%	1	24.1%	8
Concern for public image	30.0%	7	20.3%	9
Concern for employees	22.0%	8	41.8%	4
Safety	-	-	34.2%	6

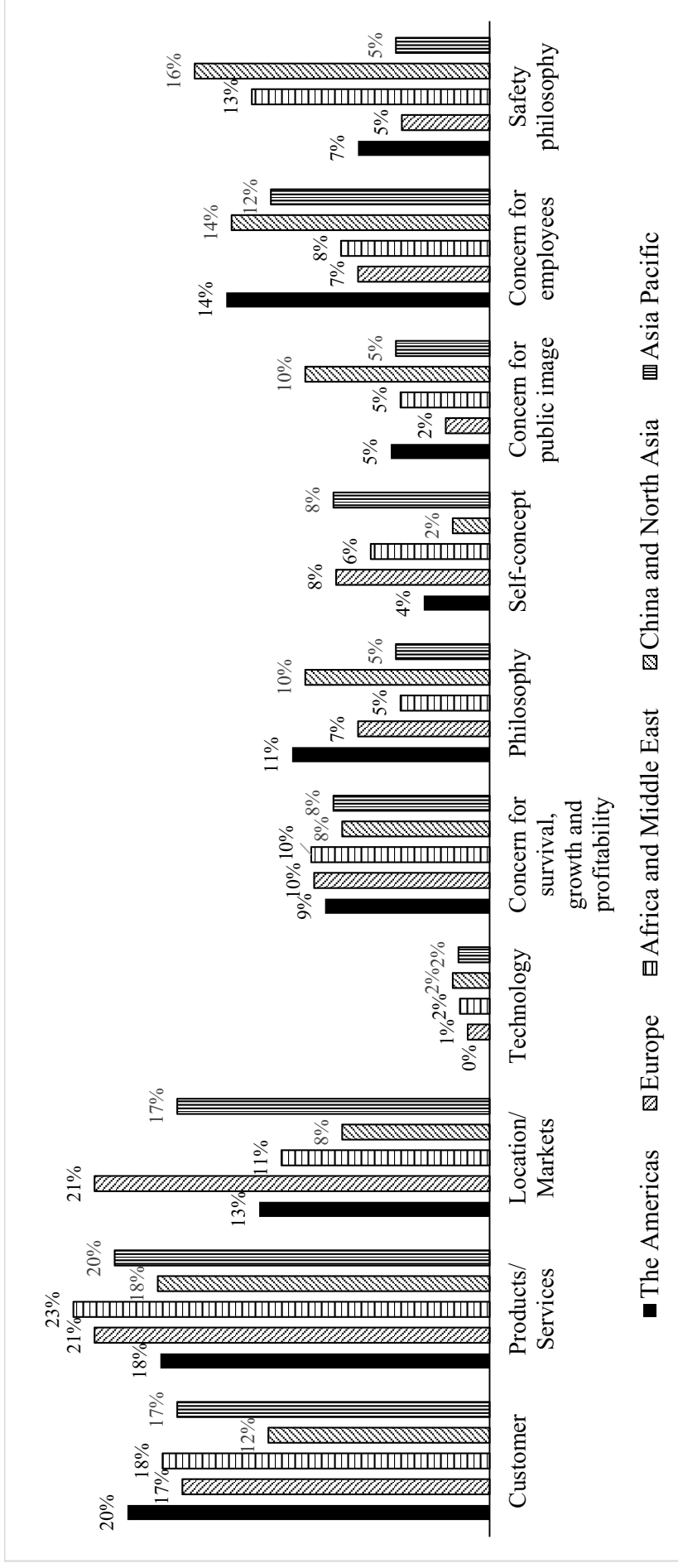
Table 5

Number of each components existed in mission statement of different region

Region	Component	Ranking 1	Component	Ranking 2	Component	Ranking 3
The Americas	Customers	11/15 (73.3%)	Products/Services	10/15 (66.7%)	Concern for employees	08/15 (53.3%)
	Products/Services	18/23 (78.3%)			Customers	14/23 (60.9%)
Europe	Location/Markets	18/23 (78.3%)				
	Products/Services	14/16 (87.5%)	Customers	11/16 (68.8%)	Safety	08/16 (50.0%)
Africa and Middle East	Products/Services	09/11 (81.8%)	Safety	08/11 (72.7%)	Concern for employees	07/11 (63.6%)
	Products/Services	12/14 (85.7%)	Customers	10/14 (71.4%)		
China and North Asia			Location/Markets	10/14 (71.4%)		
Asia Pacific						

Figure 1

Each assessed mission statement component organized by IATA region to show comparisons across each region



Local specialists' perceptions on tourism impacts of WHS designation: the case of Oporto¹

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Keywords: Cultural tourism, historic center, stakeholders' perceptions, tourism impacts, World Heritage Site.

Objectives: The World Heritage list is generally considered an important tool for national and international tourism campaigns. Sites inscribed on the World Heritage by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) are commonly used to promote the tourism industry, thus contributing to economic growth and development. Given that support for tourism development is affected by the perceived impacts of tourism, which may be both positive and negative, policy makers and planners need to incorporate local stakeholders' opinions into tourism development by continuously monitoring these opinions in order to maximize the benefits and minimize the adverse effects.

This study employs a case study approach to explore the issue of the local stakeholders' perceptions of the importance of the World Heritage Site classification of the historic centers by UNESCO. The case study is the historic center of the city of Oporto. It also measures the economic, social and cultural and environmental tourism impacts on the municipality of Oporto perceived by local stakeholders. In this study we considered as local stakeholders local specialists in tourism development, namely the government and other administrative bodies. This paper is part of a broader study where we aim to explore all key stakeholders' perceptions. In

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Given the stakeholders' main interest in the impact of the intervention on the health and well-being of the community, the study was designed to explore the impact of the intervention on the health and well-being of the community. The study was designed to explore the impact of the intervention on the health and well-being of the community. The study was designed to explore the impact of the intervention on the health and well-being of the community.

Methodology – The study was based on local specialists' points of view. Semi-structured interviews with local specialists who are familiar with the W-S program and the health consequences were conducted in April 2010. The sampling strategy (the semi-structured interviews) is a combination of purposive choice and snowballing (Imkang, 2000). The interviews were analyzed using thematic analysis (Crabtree, 2000). The study was based on the W-S program and the health consequences. The study was based on the W-S program and the health consequences. The study was based on the W-S program and the health consequences.

Results and Contributions – The study found that local specialists' perceptions of the W-S program and its impact on the health and well-being of the community are positive. The study found that local specialists' perceptions of the W-S program and its impact on the health and well-being of the community are positive. The study found that local specialists' perceptions of the W-S program and its impact on the health and well-being of the community are positive.

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UNDERSTANDING TOURIST MOTIVATION: THE CASE OF HAGIA SOPHIA, TURKEY

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This research aimed to identify tourists' motivations to visit heritage places. Previous studies have shown that there are different reasons for visiting a heritage site, such as education, recreation or heritage experience. Besides, recent studies suggest that the relationship between heritage displayed at the site and tourists' perceptions of the site is central for the understanding of heritage tourism. In this research, the relationship between tourists' perceptions and heritage site's attributes will be investigated in the context of heritage tourism. To do this, the relationship between two variables (tourists' personal characteristics and tourists' perceptions of the site as part of their own heritage) and tourists' visitation patterns (tourists' motivation, heritage site attributes, tourists' experience and future intentions) are explored based on the theoretical context.

This research adopts a positivist approach to achieve its objectives. Furthermore, a questionnaire survey method was used to obtain data from a large sample frame. Data was collected in two steps. Firstly, a site survey was carried out to gather as much respondents as possible at the heritage site. The research took place in Hagia Sophia, in Turkey, in a ten-day period. During the field study research, a total of 205 questionnaires were collected. In the second step, as the researcher was not satisfied with the number of responses, an online questionnaire followed up the field study research. To gather some more responses, the social web site Facebook was used and finally 61 Turkish visitors took part in the survey. The questionnaire form was distributed in four languages: Greek, Turkish, English and French, as it would have made the data collection process easier for the researcher and for the respondents as well. For analysis purposes, tourists were grouped into four main groups based on their countries of origins which are respectively Turkish, Greeks, Europeans and Others.

The findings of this study demonstrate that there is a link between individuals' perceptions of the site as part of their own heritage and tourists' personal characteristics. There might be differences between tourists based on their country of birth, religion and strength of religious belief. Moreover, this may affect their motivation, perceptions of the site attributes, their experience and future behaviours. In addition to this, there are three main factors that motivate heritage tourists to historic sites; "Heritage / Emotional" factors, "Cultural / Educational" factors and "Recreational factors". To conclude, this study confirms that visitors' perceptions of the site as part of their own heritage is the core to the understanding of the phenomenon.

Besides contributing to academic research in the field of heritage tourism, the study might have some managerial implications as well. Managers may utilize the findings of this research to understand tourists' perceptions of the heritage sites to improve their offer. As some tourists link the heritage site with their personal heritage, it might be useful to organize some events or meetings to target specific tourists. In addition to this, from the managerial perspective, it is very helpful to understand how tourists perceive the heritage site since it has influences on tourists' level of satisfaction.

Keywords: Motivation, Heritage, Heritage Tourism and Hagia Sophia

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ANALYSIS OF THE INFLUENCE OF MOTIVATION AND AUTHENTICITY IN SATISFACTION AND FIDELITY IN CULTURAL TOURISM.

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ABSTRACT

During the last decades, tourism has experienced a continuous expansion and diversification, becoming one of the most important and fastest growing economic sectors in the world. The arrival of international tourists around the world has increased from 25 million in 1950 to 1,186 million in 2015. Also, international tourism revenues from destinations worldwide have increased from US \$ 2 billion in 1950 to 1,260 million in 2015. UNWTO predicts that the arrival of international tourists will grow by 3.3% per year between 2010 and 2030, to reach 1.8 billion by 2030. Within this sector of economic activity, the cultural tourism type has socio-economic characteristics that make it especially attractive for any destination. Our work analyzes the role of motivation and authenticity in the formation of satisfaction and loyalty of tourists with cultural motivation.

Motivation has been defined as a biological or psychological desire or need that includes factors that awaken, direct, and integrate a person's behavior and activity. The review of the academic literature reveals that tourists undertake their trips mainly motivated by two types of motives: the internal or personal motives of the people and external motives or the attraction of a specific destination. The motivation has been considered as a direct and indirect antecedent of the satisfaction and the fidelity of the tourists.

In relation to the variable Authenticity, recent studies emphasize the importance of this variable in the field of tourism, especially in heritage cultural tourism. The review of the literature shows that there is no consensus among the different authors about what the term authenticity means. There are different approaches and interpretations of the term. The theoretical review shows that most works distinguish between the objective authenticity of an object and the existential authenticity of an experience. Authenticity can be seen as a quality of objects or places, but also as something that can be experienced through body, interpretation, direction and the environment. In any case, authenticity becomes a feeling related to the place you visit. Most of the recent practical work in the field of tourism coincides in pointing out a double dimension of Authenticity: Objective and Subjective or Existential. All studies indicate the need to deepen the study and knowledge of this variable.

Our work makes a bibliographical review of previous works and analyzes through a structural equations model the influence of motivation and authenticity on satisfaction and fidelity in a context of heritage cultural tourism. For the estimation of the model, the

Small Square Partial (PLS) technique is used. A multi-group analysis was also performed for the cities of Seville and York in order to detect if there are significant differences in the causal relationships of the model.

Our study confirms the direct or positive influence of Motivation on the two dimensions of Authenticity and Satisfaction, as well as the indirect influence of Motivation on Existential Authenticity and on Satisfaction and Loyalty. It is demonstrated that the effect of Motivation on Existential Authenticity is mediated by Objective Authenticity, with which we can say that there is a partial mediation of Objective Authenticity in the positive influence that Cultural Motivation exerts on Existential Authenticity. This implies that tourists with a high Cultural Motivation are more involved and informed tourists about the destination and therefore, they obtain higher level of Authenticity, in its double aspect, Objective and Existential.

Our paper also confirms the positive, direct and indirect influence of the two dimensions of Authenticity on Satisfaction and Objective Authenticity on Fidelity. Existential Authenticity does not directly influence Fidelity but indirectly through Satisfaction. Therefore, the influence of the two dimensions of Authenticity on Fidelity are partially mediated by the Satisfaction variable.

Since Motivation positively influences the perception of Authenticity and directly and indirectly in the achieved levels of Satisfaction and Loyalty tourist destinations would need to improve those aspects that can reinforce the pull factors of tourists, that is the factors that exert as a demand for tourists and make the visit to a destination is appealing to tourists with cultural motivation. In this sense, destinations should offer and diversify potential cultural experiences, offering heritage or monumental routes, gastronomic, cultural events such as literature, flamenco, sports all events that foment the motivation of the possible tourists to visit the considered destiny.

Regarding the variable Authenticity, the destinations should take care of aspects related to the architecture, the restoration of the buildings and the harmony of these with the surroundings of the city. It is important that the presentation of cultural heritage allows visitors to immerse themselves in the different historical periods of the city, providing detailed and precise information on the matter. It is also important that the destinations design strategies aimed at fostering an environment of peace and calm during the visits and the connection and interaction with the local population, their uses and customs.

In the face of future research, we would like to extend our study to other cultural heritage sites, both in Spain and in Europe. We would like to deepen the analysis of causal relationships by studying if there are significant differences in these relationships for the different cities that we consider.

Keywords: Motivation, Authenticity, Tourism, Satisfaction, Loyalty.

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MANAGEMENT SHADOWING: AS A TOOL FOR IMPROVING MANAGERIAL AND ENTREPRENEURIAL SKILLS OF TOURISM STUDENTS

by

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ABSTRACT:

Cooperation between hospitality companies and higher education institutions is the key factor for successful placement of graduates as well as advancement of tourism and hospitality industry. Even before graduation, it is possible to start career planning from the students' perspective and human resources planning from the employers' perspective.

A sample pre-graduation program, which is called 'Management Shadowing', has been initiated in 2016-2017 spring semester at Antalya Bilim University, Turkey. The program is designed for the senior year students of Faculty of Tourism with the purpose of planning the students' career path. In this program, the students are expected to attend the lessons at campus 3 days a week, and work in other 3 days at the collaborating companies of hospitality industry as shadow of a department manager. The match making of student and manager is based on student's area of interest.

Management Shadowing is not an internship where intern is expected to do only the routine simple and bottom level jobs without questioning; is not a management trainee program which lasts for 12-18 months and trainee is placed in different departments at entry positions far from manager and is not a sandwich year placement where student is expected to return to school afterwards. Management shadowing is a gateway from academic learning to employment with a managerial level perspective.

Management Shadowing project is revitalizing the mentor-protégé teaching-learning style at university level in today's hospitality industry with a focused target of developing managerial and entrepreneurial skills for students, creating a talent pool for industry and assurance of curriculum for academia. With this program, Managers (mentors) create a shadow (an area) enabling student (protégé) to acts as shadow managers and yet remain under the wings of manager. The students not only learn how to use periodic information for identifying red flags in business but also learn to implement new initiatives for revenue generation, cost reduction, process ease or risk mitigation. Making decisions for day-to-day business which will be reviewed and be approved by manager is the process of gaining experience for students. On the other hand as the students are not under pressure of time or budget or not yet affected by professional blindness, the input of students provides opportunities for the enterprises to receive fresh, innovative and up-to-date ideas. This win-win partnership nourishes new business ideas as well as scrutinization of "old" ways of doing business. Management Shadowing integrates: technical knowledge, personal development and work experience under one roof at managerial level.

Universities should educate and train students who will meet the requirements and expectations of sector with respect to competences of students (Collins, 2002), by providing specific courses containing hands-on training (Dale and Robinson, 2001). By effectively involving sector to curriculum design (Esichaikul and Baum, 1998), universities can reach to an optimum mixture of theoretical knowledge with practical experiences (Liu and Wall, 2006). With Management Shadowing program Academia not only gains access to up-to-date needs and expectations of the sector but also understands the ingredients vital for successful general managers in hospitality and can increase the dose of these ingredients in the curriculum to assure graduates meeting requirements of the day as well as future.

Even if curriculum is adjusted as per needs and requests of the industry, some of the skills cannot be taught on the whiteboard or in the classroom. Student must be in the place where service encounter takes place and where manager leads the service either for improvement or for remedy. Hospitality industry is looking for work-ready graduates, complete with relevant experience and trained with adequate skills. It is a joint responsibility of educators and industry to train and educate graduates who will start creating added value to the company as of day one.

For implementation of Management Shadowing program, 8 senior year students are nominated for spring semester 16/17 academic year. 3 companies are identified as strategic partner for application of Management Shadowing program. Between 9 March and 27 May 2017, 35 business days are identified and agreed with strategic partner companies on which students will work as shadow managers. Cooperation protocol defining course of implementation and reporting is executed between company and university and program is initiated.

In order to assess the effectiveness of the Management Shadowing program following methods are used: quantitative questionnaire, semi-structured qualitative interview with the students and managers, weekly reports from the students and at the end of the program a focus group with students. Initial findings as of July 2017 indicate both the students and managers have quickly adapted to the program and both parties have cooperated with enthusiasm. Both managers and students recommended the students to enroll in this program to start designing their management shadowing program during their internship. This is a clear indication that students have understood and accepted the fact that the professional work life does not come with a syllabus or user manual.

Limitations of initial implementation year are limited number of; Students (8), Managers (10), Host companies (3), Time (12 weeks x 3 days=36 days) and also the students are of different nationality and consequently potential language and cultural barriers. In order to minimize these limitations; the match making of students and companies shall be in fall semester to extend the duration and enable students to have job interview experience with host companies as well as increase the number of students, companies and departments in following years.

Based on the outcome of this pilot study, further improvement and wider application of Management Shadowing program is planned. As the number of students attending the program increase, mixed and/or qualitative research methods can be used for analysis in the future time.

Key words: Management Shadowing, Academia and sector cooperation, incubator for managers, managerial skills, mentor protégé

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Antecedents and Consequences of Service Experience Evaluation: Analyzing Cultural Differences in Fast Food Industry

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Abstract:

Emotions have got significance importance amongst practitioners and academics as primarily by virtues of being a critical facet for consumer behavior and consumer experiences. As the earlier research in service industry mainly concentrated on multiple facets of consumer experiences but not being able to shed light on consumers' reactions toward service encounter assessments. Accordingly, the purpose of this research was to investigate the antecedents (servicescape, customer value, food quality and service quality) and consequences (experience intensification, experience extension, customer loyalty and behavioral intentions) of service experience evaluation in fast food industry. To accomplish the study objectives, a conceptual framework was designed relationships among study variables were hypothesized. Self-administered, highly structured questionnaire method was used to collect the data conveniently from 523 Pakistani and 431 Italian consumers those who have experience one *specific* fast food retail chain frequently. Data were analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis, correlations and path modeling using structural equation modeling through AMOS. The configural, metric, and full factor variance invariances hold in both culture and further analyses revealed surprising but interesting findings.

Keywords: Servicescape, Service Quality, Service Experience Evaluation, Customer Loyalty, Italy, and Pakistan

EFFECTS OF WEBSITE QUALITY DIMENSIONS ON REPURCHASE INTENTION IN AIRLINE INDUSTRY

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EFFECTS OF WEBSITE QUALITY DIMENSIONS ON REPURCHASE INTENTION IN AIRLINE INDUSTRY

ABSTRACT

This study aimed to investigate the effects of website quality dimensions (efficiency, system quality, service quality and privacy) on repurchase intention. Survey technique was used to collect data among 134 participants. The results offered that service quality, system quality and efficiency significantly affect repurchase intention of online airline customers.

Keywords: website quality, airline industry, repurchase intentions, Turkey

INTRODUCTION

With the growing of internet usage, the way of consumers' shopping style and companies' doing business have been changed radically. Internet brought into different types of businesses called e-commerce, such as; B2C, B2B, C2C etc. E-commerce is a business type that brings together seller and buyer over the web (Lin, 2007). Moreover, buying and selling via smartphones on the rise (www.statista.com).

The recent statistics show that there are more than 46 million internet users in Turkey (www.internetlivestats.com). Based on TUIK (Turkish Statistical Institute) research, 24.8% of people aged between 16 to 74 in Turkey bought goods/services online (www.ecommerce-news.eu). Therefore, it is sure that websites are not only a part of advertisement but also a platform which people can easily shop (Güreş *et al.*, 2013).

Due to interactive characteristic of website and providing information continuously, websites play vital role in developing long term relationship (Bauer *et al.*, 2002). Internet is widely used by airline companies and it helps them operating efficiently and provides competitive advantage (Hanke and Teo, 2003). Accordingly, instead of bearing the costs of ticket agency establishments, using the website as a distribution channel is generally accepted as the most cost effective option for airline companies (Elkhani *et al.*, 2013). Thus, airline companies reduce costs and increase income by creating their own websites and bypassing the mediators (Diaz and Martin-Consuegra, 2016). As a result, website quality shows up as a critical factor for attracting online customers (Nafchi *et al.*, 2014). Airline companies need to consider their visitors' perceptions regarding their website quality to increase customer satisfaction levels and create repurchase intention (Elkhani *et al.*, 2013).

Since website quality is accepted as an important factor on customers' behavioral intentions, there are many studies focused on this topic (e.g. Jeon and Jeong, 2016; Abou-Shouk and Khalifa, 2016). However, there is still a lack of empirical researches that examine how successful website quality is in the airline industry (Diaz and Martin-Consuegra, 2016). Moreover, to the best of authors'

knowledge, there is a dearth of studies that focus on the effects of website quality dimensions on repurchase intention in the airline industry. Therefore, the study aims to contribute to gaps in the literature, on the other hand, to analyze website quality dimensions of airline companies and their effects on repurchase intention.

AIRLINE INDUSTRY

Airline is one of the most e-commerce adapted industry (Shchiglik and Barnes, 2004). Accordingly, many airline companies have established their websites and started to use online reservation systems. As a result, airline companies increasingly focus their attention on online communication, information and transactions. Thus, providing high website quality becomes crucial for their business and plays a vital role in customer retention (Xi and Barnes, 2009; Nafchi *et al.*, 2014).

Tsai *et al.* (2011) suggested that websites are not only serving to airlines as a distribution channel, but also help them to understand customer needs and to gain information about their buying patterns. Airline companies can use this information for developing high value-added products and services. Additionally, an efficient website can also support the airline company to increase its capabilities to build and maintain long term customer relationships based on their expectations (Llach *et al.*, 2013). Llach *et al.* (2013) emphasized the importance of hedonics while designing and updating airline companies' e-business tools to be in harmony with customers' needs and expectations. They suggested that hedonic aspects of a website can create enjoyable experiences which in turn play a critical role for building loyalty.

Much of the literature on website quality focused on airline industry. Some of them interested in developing new measurement tools/models specified for airline companies. For instance; Shchiglik and Barnes (2004) developed Perceived Airline Website Quality Instrument (PAWQI) to evaluate airline website quality based on customers' perceptions. Their instrument contains four dimensions, namely; site quality, information quality, interaction quality and airline-specific quality. Nafchi *et al.* (2014) also proposed a website quality model for airline websites. Their model comprises three

quality factors; ease of use (e.g. user friendly, easy to perform), quality of information (e.g. usefulness, reliability), security and privacy (e.g. feel safe in online purchasing on the site, feel secure providing sensitive information). Similarly, Elkhani *et al.* (2013) proposed a model that comprise Expectancy Disconfirmation Theory, a three-level framework and E-SERVQUAL for evaluating airline websites' effectiveness considering the impact of e-quality on customer satisfaction and the retention of loyal customers in airline e-ticketing websites. In their study, researchers divided website quality into three dimensions: website performance, website information and website online service.

Some studies regarding airline website quality focused on the functionalities of website quality dimensions. For instance, Xie and Barnes (2009) conducted a research on UK airline industry and focused on five website quality dimensions (usability, web site design, service quality, information quality and enjoyment) based on their literature review. They suggested that different airline companies have different paths to pursue regarding their website quality approaches. Further, Tsai *et al.* (2011) conducted a study comprising five airline companies in Taiwan and the results showed that all five websites have weaknesses on price negotiation, low price, responsiveness and communication. They emphasized that an effective web based marketing can be applied by improving on-line price negotiation features and pricing strategies on airline websites.

Moving beyond, some studies have shown the relationship between website quality dimensions and behavioral intentions/satisfaction levels in airline context. For instance, Sam and Tahir (2009) employed a study on airline website quality and examined six website quality dimensions: usability, website design, information quality, trust, perceived risk and empathy as determinants of online purchase intention of air ticket. The findings of their research demonstrated that empathy and trust are the most influential factors on online purchase intention. Byambaa and Chang (2012) further conducted a study among three airlines websites in Mongolia and used the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) for defining Mongolian customers' satisfaction with online purchasing experience.

Their study examines five website quality dimensions: ease of use, information quality, website design, payment security and interactivity. The results of their study showed that interactivity, payment security and ease of use significantly affect satisfaction with the e-ticketing experience. More recently, Llach *et al.* (2013) conducted a study concerning the impact of website quality on customer loyalty in airline industry. The researchers examined website quality dimensions under two topics: functional quality (based on E-S-QUAL model) and hedonic quality. Their findings demonstrated that both functional and hedonic quality are significantly affect loyalty through perceived value.

To the best of authors' knowledge, there is a dearth of studies that focus on the relationship between website quality and repurchase intention in the airline industry. However, in another industries, many studies have examined the relationship between website quality dimensions and repurchase intention (e.g. Shin *et al.*, 2013; Kim *et al.*, 2012; Hsu and Tsou, 2011; Zhou *et al.*, 2009). For instance, Shin *et al.* (2013) employed a study to explore the influence of website quality on repurchase intention in South Korea. The findings of their study showed that website quality can affect repurchase intention by enhancing mediating variables (customer satisfaction, customer trust, and customer commitment). They concluded that, website quality was found as a vital factor for enhancing repurchase intention of online customers. Similarly, Zhou *et al.* (2009) conducted a study to examine the importance of website design and service quality on online repurchase intentions. They demonstrated that service quality is the main factor that influence consumers' trust and satisfaction that lead to their repurchase intention.

Given these findings, the authors propose that;

H1: Efficiency significantly affects repurchase intention.

H2: System quality significantly affects repurchase intention.

H3: Service quality significantly affects repurchase intention.

H4: Privacy significantly affects repurchase intention.

Figure 1 represents the proposed model of the study.

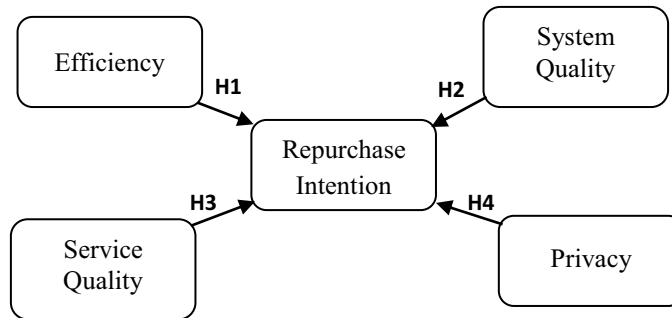


Fig 1. Proposed model

METHODOLOGY

Sample of Study and Data Collection

The sample of this study consist of participants who had purchased flight ticket from any airline companies' websites in last twelve months. Data was collected by using web-based survey and self-administered survey techniques between 1st and 20th April, 2017 in Turkey. Participants were asked to fill in the questionnaire by their willingness. Thus, sampling of this study was based on convenient sampling method. In this context, 134 usable responses were received.

The study was carried out in two stages. In the first stage, the questionnaire was translated from English into Turkish by professional translators. The questionnaire also retranslated into English to assure accuracy. After this stage, a pilot study was conducted with 35 participants in order to avoid any translation mistakes and misunderstanding. Jayaram *et al.* (2004) suggest that when the normal distribution exists, the sample size of a study should be at least ten times more than the number of variables. However, in case of the absence of normal distribution, at least five times more than the number of variables for the sample size to be sufficient. Thus, it can be stated that the sample size is adequate for this study.

Measures

The questionnaire used in this study was adapted from studies carried out by Hsu *et al.* (2012) and Llach *et al.* (2013). Efficiency and privacy adapted from Llach *et al.* (2013) were measured using five and three items respectively. System quality was measured using five items, service quality was measured by using three items and finally repurchase intention was measured by using two items, which were adapted from Hsu *et al.* (2012). Accordingly, this questionnaire included four website quality dimensions which are efficiency, system quality, service quality, privacy and one behavioral intention variable regarding repurchase intention.

The questionnaire consists of two sections. In the first section of the questionnaire the demographic characteristics of the participants identified by multiple choice questions such as gender, age, monthly income and marital status etc. In the second section, 16 items used to explore the website quality dimensions that are measured by 5-point Likert type of scale where 1: strongly disagree; and 5: strongly agree.

Reliability of the questionnaire was obtained by calculating Cronbach's Alpha coefficients. In this context, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated by using the data obtained from 18 statements constituting the scale, and the general Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of the scale is $\alpha = 0.898$. This value shows that the questionnaire is reliable (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

RESULTS

Demographics of the Participants

Main demographics of the participants are shown in Table 1. Of the 134 participants, 55.2% were male and 46.3% were in 26 and above age group. Education level is high (university, 67.2%) and monthly income is at lower scale (1-1500 TL, 43.3%). Many of the participants purchase online flight ticket 5 times and above during a year (36.6%).

Table 1. Demographics of the Participants

		<i>f</i>	%
<i>Gender</i>	Female	60	44.8
	Male	74	55.2
<i>Age</i>	20 and less	13	9.7
	21-25	59	44.0
	26 and above	62	46.3
<i>Education Level</i>	High School	11	8.1
	University	90	67.2
	Graduate	33	24.6
<i>Marital Status</i>	Married	28	20.9
	Bachelor	106	79.1
<i>Occupation</i>	Salaried Worker	48	35.8
	Business Owner	6	4.5
	Student	71	53.0
	Other	9	6.7
<i>Monthly Income</i>	1-1500 TL	58	43.3
	1501-3000 TL	33	24.6
	3001-4500 TL	25	18.7
	4501-6000 TL	13	9.7
	6001 TL and above	5	3.7
<i>Purchase Flight Ticket Over Internet in a year</i>	1 time	18	13.4
	2 times	34	25.4
	3 times	23	17.2
	4 times	10	7.5
	5 times and above	49	36.6

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was used in order to determine the factor structure of the questionnaire. Varimax rotation was used. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was 0.880 and Bartlett test (0.000, Chi-Square: 1048.378, df: 0.153). This results indicate that the sample is suitable for factor analysis. In this context, four factors were obtained and these factors are explaining 57% of the total variance which is above the acceptable value (Nakip, 2003). The Cronbach's Alpha values of the factors that range from 0.608 to 0.827 indicate that the questionnaire is reliable (Hair *et. al.*, 1998).

Table 2. Results of Factor Analysis

Factors	Factor loadings	% variance	Cronbach Alpha
<i>Factor 1: Efficiency</i>		17.594	.825
The airline company's website produces the most current information.	.763		
Information at the airline company's website is helpful.	.640		
The airline company's website provides me with all the information I need.	.615		
The information provided by the airline company's website is accurate.	.558		
In general, the airline company's website provides me with high-quality information.	.702		
<i>Factor 2: System Quality</i>		16.582	.739
The airline company's website enables me to complete a transaction quickly.	.575		
The airline company's website performs reliably.	.614		
The airline company's website can be adapted to meet a variety of needs.	.700		
The airline company's website makes it easy to get anywhere on the site.	.707		
The airline company's website loads its pages fast.	.695		
<i>Factor 3: Service Quality</i>		11.761	.608
The airline company's website is prompt in responding to my queries.	.775		
The airline company's website understands the needs of their customers.	.676		
The airline company's website changes and guarantees commitment to an amendment or cancellation of reservations.	.559		
<i>Factor 4: Privacy</i>		11.325	.827
The airline company's website protects information about my web-shopping behavior.	.782		
The airline company's website does not share my personal information with other sites.	.846		
The airline company's website protects information about my credit card.	.764		
Total variance (%): 57.262 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin: .880 df: .153			
Bartlett significance value: .000 Chi-Square: 1048.378			

Regression analysis was carried out by using repurchase intention as dependent variable and website quality dimensions as independent variables. The obtained regression model is significant (F: 24.283, p:.000). The model explains 43% of the dependent variable. When the non-standardized

beta coefficients are examined in Table 3, it can be stated that service quality is the most important factor affecting the repurchase intention. This was followed by system quality and efficiency.

Table 3. Regression Analysis

	β	t	p
Constant	1.309	4.186	.000*
Efficiency	.340	3.755	.000*
System Quality	.419	2.003	.047*
Service Quality	.467	3.850	.000*
Privacy	.108	1.782	.077

Dependent Variable: Repurchase Intention

R²: 0.43 F: 24.283 p:.000 *p<0.01

According to the results of regression analysis, H1, H2 and H3 hypothesis were supported, but H4 was not. Thus, privacy wasn't found as an important dimension affecting repurchase intention of airline customers.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study examined the effects of website quality dimensions (efficiency, system quality, service quality and privacy) on repurchase intention. Website visitors' perception of website quality is a crucial issue in e-shopping environment (Zhou *et al.*, 2009). There are many empirical studies that explored the relationship between website quality dimensions and repurchase intention in different online shopping environments (e.g. Shin *et al.*, 2013; Kim *et al.*, 2012; Hsu and Tsou, 2011; Zhou *et al.*, 2009). This study differs from the previous studies with its contribution to the gap of airline industry literature.

Our hypotheses are largely supported and suggest that website quality has a significant effect on repurchase intention. According to the findings of this study, service quality dimension was found as the most important dimension that affects repurchase intention of airline customers. This is consistent with previous studies identifying the effect of service quality dimension on repurchase intention (Bauer *et al.*, 2006; Zhou *et al.*, 2009). Second important dimension which affects repurchase intention is system quality. Similarly, Hsu *et al.* (2012) explored service quality and

system quality dimensions as most important factors that affect purchase intention. Their findings showed an indirect effect that mediated by different variables (e.g. perceived flow, perceived playfulness etc.). Another important dimension effects repurchase intention is efficiency. Accordingly, Llach *et al.* (2013) suggested that efficiency can ameliorate the capabilities of the companies to build and maintain long-term relationships with their customers, in other words customer retention.

Privacy wasn't found as an important dimension affecting repurchase intention of airline customers. Conversely, the results of Es-haghi *et al.*'s (2015) study, conducted among Iranian and Malaysian participants, showed that perceived website privacy has a strong impact on online purchase intention. This can be explained by cultural and/or sectoral differences between their study and ours.

Like any other study, this study is not without its limitations. Firstly, this study explores four website quality dimensions. Other website quality dimensions may yield different results. Secondly, we didn't focus on a specific airline company website. Since this study involves many airline companies websites, when generalizing the results care should be taken.

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BUYING A VILLA, FINCA OR CORTIJO: PROJECTED IMAGE OF ANDALUSIA THROUGH BRITISH HOUSING MARKET

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BUYING A VILLA, FINCA OR CORTIJO: PROJECTED IMAGE OF ANDALUSIA THROUGH BRITISH HOUSING MARKET¹

Abstract: Andalusia has become one of the main destinations for British residential tourists, attracted by leisure, weather and the search of a better style of life. The real estate industry, interested in the selling of houses, has developed a deliberated image of the Andalusian landscape, supposedly partial and biased. The purpose of this research is to assess the importance of the elements and features that characterize this particular vision of this Spanish region, paying particular attention to the inland and the more rural territories. To do this, an empirical work is stated, through the content analysis of the real state webpages focused in British buyers. This work concludes by stressing the continuity of some prevalent stereotypes in the social construction of the image of Andalusia.

Keywords: Residential tourism, real estate, rural idyll, content analysis, inland Andalusia.

1. INTRODUCTION

In a popular British television show, a couple of home buyers tries to find the ideal property in a sunny foreign country. While the couple weigh up between purchasing a whitewashed country house in Axarquía (southern Spain) or a detached villa with pool in Algarve (Portugal), the TV programme presenter helps them in making the best choice. This programme, so called *A place in the sun*, combines the real estate reality show and the travel television series to offer a very particular projection of the Southern Europe landscape filtered by the eye of the housing market and the spectacle culture —as interpreted by Kellner (2004)—. For all those comfortably sat in the couch of their houses, either Andalusia or Algarve regions are nothing more but a sunny place where own a house for holidays or retirement.

In facts, in the last decades, British and other people from Northern Europe have developed a residential model based on owning a house in the southern Europe. This flow of permanent, semipermanent (seasonal) or occasional people have driven to the growing of urban and suburban surfaces in the coastal and inland coastal areas, to give response to the demand for second houses or new houses. Andalusia, the southernmost region of the peninsular Spain has become a main destination for those British visitors and expatriates residents. While the coastal areas have been the traditional target area in this phenomenon —as a climatic destination for sun and beaches—, Andalusian inland areas and rural countryside are starting to have more and more relevance. The real estate industry have reacted developing a deliberated projected image of the territory to assist and drive the selling of the houses and to gain presence in a competitive market.

As a consequence, a particular vision and idea of Andalusia is stated. This is a composed image supposedly partial and biased, due to the profit-oriented interest: By the commodification of the rural landscape, some particular and positive features are intentionally underlined, whereas other are simply sweep aside or omitted. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to assess the importance of the elements and features that characterize this particular vision of Andalusia, paying particular attention to the inland and the more rural territories. To do this, an empirical work is stated, through the content analysis of the real state webpages focused in British buyers.

At this regard, landscape must be considered a social and cultural construction (Cosgrove, 1984, Maderuelo, 2005), rather than a simple identification of a portion of territory or their mere

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perception. In this construction of a particular and deliberated image of Andalusia, British and other romantic travellers played a significant role throughout the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century. In this travel literature, Andalusia is depicted as a mythical and exotic region where a sublime and untamed nature, ruins, Moorish heritage and the passionate personality of their dwellers set up a picturesque portrait that has been perpetuated during the subsequent decades (López Ontiveros, 1988). The incorporation of this region to the mass tourism phenomenon since last third of the 20th century has ended up reshaping the projected and perceived image of Andalusia until present days.

This paper is structured in the following parts: At first we deal with the main concepts and ideas throughout a literature review. Secondly, a contextual approach is presented; framing the topic by the analysis of general aspects and data on demographics, tourism and housing investment. Thirdly, the methodology is described; an empirical implementation of qualitative techniques through housing promotion in Internet. Next, the main results are presented and carefully contrasted. Finally the more relevant conclusions and future research perspectives are outlined.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In the last decades, the Mediterranean coastal areas countries have experienced a demographic inflow from other European countries, mostly —but not entirely— retired people, mainly from Northern and Western Europe, attracted by leisure, weather and the search of a better style of life.

The academic approaches and studies in this area have provided several definitions of this complex phenomenon, highlighting the close relationship among tourist, migrant, retired, resident and home ownership. Some authors opt for the *residential tourism* concept, pointing out that tourism destinations are a primary stage in the consolidation of the residential mobility, despite the difficulties in marking the conceptual boundary between these two geographical realities (Rodríguez, 2001; Williams and Hall, 2000). The condition of retired people is a third vector in the composition of this kind of global dynamic, to the extent that the *international retirement migration* is usually presented by its acronym, IRM (Warnes, 2009; Williams *et al.*, 1997). Benson and O'Reilly (2009), refer to the notion of lifestyle migration, arguing that other conceptualisations fail to be fully inclusive in understanding this phenomenon. In any case, whatever term is assumed, one of the key factors to set these migrations in a context is the existence of an internationalized real estate market which transforms the visitor/expatriate into homeowner. Thus, tourism and migration could be understood as intertwined scopes with second home as a contact point (Müller, 2002). Williams *et al.* (2004) stress this narrow link observing how second home —the house itself, their form of ownership, the process of buying and selling, the flows of property between the country of origin and the country of destination...— determine the biographies of the tourists/residents. In fact, these authors propose more accurate designations of alternative or multiple houses instead of second home, in view of "an increasing share of the population is adopting residential strategies that involve complex sequential shifts in the functional use of multiple properties" (page 112).

Beyond the theoretical approaches and terminological contributions, an important part of the academic work is focused in empirical methodologies through study cases in specific regions of Southern Europe. Far from observing the phenomenon from a structural non-particular perspective, many studies have centred in locating very specific cases, regarding precise nationalities and destinations: British on the Costa del Sol (O'Reilly, 2000), northern Europe citizens on the Costa del Sol (Rodríguez *et al.*, 2005) and the Costa Blanca (Casado-Díaz, 2006; Mazón Martínez, 2006; Huete and Mantecón, 2013); or comparing destinations with similar environmental and socio-cultural patterns: British in Tuscany, Malta, Algarve and Costa del Sol (King *et al.*, 2000; Warnes *et*

al., 1999). Beyond analysing economic and demographic context of those groups, these contributions highlight, above all, the search for a better quality of life, provided by a more benign climate as a fundamental motivation for migration, as well as a positive satisfaction from their new way of life and, despite that, significant, but not worrying, integration constraints (due to language barriers).

Other authors have focused the territorial consequences of these residential migrations, highlighting the growth of the urban land use in the shape of urban sprawl in the Costa Blanca (Mazón Martínez and Aledo Tur, 2005; Membrado Tena, 2015). Meanwhile, Giner-Monfort *et al.* (2016) address the particular phenomenon of the British return migration, a subject which has received less academic attention despite the noteworthy changing context of deceleration, even decrease, of the migratory balance in Spain. Lack of care, loss of personal and institutional support and a new economical panorama (depreciation of the sterling pound, increasing of the cost of life in Spain...) explain the returning intentions of an increasingly number of British expatriates.

Other kind of approaches has concerned about the expatriate population from Northern Europe in the Southern Mediterranean areas, ranging from a widespread socio-cultural focus: from the political involvement of migrants in the local political life (Janoschka and Durán, 2014) to the new natures induced by ornamental plants (especially palm tree) in the contemporary urbanization in Alicante (Hernandez *et al.*, 2014). Even a historical perspective of British expatriates in Pre-Civil War Spain is addressed (Shelmerdine, 2002), and this illustrate the broad attention of different subject fields in this geographical phenomenon.

In fact, most part of these scientific contributions can be assorted in two main groups: A first one centred in the social experiences of the migrants, concerning their motivations, decision makings, expectations, preferences and likings, etc. (the sociological aspect, focused in people); and a second one centred in the spatial consequences of the migrant process, regarding urban growth, land use and landscape changes, evolution of the second houses expansion, ecological impacts, etc. (the environmental aspect, focused in the territory). Half-way between these two points of view are the approaches interested in the socio-cultural representation of the nature and the image of rurality in residential destinations. This has been well studied in the case of German and Dutch second home owners in rural Sweden (Müller, 2002a, 2002b; Eimermann *et al.* 2012) or British in rural France (Hoggart and Buller, 1994; Lord, 2008; Benson, 2011). Taking into consideration this last author, the role of the landscape is fundamental as a way to gain a better way of life. Beautiful sceneries and the promise of traditional rural living (the so-called rural idyll) provide a sense of uniqueness, absent in the coastal mass tourism destinations. Indeed, in these kind of inland destinations expatriates demonstrate greater commitment and integration with the both physical and social host environment.

Nevertheless, these residential migration based on the search of a rural idyll has not received any significant scientific attention in the Spanish and (especially) the Andalusian case. Beyond the work of Bertuglia *et al.* (2013) about international counter-urbanization in the Alpujarra region, this academic scope still remains as a neglected research topic.

3. FOREIGNERS BUYING HOUSES IN ANDALUCIA: A GEOGRAPHICAL CONTEXTUALIZATION

The number of British people living abroad in the European Union is 1.2 million; Spain hosts the largest community with nearly a quarter of the total expatriates (308,821), before Ireland and France. At global scale, Spain is the fourth hosting-country for UK citizens, behind Australia,

United States and Canada (United Nations, 2015). According to INE (2016), British are the third largest community in Spain after Romania and Morocco (both countries reach nearly 700,000 respectively) and constitutes the first group regarding the so-called lifestyle migration, ahead of other countries as Italy (around 190,000), Germany (142,000) or France (101,000).

These figures could be framed in the immigration flow from Central and Northern Europe, especially retired people who have been purchasing residences in certain coastal locations across the Mediterranean Basin due to different motivations: Climate comfort; house pricing; touristic status of Spain; monetary, citizen and legal security; sanitary and food safety; EU integration; and transport development in both flight connectivity and road accessibility (Fernández Tabales and Cruz Mazo, 2011).

As Figure 1 shows, the phenomenon (regarding UK residents) is focused on the Mediterranean area, especially in the southeast fringe between Costa del Sol and Balearic Islands, being particularly intense in the provinces of Alicante and Málaga. British here count for 130,000 and 71,000 respectively and represent a 7 and 5% of total population. At a glance, the map illustrates the weight of the coastal areas regarding to the rest of the country. But a closer look allows a finer analysis: Apart from the Costa del Sol and its prelitoral, British communities are spread over other Eastern-Baetic areas in Andalusia such as Axarquía, Almanzora and Levante Almeriense. Almería is focusing an increasing attention at residential immigration. In Rodalquilar, a little village nestled in the Sierra de Gata and formerly linked to gold mining, many of their inhabitants are foreigners today. As Rodríguez (2015) says "they seem to have a good sense of smell to settle in quality-living places (...) enjoying the fullness of a mini paradise" (page 47).

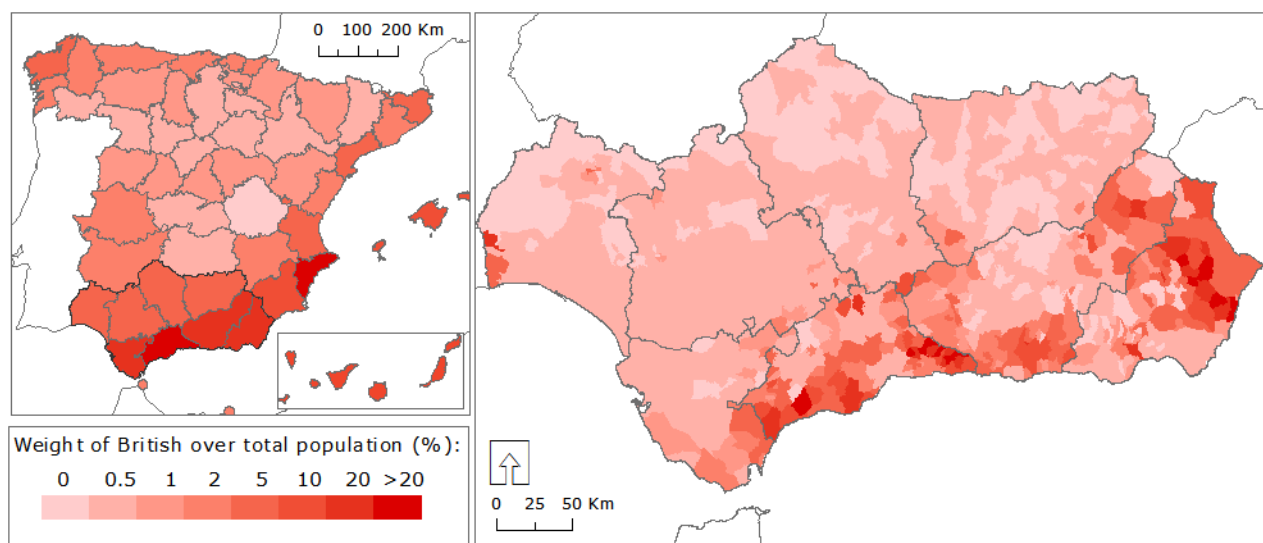


Figure 1. British communities in Spain (provinces, 2014) and Andalusia (municipalities, 2016).
Authors; INE

In order to better contextualize the aim of this work, tourism plays a complementary role that should be comment. At first, because the boundaries between residential and tourism flows are fuzzy (residential tourism, part-time seasonal living...) In fact, tourists of today are potential homebuyers of tomorrow, as many loyal tourists year by year finally bought a residence in Spain or Andalusia. And secondly, because the subsequent analyzed adverts also target tourism investors (Rural Hotel, B&B...).

Spain is the top destination for UK residents visiting abroad; accounting for 13 million visits and for 19.8% of the total number of visits abroad in 2015 (Office of National Statistics, 2015).

Accordingly, UK is the first foreign tourism group in Spain with around a 25.4% of international arrivals. As illustrated on Figure 2, British visitors have steadily grown from 1999. According to recent 2017 information, British tourism registers record figures in Spain despite the Brexit (Gastesi, 2016). Canarias (26%), Baleares (22%) and Andalusia (17%) use to be the most preferred destinations (INE, 2016).

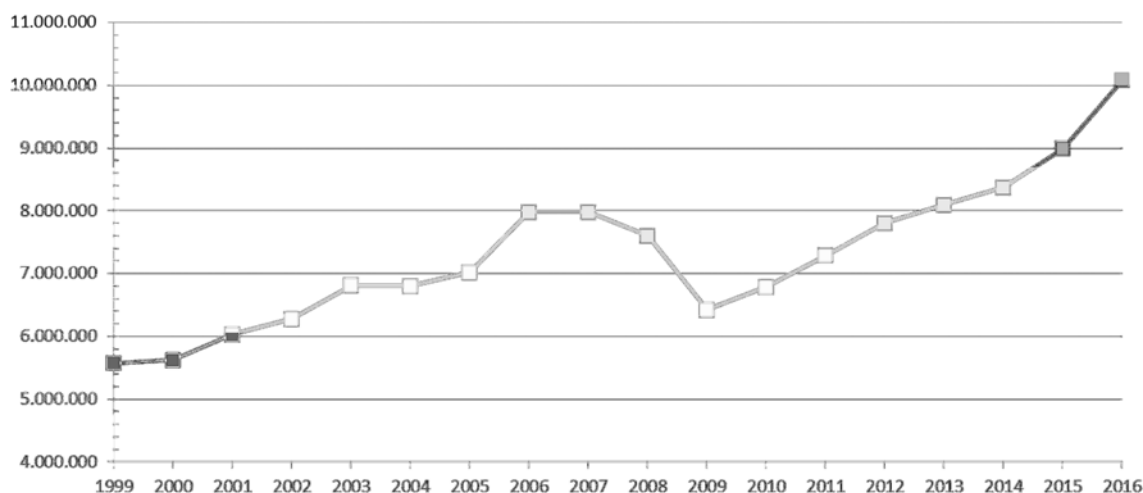


Figure 2. Evolution of British Tourists in Spain (1999-2016). Authors' adaptation from INE (2016)

According to Junta de Andalucía (2015), a total of 2.44 million British tourists visited Andalusia in 2015, being the main foreign market of the region; represents the 25.6% of the international visitors while Germany —ranked 2nd—only signifies the 12%. Weather, monuments and beaches seem to be their main motivations, a similar pattern compared with other north-European visitors. However, the principal highlight of this segment is centered on accommodation, as British tourists often lodge at houses, whether it is their own, rented or familiar (around 38.5% compared to Hotels' 55%).

To complete this contextualization, the housing investment by foreigners (and British precisely) might be commented. According to data from Ministerio de Fomento (2017), there has been an important increase in real estate inputs by foreigners in Spain since the start of the crisis, with 66.400.559 euros in 2009-2016 period, especially on those regions with a strong tourist orientation, such as Balearic and Canarian archipelagos and the Spanish Mediterranean Arch (Comunidad Valenciana, Murcia, Andalusia and Cataluña). The case of Andalusia should be highlighted, as represents an important weight of the national figure (22%) and has registered a remarkable growth of 124% along the referred years. The provinces of Málaga and Almería stand out from the rest of Andalusia (Figure 3). In the first, real estate transactions by non-resident foreigners account for a third (34%) of total housing investments, while in the latter this percentage reaches a 13%. This figure is becoming especially important in Almería, even overtaking Málaga in the last 2 years.

British lead the housing investments in Andalusia (24% of total foreign assets), which might be correlated with the exposed tourism features. The effects of Brexit appear to have no reflection on tourist data, but they seem to have on real estate dynamics; as the importance of British among total foreign investment has decreased from 21% to 19% at national scale in 2016.

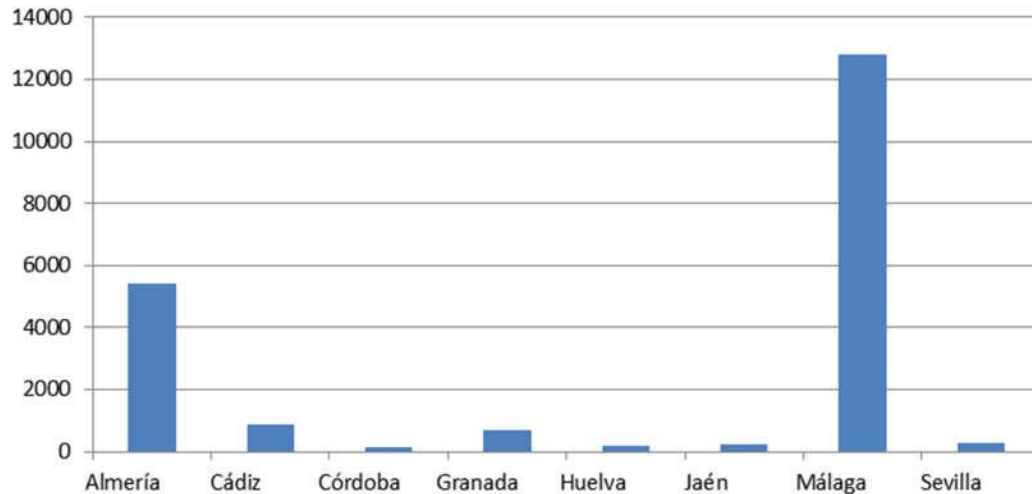


Figure 3. Purchase of houses in Andalusia by no-resident foreigners (Euros, accumulated 2006-2016 period). Authors' adaptation from Ministerio de Fomento (2017)

4. METHODOLOGY

The core of this paper is based in an empirical approach focused in the analysis of the content of residential promotions and marketing. Regarding this purpose, we concentrate on real estate webpages selling properties in Andalusia to British people, particularly all those specialised in rural and inland properties. Therefore, two fundamental stages can be distinguished: In a first step, we use Google Adwords to analyse the main searching concepts related to the buying of a property and the keywords ideas associated to this kind of searches. The Keyword Planner is a useful tool to know the average number of searches for a given keywords —and its close variants based on the targeting settings and date range selected— and to identify themes and related concepts. Consequently, it is possible to establish a range of keywords with a similar "semantic behaviour" in the web. Thus, a specific search like *properties for sale in andalusia* gives related ideas such as *house for sale in costa del sol*, *villas andalusia* or *malaga apartments for sale*.

In a second step, a set of real estate webpages are selected based on the previous main keywords. This sample is drawn from the predominant results in the two main web search engines, Google and DuckDuckGo. To filter the sample, it has been excluded very general sites such as classified advertisements webpages operating in several countries (Rightmove, Kyero, Zoopla...) or real estates focused exclusively in coastal areas. It also has been removed irrelevant or wrong results, such as all those concerning Andalusia from Alabama, USA. Once this set of pages is filtered, a total of 27 real estate webpages compose the sample.

To process the inherent meaning under the different messages in each webpage a content analyst is used. This technique consists in making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context (Krippendorff, 1980; Weber, 1990). At this regard, the process of inference, substantial in the content analysis, attempt to reduce huge amount of information in fewer categories based on explicit rules of coding, by mean of a controlled and interpretative deduction (Bardin, 1977). For instance, the semantic concepts of quietness, isolation and peaceful could be strongly associated to rural areas and white villages, meanwhile vibrancy and cheerfulness could rather be linked to coastal areas. To simplify the information into semantic categories we alternate the interpretative codification with the complementary use of a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS).

The aim of this kind of techniques is to reduce the wide amount of sematic elements present in a text concerning —basic meaning units as words (nouns, adjectives), sentences, expressions and other textual segments clearly distinguishable— into a few and more complex semantic cores, such as statements, ideas and concepts. The process of codification and classification provide information about the more relevant underlying messages concerning any geographical or territorial sense (qualitative approach) but it also allows quantitative comparisons among semantic units.

5. RESULTS: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Keywords ideas (Google Adwords Keyword Planner)

In the first step proposed above, 7 seed keywords give a total amount of 615 keywords ideas. The Search Network targeting includes all languages and searching locations in United Kingdom and data range of 24 months (from July 2014 to June 2016). It has been excluded too vague concepts (*house for sale, holidays in spain...*), concepts without geographical or semantic relation (*property for sale in italy, apartments in somerset*) and keywords ideas not representative quantitatively (less than 10 monthly searches in average). Once all these corrections have been made, there are 155 keywords ideas (seed keywords included) that can be considered as a representative example of the searching suggestions in Google based on the British Internet users experiences.

Figure 4 shows a brief classification of the main geographical descriptors and type of housing for the sample of keywords ideas, weighted in accordance with the total number of searches for the period. As might be expected, the most relevant geographical descriptors or "place names" are Malaga, Andalusia (and similar words with the same etymological root such as *andalucia, andalusian*), Costa del Sol and Marbella. Those geographical scopes, regardless of the scale, concentrate the main flow of foreign tourism and real estate market. But, apart from these principal figures, it is interesting to observe the relative relevance of other places located in inner areas, e.g. Competa, Olvera or Iznajar. A priori, these localities shouldn't be considered as important touristic destination, but the Google tool seems to point in a different direction.

Regarding the type of housing, is also evident that the generic concept of *property* makes up the largest number of searches, due to his semantic polyvalence. But after that, *villa* appears as the second most frequent type of house, significantly ahead of the rest of the concepts. This kind of building usually entails a detached house in a rural or suburban environment. In fact, the Cambridge Dictionary (2013) defines it as a "house, usually in the countryside or near the sea, especially in southern Europe, and often one that people can rent for a holiday". The trinomial tourism-residence-southern Europe finds in the villa its highest expression, whether in coastal domains or in inner and rural ones. Despite their less relevance, the type of housing *finca* and *cortijo* appears in the keywords ideas as genuine forms of Andalusia vernacular architecture.

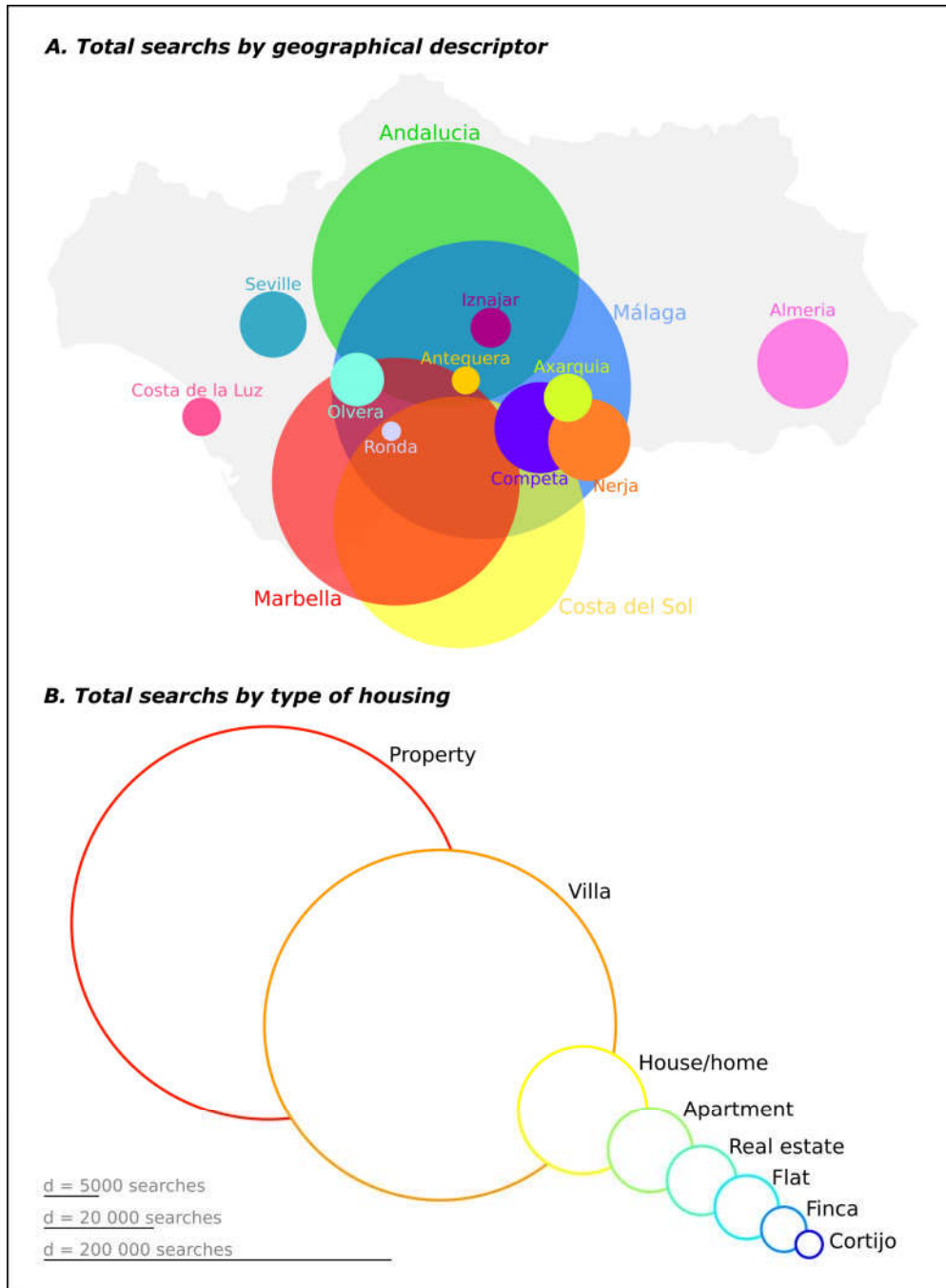


Figure 4. Total searches of keywords ideas classified by geographical descriptor and type of housing.

Webpages content analysis

In a second methodological step, 27 webpages are analysed, according to their presence and relevance in the two main search engines, Google and DuckDuckGo. The codification of the excerpts from the text have resulted in a total amount of 384 basic semantic units, mostly a match of a noun and their corresponding adjective (*stunning* and *mountains*; *picturesque* and *whitewashed villages*, etc.). Based on these basic semantic units, a set of semantic cores have been established, as it is shown in Figures 5 and 6.

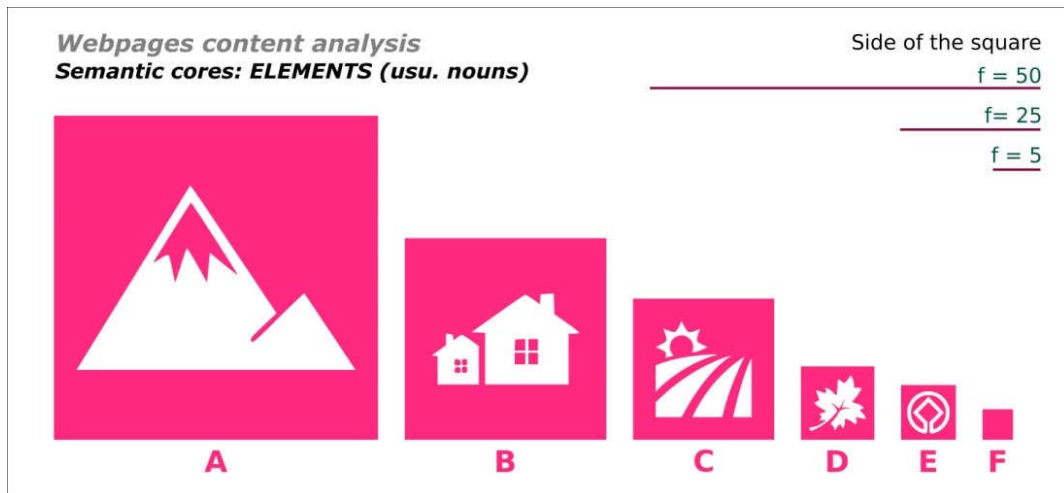


Figure 5. Webpages content analysis: Semantic cores (Elements-Nouns)

The Andalusian landscape presented appears mainly configured by natural accidents and orographic discontinuities are specially referred (A): mountains, hills, creeps, slopes, etc. They are often accompanied by superlative adjectives that reinforce verticality and the rocky and rugged character of the terrain. Anyway, these quotations are usually too generic as they just emphasize the value of view sheds: "located in the rollings hills of Granada, Montefrío is considered as one of the ten villages with the best views of the world" (*Villasfincas*). For the meantime, settlements system is summarized into small (white) villages sparsely nestled in the mountainside (B) where a few details are given such as meandering streets and whitewashed walls.

The rural landscape is rarely pictured (C), usually associated to orchards, mainly olives trees but also orange, almonds, lemon and other species that, to the "British eyes", could be considered exotic: "an area dedicated to olive and almond farming, also orange and lemon orchards and vineyards, a wonderful climate and location for enjoying walking and picnics" (*Rio Estates*). Meanwhile, other traditional agricultural landscapes as croplands or grain fields are almost absent.

As Figure 5 shows, natural ecosystems, flora and fauna hardly appear (D) and with mentioned, are linked to the wildness of the region: "the mountain is very green, the wild flowers grow abundantly and the mountain goats roam freely" (*Inland Andalusia*). The elements of the territorial heritage such as natural protected areas and cultural heritage sites (E) are randomly referred. A few quotes can be found about those heritage elements within a process of social valuation (not necessarily monumental) as mills, bridges, agricultural techniques and other pieces of the rural landscape.

Taking into account the attributes that qualify the previous landscape elements (Figure 6), all those related to beauty and aesthetic qualities predominate, as said, specially the adjectives that underline the spectacular and sublime aspect of the land: "It is a typical Andalusian village, nestled in some of the most stunning countryside with spectacular views of the surrounding mountains" (*Rio Estates*). Other semantic cores with relatively relevance are the references to the picturesquely and the typical character, together with others adjacent elements (not necessarily synonyms) as authenticity and uniqueness. Grouped by their semantic nearness, the cores related to isolation and *unspoiltness*, wildness and quietness should be highlighted. It is interesting to observe that most of the webpages confront the idea of quietness and peaceful —that characterize the inner and more rural Andalusia— with the bustling and lively coastal areas, especially the Costa del Sol. Anyway, this projection of a vibrant and festive Andalusia can be occasionally extended to the rural Andalusia: "There are two sides to Spain. There's the cool, trendy and urbane, typical of Barcelona and the

Balearics, and there's the wild, fiery side of flamenco dancing and fighting bulls, where the people are fun and noisy and demonstrative, that's Andalucía" (*A place in the sun*).

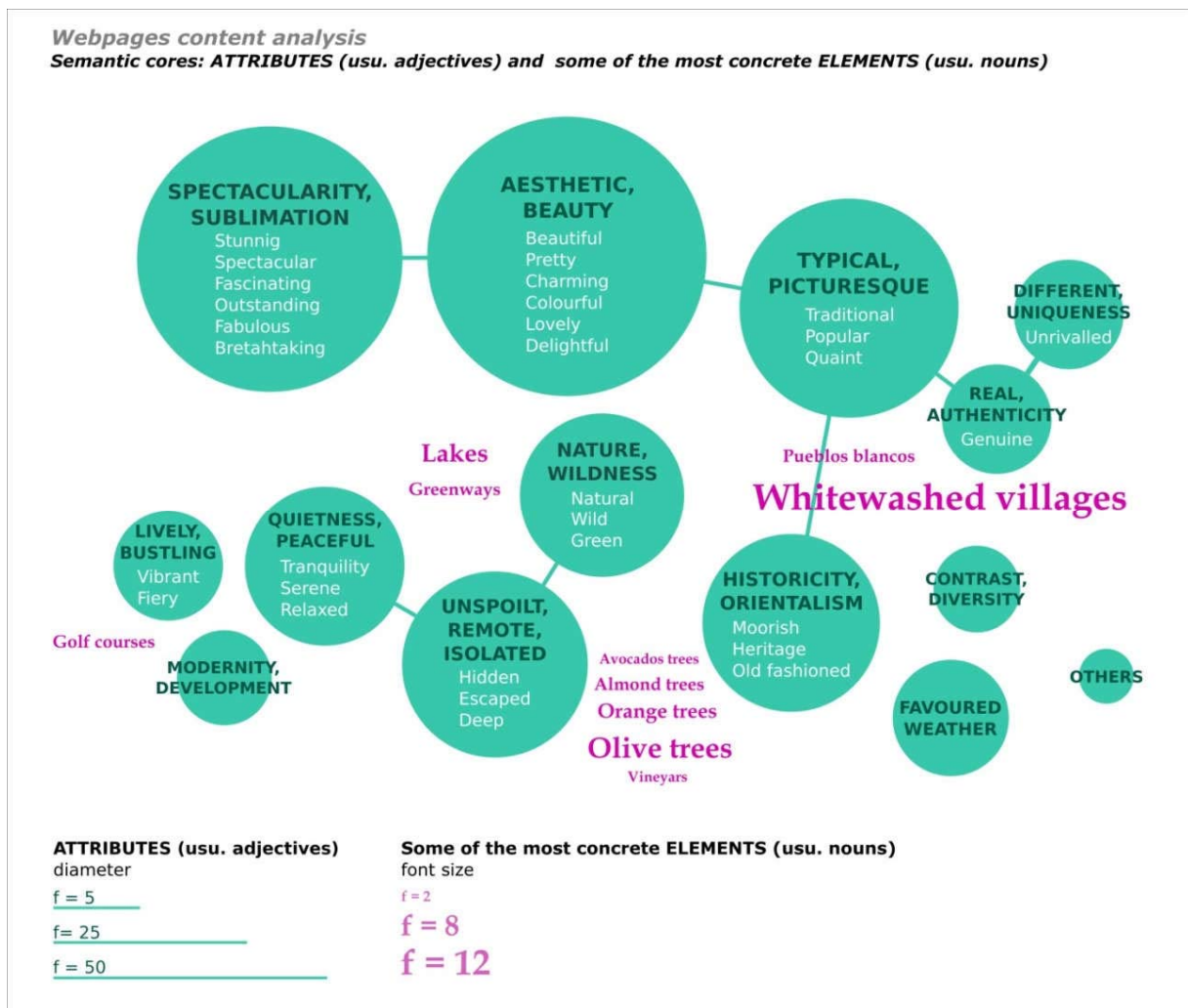


Figure 6. Webpages content analysis: Semantic cores (Attributes-Adjectives)

The allusions to the "rich" historical background are numerous, in particular those linked to the Moorish legacy (despite the common misunderstanding between periods and cultures), as they are connected to the most distinctive character of the urban settlements (white villages, cobbled streets...), dismissing other determining historical periods. Finally, the quotes about a favoured weather (hot summers, mild winters, days of sunshine...) are significant, even though this argument has been usually used to promote coastal destinations. Anyway, in some cases these descriptions become more exaggerated and non-rigorous, constituting what can be called a *climatic hype*: "Temperatures that make for (...) gloriously hot summer days" (*Country Properties*); "Andalucia has one of the best climates in the world (...). Torrox Costa officially has the best climate in Europe" (*Andalucia Casas*).

Beyond the direct interpretation of the results via elements and attributes, the analysis reveals some implicit ideas (between the lines), that runs through the discourse of the different webpages:

- If we refer to the Landscape Character Assessment —who defines the character of a landscape as "a distinct, recognisable and consistent pattern of elements in the landscape that makes one landscape different from another, rather than better or worse" (Swanwick and Land

Use Consultants, 2002, page 8)—, landscapes are generally outlined using very generic descriptive formulations. These descriptions are full of common geographical features (mountains, hillsides, valleys, villages...), while more particular features are not well represented. For instance, all those elements comprising the territorial heritage (both natural and cultural) such as the Torcal karst outcrops or the traditional watercourses systems (acequias) are rarely mentioned.

- The different regions comprising Andalusia are treated unequally. Málaga province and the rest of the Baetic system are much better represented than the rest of Andalusian regions (Guadalquivir valley and Sierra Morena), due to the higher concentration of British expatriates, tourist and buyers in these areas. This unequal treatment could explain, for instance, the almost total lack of references to the *dehesa*, one of the most extensive and characteristic agroecosystem in southern Spain. But this imbalance sometimes turns into a distorted construction of the territory of Andalusia. This way of conceive Andalusia situate Málaga in the centre, and as we move away from Costa del Sol, the regions become more peripheral. The map in figure 7 from *Andalucia.com* is very illustrative of that idea.



Figure 7. A unique Geography of Andalusia by *Andalucia.com*

- Despite the relevant references to the rural and agricultural landscapes, in most cases Andalusia is depicted as a wild region comprised of natural and untamed areas. This is partially true, but we cannot deny that this territory, as many of the Mediterranean regions, is above all a man-made land, deeply modified through centuries of human occupation (Braudel, 1989). It must be stressed, at this point, that the many artificial water reservoirs and dams present in the region are usually regarded as lakes, that is, as natural water bodies, contrary to what they actually are.

- Finally, a clear contrast between the Costa del Sol and the rest of the Andalusia region can be detected. Therefore, the possible dichotomy coastal versus inland areas is here less evident.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This work has revealed that, at a certain point, still persist a misrepresented and romantic projection of the image of Andalusia by the British real estate. Among the main elements and attribute that characterize the landscape are all those that emphasize the sublime, picturesque and exotic nature of the region. Other main landscape qualities and singular areas —precisely all those that today enjoy a natural or cultural legal protection due to its heritage value— show less importance in this cultural construction.

To some extent, this kind of processes can be expected from an economic sector such as the housing market, interested in making profits instead of a more selfless motivation (informative or educational goal). But that serves to underline that, in these circumstances, landscape operate as a factual commodity, as a subsidiary facility to the main purpose of selling houses and holiday destinations. Thus, the complexity of a landscape as a cultural expression of a territory is reduced to a set of simplified features, easy to digest for a social group focused not in experiencing it but in consuming it.

Anyway, it could be expected that this image will evolve, becoming even more rich and complex, as economic, demographic and touristic circumstances change. Therefore, it will be important to pay attention to the new European framework (Brexit) and its consequences in real estate market; but there are other situations such as the touristic saturation of Costa del Sol, emerging inner destination (linked to more sustainable conceptions), new flight connections, etc. that will affect touristic and residential flows.

The analysis of the present work includes verbal written language and its results drive to a wider study in the future, comprising other languages such as pictures, and audiovisual formats. Meanwhile, this investigation has highlighted the role of certain "inlands" in Andalusia (e.g. Almería) where already exists a relevant emerging destination for British residents drawing a new line research. Finally, once the analysis of the projected image of Andalusia has been carried out, a deeper analysis of perceptions might be studied through direct exploration among British new residents and tourists.

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ANALYSIS OF TITLES AND KEY WORDS IN RESEARCH ON MOBILE TECHNOLOGY AND TOURISM

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ANALYSIS OF TITLES AND KEY WORDS IN RESEARCH ON MOBILE TECHNOLOGY AND TOURISM

After a bibliographical study on publications dealing with mobile technology and tourism between 2002 and 2015 in the two main scientific databases worldwide (Web of Science and Scopus), this article analyzes the different titles and keywords used in such papers. Thus, it is analyzed the main words used by researchers when carrying out a study on mobile technology and tourism, in a way that can be observed the evolution over the years on this doctrine. A comparative analysis has also been carried out between the titles of the articles in the different years we have had into account. Also, an analysis of the titles of the articles and the key words in the journals with more publications has been carried out. In this sense, for a better understanding of our research, words clouds have been used. In this way, it is observed how the titles of the investigations and the keywords of the articles, besides varying in the length of the years, vary within the same journal. With all that said, it is put to highlight the criteria for an article on mobile technology and tourism to get better and greater visibility.

Keywords: tourism, hospitality, mobile device, smartphone, word clouds, bibliographical study.

**SWOT ANALYSIS OF AN ECOTOURISM DESTINATION: CHAOUEN,
MOROCCO**

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Abstract

SWOT ANALYSIS OF AN ECOTOURISM DESTINATION: CHAOUEN, MOROCCO

This paper analyses the state of an ecotourism destination north of Morocco named Chefchaouen (Chaouen), using SWOT analysis to highlight the destination's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats. It is based on a study conducted on tourist destination exploring its sector structure, strategic environment and the general framework of its development. The study was conducted using interviews with different public and private stakeholders and questionnaire based survey to profile the destination's tourist base. The Main findings of this paper suggest a more effective public intervention on the development of the sector, a fair integration of local community in both planning and managing the tourism sector, and deploying natural and cultural heritage conservation policies, especially, within protected areas.

Keywords: Swot analysis, tourist destination, sustainable development, Morocco

SWOT ANALYSIS OF AN ECOTOURISM DESTINATION: CHAOUEN, MOROCCO

1. INTRODUCTION

In the last two decades, tourism sector in Morocco has been given a special attention as a real economic levitator. After it was struggling to emerge as real part of the state's policy, the state started by the end of the 90s to think seriously in counting on tourism sector and developing it (Sbai, 2012). These ups and downs of Moroccan tourism sector goes back deeply to the years following the independence (1956), when the local authorities were left a sector at it primitive state bounded by problems and challenges on different aspects; but a significant infrastructure of lodging facilities. This caused the country to enter in a dead seasons period that lasted almost a decade. Morocco did not officially enter the international tourism market until the year 1965 by the creation of the Tourism Ministry, as well as the massive investment of the state in the tourism sector. Later on, the government will start to develop short term management plans for tourism sector (1981-1985 plan, 1988-1992 five-year plan).

The exhausted 3S tourism product in Morocco and the country's natural and cultural potential led to the emergence of a new product. A more sustainable form of tourism, it may be called differently as nature tourism, cultural tourism, or at its finest ecotourism. At the beginning ecotourism offer in Morocco was low, and even not visible in the destination morocco (Berriane, 2002). But what pushed it more into full emergence was the private initiatives from civil society associations and related stakeholders. Then the state reacted with these initiatives by starting to focus more on sustainable tourism in management plans. These plans helped to reinforce the potential of different sustainable destinations across the country (Sbai, 2012), such as Marrakech, Merzouga, Fes, Chefchaouen (Chaouen) etc....

Unlike the three main Moroccan touristic cities (Marrakech, Agadir, Casablanca), Chaouen in different in almost every aspect. It is not based on high class hotels or mass tourism, rather its lodging facilities range more from small hotels to houseguest to unclassified touristic establishments. Its unique cultural product representing this region of Morocco, besides its outstanding beautiful city, make it a desirable destination for internal as well as international tourists. The potential of this destination and its strategic environment will be evaluated, in this paper through a SWOT analysis.

The SWOT analysis in tourism is another method of understanding enterprises and their environment. It is also applicable to a tourist destination for the sake of converting its touristic

potential into open prospects (Alina, 2011). This potential includes generally the totality of the natural and the human characteristics; and especially, the built infrastructure such water, sanitation, roads and accommodation facilities (Alfian, 2016). Tourism activity, on the other hand, weather considering a destination (region, area, country), or a touristic product, the SWOT analysis must also be carried out for the tourist enterprises and the product by considering common environment (Lucchetti, and Font, 2013). Thus, while analysing the touristic product and the destination, a special attention must be paid to the resources and the tourist conditions in which the region is situated, this general framework is evaluated in parallel with the effectiveness of the whole tourism services management policies.

2. STUDY AREA

The Province of Chefchaouen, located Northwest of Morocco on the Rif mountain chain, is limited to the North by the Mediterranean Sea on a length of 120 Km, to the South by the Provinces of Taounate and Sidi Kacem, to the East by the Province of Al Hoceima and on the West by the Provinces of Tetouan and Laraache.



Figure 1: Map of Chaouen city

Source: chaouen.info

The population of the Province amounted to 42,786 inhabitants(2014), living in a total area of 4350 km² and with an average density of 101 inhabitants per km². There is a national park in the city created since 2004 for the sake of nature preservation. on an area of 58 950 ha. The

park's site has been added to UNESCO's list of World Natural Heritage in 1998 in the Natural Category. It is a frequent destination for international tourists as well as domestics from other Moroccan cities. Since its creation, the park has been under many development projects usually from local associations in collaboration with European ones. These projects consist basically of infrastructure (circuits, panel signs, guides...) along with bigger projects like creation of ecolodges.

The park and other near SIBEs (Sites of Biological and Ecological Interest) form part of the Moroccan side of the RBIM (Mediterranean Intercontinental Biosphere Reserve) which was created back in 2006 for conservation purposes as the first biosphere reserve in the world that regroups two continents.

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

To complete the objectives of the study, the primary and secondary data has been collected from during different stages of the study, they vary from field inspections and observation to semi-structured interviews.

3.1 Primary Data

The primary data of this study has been collected in the following ways:

a). Field inspection and semi-structured interviews

Visited different governmental institutions, public agencies, and different stakeholders included in the tourism activity in the city such as civil society associations and local professionals. The conducted interviews aim inspecting the official governmental policies and strategies besides the highlighting the role of ecolodges and civil society associations, in parallel with other NGOs and the syndicate of tourism sector professionals in the city. The semi structured interviews were done partly in local dialect 'Darija' and French and then translated into English for later processing. Eventually, 15 semi-structured interviews were conducted.

b). Questionnaire-based survey

The survey was used as a profiling tool for the tourist base that visit the Chaouen destination, in absence of official statistics. By collecting tourists' opinions and impressions about the destination and close observation in the field of their behaviour. the questionnaire consisting of 15 questions was distributed on tourist in the main tourist hotspots in the city during a period of two month (between March and April, 2016) as this period was spring season and this time

is the best season to visit the city. Considering the wide variety of tourist nationalities, the surveys were prepared in 3 different languages; French, Spanish, and English. Finally, 472 questionnaires were collected, then, the data obtained was analysed using the computer software IBM SPSS to convert the collected data into easily readable tables and charts.

3.2 Secondary Data

The secondary data has been collected during different stage of the study. Starting from the first week of April, 2016 with ground inspection and observation of the tourism sector structure in the city then continued collecting documents and management plans and illustrated projects, reports, monographies... from governmental agencies and different private and public stakeholders. Along with online research to fill in any gaps left by the first process.

4. SWOT ANALYSIS

A SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) analysis is a research method to analyse the existing state of affairs. It is also known as SWOT matrix and has been employed basically in the field of business and enterprises. It was extended later to natural resource management as an evaluation tool for different decisions, projects, and policies (Pickton and Wright, 1998). This analysis method has been also being used in evaluation of sustainable tourism, its practices, and related disciplines such as rural development and poverty alleviation. (Goranczewski and Puciato, 2010). This method is based on two stages of analysis which are conducted separately:

1. Firstly, analyse the internal factors consisting of strengths and weaknesses taking in consideration the objectives of the SWOT;
2. Secondly, analyse the external factors which contain opportunities and threats namely positive and negative external factors.

Defining the internal and external environment of the discipline in question is the core task of this analysis method. Consequently, this primary step allows later the definition of internal factors which can be classified as strengths (S) or weaknesses (W) and external factors which consist of opportunities (O) or threats (T) (Shinno *et al.* 2006). The SWOT analysis helps in analysing the advantages and disadvantages of the ecotourism and coming out with strategic suggestions for ecotourism planning (Hong and Chan, 2010). This also helps in sound understanding of elements, process and practice of local institutions in order to determine appropriate interventions (Reihanian *et al.* 2012). Following that, strategic alternatives are

selected in the light of the strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities as determined through internal and external environment analysis (Simoneaux and Stroud 2011). SWOT analysis is intended to maximize strengths and opportunities, minimize external threats, transform weaknesses into strengths and to take advantage of opportunities along with minimizing both internal weaknesses and external threats (Stăncioiu *et al.* 2008).

Analysing the internal and external factors concerning tourism sector in general and surrounding environment is an essential step of an effective strategic planning process which can, eventually, lead to a sustainable development of the sector. This analysis of the surrounding environment is decisive in preparation and selection of a strategy factors. In this study, we will examine the state of Chaouen as a touristic destination exploring its internal factors classified as strengths (S) or weaknesses (W) and those external were classified as opportunities (O) or threats (T). Accordingly, a table of S/O and S/T and of W/O and W/T was tabulated in the internal factor matrix (IFM) and the latter was tabulated in the external factor matrix (EFM). Next, these factors were weighed and scored according to their importance or rather degree of effect in the general destination status, and the final score was calculated. This process was carried out as explained step by step in the following section:

1. The factors were given a coefficient between 0 and 1, standing for “not important” and “most-important”, respectively. This coefficient represents the relative significance of the factor in success rate and is represented by this term; weight in the IFM. Despite the fact that each factor is considered an internal strength or weakness, the more effective the factor in the determining the good state of the touristic destination, the higher the assigned weight will be.
2. Each factor was scored between 1 and 4, while 1 is standing for fundamental weakness, 2 for minor weakness, 3 for strength and 4 for great strength. These scores were evaluated based on the tourist activities taking place in the city, the different aspects of the tourism sector in general, and coefficients used in the above stage and tourism infrastructure and services status.
3. In order to determine each factor's final score, its weight was multiplied by its score.
4. Once each factor's total score was calculated, they were summed to calculate the total final score of IFM.
5. If this value was less than 2.5, it meant that the strengths were less than weaknesses; if it was more than 2.5 strengths were more than weaknesses (Goranczewski and Puciato 2010).

The same steps were followed in the same order for EFM as well. Again, If the total score value is less than 2.5, it means that the opportunities are less than threats; if it is more than 2.5, opportunities are more than threats.

5. RESULTS

5.1 Internal Factors Matrix (IFM)

Regarding strengths, 10 factors were identified. The city's location and climate factor was the highest weighted factor. While the lowest weighted factor was landscape difference through the city. The weight allocated to these factors amounted between 0.02 and 0.1 and the effectiveness score ranged between 2 and 4. When considering weaknesses, 10 factors were detected. Lack of infrastructure and fundamental facilities. The lowest weight was 0.03 assigned to the factor lack of professionalism in services. The effectiveness score ranged between 2 and 4. The value of internal factors was 3.18, so the strengths were more than weaknesses. In other words, although the city is seen to have significant infrastructure and structure challenges it manages to weigh more on opportunities.

Table 1: Internal Factors Estimate

	Weight	Effectiveness Score	Final score
Strengths			
1. <i>The city's location and climate</i>	0.1	4	0.40
2. <i>Rich cultural and natural diversity artisanal products</i>	0.03	3	0.09
3. <i>Exotic gastronomy</i>	0.06	3	0.18
4. <i>Talassemtane national park</i>	0.05	2	0.10
5. <i>Unique artisanal products</i>	0.03	3	0.09
6. <i>attractive old city cultural monuments</i>	0.04	2	0.08
7. <i>Good reputation of destination to European tourists</i>	0.03	3	0.09
8. <i>Landscape difference through the city</i>	0.02	3	0.06
9. <i>Adjacency to two most important entrance points to the country (Tangier and Ceuta)</i>	0.04	2	0.08
10. <i>Unique customs and tradition of local population</i>	0.04	2	0.08
Weaknesses			
1. <i>Lack of infrastructure and fundamental facilities</i>	0.1	4	0.4
2. <i>Accommodation insufficiency during high season</i>	0.05	2	0.10
3. <i>Lack of professionalism in services</i>	0.03	3	0.09
4. <i>Lack of travel and tourism agencies</i>	0.04	4	0.16
5. <i>Lack of environment conservation concept</i>	0.05	4	0.20
6. <i>Weak integration of local population</i>	0.06	4	0.24
7. <i>Traditional promotion methods</i>	0.05	3	0.15
8. <i>Unclear sector structure</i>	0.06	3	0.18
9. <i>Juridical void concerning protected areas</i>	0.05	4	0.20

<i>10. Absence of tourism ministry representation in the city</i>	0.07	3	0.21
Total	1.00	----	3.18

5.2 External Factors Matrix (EFM)

There were 9 factors pertaining to opportunities. Positive impact on local economy and job creation had the highest weight, while tourism encouraging sustainable development plans had the lowest weight. All opportunities factors weights ranged between 0.05 and 0.09. The effectiveness score ranged between 2 and 4. In case of threats, 7 factors were recognized. The highest weight allocated to 7 factors amounted to either 0.1 or 0.05, and the effectiveness score ranged between 2 and 4. The highest weighted factor was considerable negative impact on surrounding environment, and the lowest one was assigned to the factor Complicated administrative procedures. Ultimately, the final score was 2.998. that is to say that opportunities were more than threats, explaining that the different threats facing the good process of tourism in the city, yet it does not reach the point where those threats take over opportunities or diminishes them.

Table 2: External Factors Estimate

	Weight	Effectiveness Score	Final score
Opportunities			
<i>1. Positive impact of tourism on local economy and job creation</i>	0.09	3	0.24
<i>2. Great importance given to tourism in Vision 2020 plan</i>	0.06	3	.018
<i>3. Benefits different social classes in the city</i>	0.06	4	0.24
<i>4. Interaction with universities for education and research purposes</i>	0.04	4	0.20
<i>5. Tourism encouraging sustainable development plans</i>	0.05	2	0.10
<i>6. High international interest for ecotourism, rural tourism, adventure tourism.</i>	0.06	3	0.18
<i>7. High satisfaction level of tourist after visiting the city</i>	0.05	4	0.20
<i>8. Participation of local CSAs and international ones in sustainable development projects</i>	0.06	3	0.18
<i>9. Both CSAs and HCEFLCD make heritage/biodiversity conservation their higher priority</i>	0.06	2	0.12
			0.00
Threats			
<i>1. Considerable negative impact on surrounding environment</i>	0.1	4	0.4

<i>2. Cultural monuments are in a damaged situation</i>	0.06	4	0.24
<i>3. Local population's cannabis plantations complicate the implementation of sustainable development plans</i>	0.05	3	0.15
<i>4. Young generation give up handcraft making missions for immigration to nearby city centres</i>	0.06	3	0.18
<i>5. Complicated administrative procedures obstacle the realization of projects</i>	0.04	4	0.16
<i>6. traditional promotion methods</i>	0.06	3	0.18
<i>7. Juridical void left by the unassigned protected areas regulation law</i>	0.1	2	0.20
Total	1.00		2.988

6. CONCLUSIONS

This study examines the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of tourism development in the city of Chaouen north of Morocco. The main issues which influence tourism industry development in the city have been identified by SWOT analysis. The current and future situation of tourism in the city is criticized by means of quantified SWOT analysis. Accordingly, Chaouen has a great potential for tourist attraction. The strong points are the beauty of the landscape, presence of a large variety of local traditions customs and artisanal products, great diversity of environments in a large territory, existence of valuable natural areas that may be further enhanced in terms of enjoyment, and presence of beach tourism in coastal areas that can be integrated with ecotourism. However, its infrastructure and promotion are inadequate due to local government's lack of attention to tourism industry. Therefore, the city in general, and the national park particularly may be subject to mass and unsustainable tourism activities. These results may stand as recommendations to future tourism development or management plans in the city. Thus, this paper provides an important alternative for further research projects on implementation of sustainable tourism in Chaouen.

Sustainable tourism is the main reference axis for destination analysis and to achieve this pair wise matching (SO, WO, ST, and WT) has been done. The incidence point of the internal and external factors. Thus, by comparing internal and external factors in the matrix of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) acceptable strategies were formulated which are as follows:

Table 3: SWOT Strategies

Internal	Strengths (S)	Weaknesses (W)
External		
Opportunities (O)	S/O Strategies	W/O Strategies
Threats (T)	S/T Strategies	W/T Strategies

S/O strategies: Opportunities factors that adequately convene with the destination's strengths are:

1. Usefully exploit the rich and diverse touristic potential to benefit the local economy in management plans.
2. Prepare more professionally the stakeholders of the sector.
3. Count on the famous destination to international tourists as an ecotourism/nature/culture destination.
4. Maintain the positive interaction of local population with tourists raising their satisfaction level.
5. Make collaborations between local CSAs and public agencies sustainable development and conservation bound.

S-T strategies: Strategies by which the strengths can be used to reduce gravity of the external threats:

1. Encourage cultural heritage opportunities for young people to prevent them from leaving their hometowns to work in nearby big cities.
2. Include cultural monuments conservation and maintenance into management plans.
3. Improve promotion strategies in order to reach a wider international clientele.
4. Concentrate the CSA/public agencies collaboration more on finding realistic and effective solutions for cannabis plantation.
5. Simplify the administrative procedures of creating tourism related projects and encourage NGO initiatives.

W-O strategies: The strategies by which weaknesses can be overcome relying on opportunities are:

1. Ensure the complete realisation of the points and objectives drawn in the 2020 vision plan.
2. Urge governmental agencies to work more with CSAs on the aspect of environmental conservation.
3. Make sustainable development projects more integrative for local population.
4. Solve the juridical void regulating touristic activities within protected areas.
5. Improve public agencies intervention to be at the level of international interest in the destination.

W-T strategies: suggested strategies to prevent destinations threats from accumulating on its weaknesses.

1. Minimise the environmental impact and implement more conservation plans.
2. Dedicate future development plans to cannabis plantation alternatives.
3. Empower local crafts makers to protect their know-how professions
4. Facilitate administrative procedures for local initiatives projects.
5. Concentrate professional syndicates more on developing the tourism sector.

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<http://www.strategicmanagementinsight.com/tools/ife-ef/e-matrix.html>

Hotels getting social to compete with the sharing economy

Simon Hudson

The sharing economy is having a disruptive influence on the travel industry. Entire communities and cities around the world are using network technologies to do more with less, by renting, lending, swapping, bartering, gifting and sharing products on a scale never before possible. This paper focuses on the accommodation sharing economy, and takes a case study approach to illustrate how hotels can compete with the sharing economy. Recent research suggests that the sharing economy is appealing to consumers not just because of price, flexibility, and ease of use. Consumers also enjoy the authenticity, familiarity, service quality, and social and emotional benefits that the sharing economy provides. For example, guests of Airbnb, enjoyed interacting with their hosts in an 'authentic' setting, and enjoy gaining local connections with the host's help. For PWC (2014) the key reason consumers prefer the sharing economy over traditional methods of exchange is because of the deeper social connections it allows, and a recent research report from Deloitte (2016) suggests that to survive and compete with the sharing economy, the hotel of the future needs to completely change and build more personal connections with and between guests.

This paper present examples from hotels around the world that are doing just that, from the M-Beta in Charlotte, USA, to the Limelight Hotel in Aspen, Colorado, to the Peninsula Hotel in Tokyo, to the Sol Wave hotel in Mallorca, Spain. For example, the M-Beta, Marriott's testing ground for new hotel technology and services, encourages social interaction between guests and staff in several ways. On arrival, there is no traditional front desk check-in. Guests are welcomed at the curb by associates, who guide them through check-in at tables in the lobby, similar to how Geniuses greet customers at an Apple store. In the restaurant, the walls between the kitchen and dining area have been removed, placing guests in the center of the action, allowing chefs to interact more closely with guests and entertain them with impromptu culinary offerings. The interactive space also encourages a sense of exploration among guests with a regular rotation of local artisan tastings and cooking classes.

The paper shows that hotels are competing at different levels of sophistication in terms of social engagement with customers, whether it be hosting a welcome reception for new guests, offering social programming, or completely changing the physical environment to allowing visitors to share common spaces.

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**TRUST IN COOPERATION NETWORKS OF THE BRAZILIAN TOURISM: ANALYSIS
OF ITS ROLE AND ASSOCIATED ELEMENTS**

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TRUST IN COOPERATION NETWORKS OF THE BRAZILIAN TOURISM: ANALYSIS OF ITS ROLE AND ASSOCIATED ELEMENTS

Expanded Abstract

Trust is defined as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform an action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party (Mayer et al., 1995). Trust provides the formation of networks between companies (Grandori and Soda, 1995), due to the advantages it offers to its members (Lanz and Tomei, 2015). However, firms can face local scenarios that discourage trust (Gulati, 1998), therefore associated elements – substitutes or complementaries – are required to foster interfirm networks. Elements act as substitutes when trust does not impact cooperation and another component is required to generate alliances. Complementary elements help trust to improve the quality of economic exchanges or strengthen interorganizational trust. Thus, entrepreneurs can use associated elements such as contracts (Williamson, 1985), support institutions (Hoffmann et al., 2003; Hoffmann et al., 2007) and reciprocity (Axelrod, 2010; Gouldner, 1960) to enable cooperation and to access external resources (Oliver, 1990). In this paper, we seek to examine the role of trust and its associated elements for the decision to cooperate in the tourism of Parnaíba (PI), Brazil. Therefore, we developed an exploratory research with a qualitative approach (Flick, 2009), using the technique of Content Analysis (Bardin, 1977). Data were collected in nine semi-structured interviews with small businesses operating in the hospitality industry and evaluated on TripAdvisor. Findings show that there is an interorganizational network in Parnaíba, whose cooperation actions are service recommendation, exchange of knowledge and destination promotion. These actions are informal and occur both horizontally and vertically. Trust encourage the formation of networks, providing practices that increase competitiveness. However, trustworthiness – the competence of the firm – had a more significant impact on the decision to cooperate than trust itself, because entrepreneurs and business managers focus mainly on the quality of the partner's services. In addition, cooperation was also impacted by support institutions and reciprocity. Support institutions play a key role to local cooperation: raising entrepreneurs' awareness of the importance of interfirms networks; facilitating dialogues and negotiations; providing technical support. These institutions complement trust in networks. Reciprocity is a calculated and an opportunistic action that stimulates entrepreneurs to cooperate in order to compete. Thus, the idea of reciprocity itself – a pattern of mutually contingent exchange of gratifications – contributes to form cooperation networks. Consequently, reciprocity acts as complementary element to trust. In this study, contracts were irrelevant to the formation of networks, although, they are used to control the external relationships with tourism operators and travel agencies. Therefore contracts consist on substitutes of trust. In conclusion, territorial agglomerations – such as tourist destinations – provide resources conducive to the formation of networks, especially trust and support institutions. Future studies can extend this investigation to different firms and tourist destinations, as well as to develop a quantitative study.

Keywords: Trust; Interorganizational Networks; Cooperation; Tourist Destinations; Brazil.

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COMPLEMENTARITY AND DIVERSITY IN ALLIANCE PORTFOLIOS

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COMPLEMENTARITY AND DIVERSITY IN ALLIANCE PORTFOLIOS

Abstract:

Purpose: The purpose of this paper is to analyze relationships between alliance portfolio diversity and network resource complementarity and we study how to affect them to focal firm performance. We explore three type of relationships. Firstly, linear relationships between alliance portfolio diversity, network resource complementarity, and focal firm performance. Secondly, mediation relationships between alliance portfolio diversity and focal firm performance. Thirdly, a non-linear relation between network resource complementarity and focal firm performance.

Design/ methodology/ approach: The paper employs commercial airline sector to test the hypothesis. We focus on codeshare alliances. Our sample is constituted by the world's top 135 airline groups by revenues of the number published in the 2011 Airline Business magazine. Structural equation modeling, based on the partial least squares (PLS-SEM) approach, was used to estimate and validate the proposed model.

Findings: We find empirical support to existence direct relationships between network resource complementarity and focal firm performance and between alliance portfolio diversity and network resource complementarity. Our results also suggest that exists indirect relations between alliance portfolio diversity, network resource complementarity, and focal firm performance. In other words, network resource complementarity mediates the relationship between alliance portfolio diversity and focal firm performance. Moreover, we also find empirical support to non-linear relation between network resource complementarity and focal firm performance.

Originality/ value: This paper consist of a complete analysis of relations between alliance portfolio diversity, network resource complementarity and focal firm performance. We not only study direct hypothesis, we also discover a mediation effect between alliance portfolio diversity and focal firm performance. We also find that alliance portfolio diversity is not enough to increase focal firm

performance. For this reason, the focal firm needs that alliance network resource are complementary. Moreover, the authors propose an undiscovered relationship between network resource complementarity and focal firm performance and provide empirical support for it. The authors also develop a theory to understand how a firm can improve its performance in a high diversity context.

Keywords: Complementarity, diversity, alliance portfolio, network resources, strategic alliances.

**INTERDEPENDENCIES BETWEEN TOUR OPERATORS AND HOTELS: THE
CASE OF ANTALYA**

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INTERDEPENDENCIES BETWEEN TOUR OPERATORS AND HOTELS: THE CASE OF ANTALYA

Abstract

This paper aims to discuss the interdependencies between coastal hotels and tour operators in Antalya. Despite the variety of alternative types of tourism in the region, leisure packaged tour promoting Mediterranean seaside is the main tourism product of Antalya. All inclusive resorts are the bases of these packaged tours and they are mostly dependent on the sales of tour operators for the occupancy of their rooms. The interdependencies and power asymmetries in the industrial relations between hotels and tour operators are examined by using secondary data in this paper. The organization theory of resource dependence is employed for understanding and explaining the external control of organizations. Theoretical discussions and practical implications are presented in the conclusions section.

Key words: Resource Dependence Theory; Tour Operators; Mediterranean Resorts; Power; Distribution Channels; Antalya

INTRODUCTION

Accommodation establishments and tour operators have mutual benefits and collaboration in tourism industry. Hotel rooms are the main sources of packaged tours which are marketed by tour operators. Accommodation is one the main cost items and also significant to ensure tourist satisfaction with the packaged holiday (Medina-Munoz et al., 2003). Tour operators, on the other hand, are the dominant players in distribution channels to sell hotel rooms. Tour operators and travel agencies play a significant role in the industry by providing convenient points of sale and/or access to consumers away from the location of production and consumption. Hotels and tour operators are partners and have complementary roles in that sense. However, conflicts between hotels and tour operators are also frequent in the industry (Buhalis, 2000). It is quite possible to argue the power disparities between accommodation establishments and tour operators in destinations like Antalya where package tours are important in the industry.

The Antalya region is Turkey's largest tourism centre which is with the highest share of tourism revenues. Since Antalya region has a unique structure, it is different from other touristic destinations in Turkey. That brings different relationships pattern in industry. Recognizing and explaining the nature of the relations between the tour operators and accommodation establishments is important for the development of tourism activities. Resource dependence theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978) suggests a good conceptual framework for understanding the nature of these relationships. In this study, resource dependence approach was preferred to understand the power imbalance between accommodation establishments and tour operators in Antalya. In the study, macro data were used in accordance with the theoretical framework. The results obtained seem to describe the structure of power relations in the region.

TOUR OPERATORS AND INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS IN TOURISM

Tour operators and travel agencies are the intermediaries of tourism industry who bring service suppliers and tourists together (Huang et al., 2010). Travel agents and tour operators can be of same or separate business enterprises, whose main product is package tours. A package tour is basically a tourism product in which a combination of different products associated to a trip is offered (WTO, 2004). Tourism services provided in a package tour generally consist of transport services, accommodation services and organization services of tour operators but the package could also be extended at will, to include other products and services such as food and beverage services, entertainment, excursion and sightseeing services, etc. Tour operators are the main organizers and wholesalers of travel. Tours which are tailored to person can also be offered but identified and standardised tours (Roper, 2005) are created by combining a bunch of services in most cases. While tour operators may directly sell package tours, they can also market their products through travel agencies which are the retailers in tourism industry.

Packaged tours are especially common for international trips. Wang et al. (2000) classified outbound travel into two types; group package tour and foreign independent tour. Independent tourists plan their own trips without assistance of an agency or a pre-scheduled program. Although independent tour is on the rise, group package tour offered by tour operators is still the mainstream mode of outbound travel from various locations such as European and Asian countries (Wang et al., 2000; Medina-Munoz et al., 2003; Huang et al., 2010). Especially, mass tourists who would like to visit a destination for the purpose of sun-sea-sand tourism are more likely to buy operators' package tours. This makes tour operators one of the key players in the industry to alter destination's image and to influence demand (Buhalis, 2000). Although there are recent arguments on the effects of information and communication technologies to shift the power balances in distribution channels (Berne et al., 2012), tour operators continue to be the dominant players for certain destinations like Turkey (Unal, 2013; AKTOB, 2014a).

As all of the business enterprises, primary purpose of tour operators is to maintain continuance of the firm and to increase their profitability. For this purpose, tour operators attempt to enlarge their market share and their volume of sales by offering charming packages with reasonable prices (Medina-Munoz et al., 2003). They also try to increase profit margins by reducing the cost of packages by the aim of remaining competitive in the market (Buhalis, 2000). Their main suppliers are hotels and air carriers for outbound travel packages. Tour operators mostly use charter flights rather than scheduled airlines for cost saving. For accommodation facilities, on the other hand, tour operators try to exercise control over accommodation facilities to reduce prices and that cause certain conflicts between hotels and tour operators. In a study conducted in Greece, Buhalis (2000) identified nine sources of conflict between the two; (1) prices, (2) legal coverage covering only tour operators, (3) tour operator's bankruptcies, (4) coverage of contracts, (5) misleading or directing tourists to competing accommodation establishments, (6) payment delays, (7) requesting for high quality without payment, (8) late release of unwanted allocation, (9) and accommodation allocation upon arrival. He also remarked the techniques used by tour operators to bargain hotel prices such as timing of negotiating contracts, bargaining during low occupancy periods, misleading image of destinations and properties, and playing hotels against each other (Buhalis, 2000).

The core reason at the background of conflicts between hotels and tour operators is different commercial and strategic interests of parties. While both hotels and tour operators try to maximize their profitability, operators attempt to control destination based suppliers' prices to increase their own commissions or mark-ups. Oligopsony in the market (Buhalis, 2000)

together with the seasonality of demand potentiates the power of tour operators in tourist destinations. Although a few buyers exist in the market, there are lots of accommodation enterprises offering similar services (Andriotisy, 2003). Additionally hotels in a destination are competing with each other. Especially resorts of mass tourism destinations have limited capacity to market their rooms directly to guests. Since hotels mostly dependent on intermediaries for the sales of their rooms, they are defined as the “weakest links” of tourism distribution channel (Bastakis et al., 2004), especially if they are one of small and medium sized enterprises. Tour operators, on the other hand, can even influence destination image of clients and manipulate the destination selection process, which consequently determines the competitiveness of the destinations (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001). Thus they have certain level of control on hotels.

The reflected imbalance of power is common in industrial relations in tourism (Ford et al., 2012). Power asymmetries between hotels are also studied in a spatial context (Papatheodorou, 2003) but the conflicts between accommodation enterprises and tour operators (Buhalis, 2000), dependence of hotels on intermediaries and power asymmetries between these two (Bastakis et al., 2004) are of the most evident in tourism industry. As it is well known, inability of creating physical stocks of products in travel and tourism turns up the pressure on enterprises for timely sales. Middleton (1994) suggests that creating and manipulating access for consumers is one of the principal ways to manage demand for highly perishable products. Although hotel room is one of good example of highly perishable products, they lack the ability and tools to manipulate tourism demand. Briefly, tour operators as the intermediaries between service providers and clients have a significant role in formulation and manipulation of tourist demand and hotels are mostly dependent on tour operators’ sales to increase their occupancies.

RESOURCE DEPENDENCE THEORY

Resource dependence perspective is based on the assertion that survival of organizations is contingent upon the resources received from their environments. The theory supports and follows the assumptions of open systems (Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967) by addressing the significance of environment for individual organizations. Since organizations are constrained by their situations and environments, they have continuous relations with the environment and they put their full energy to alter their situations. Thus the theory of resource dependence asserts that the context should be examined and understood first, to be able to understand the behaviour of an organization (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Briefly the theory has three central themes (Davis & Cobb, 2009); 1) social context matters; 2) organizations have strategies to enhance their autonomy and pursue interests; and 3) power (not just rationality or efficiency) is important for understanding internal and external actions of organizations.

Resource dependence perspective employs three main dimensions to explain the environment of organizations (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003, p. 63-71). The first dimension is *concentration* which refers the control of resources. Concentration is high in the industry if an important proportion of resources (assets, output, or sales) are controlled by only a number of the largest firms. The opposite of concentration is conflict in any industry. In that case, resources are dispersed between numerous organizations, which lack the ability to obtain resources and control the environment.

Second important dimension of environment is *munificence* which refers to the availability or scarcity of critical resources. Precisely, identifying the actors who have the power and

authority to control critical resources of an industry is of the significant importance to understand the environment. Scarcity of resources would cause conflict between organizations in an industry which is characterised with a low level of concentration.

In addition to receiving resources needed, environment is also critical for creating the dependencies. Organizations feel the pressure of dependencies if a few suppliers exist in the environment to obtain the necessary resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). The main goal of organizations is to minimise or suppress these dependencies.

The third dimension to examine relations between organizations and their environments is *interconnectedness*. The number and pattern of linkages, networks, or associations point the interconnectedness level between organizations. This third dimension is important to influence uncertainty of environment. The high level of interconnectedness means also a high level of environmental uncertainty in which organizations need to control a lot more variables. A loosely coupled system or a lower level of interconnectedness, on the other hand, allows organizations for easier adaptation.

Theory suggests various strategies to understand organizational behaviour aiming to manage the resources and dependencies (Hillman et al., 2009). Organizations have two options; to adapt or to change the environment. In either case, organizations can take some actions to minimize environmental dependencies such as cooperating with various partners, having linkage with associations, business groups or alliances, having a member in boards of directors who has good relations with authorities and powerful organizations, having concentrated relations with critical resources, or investing in mergers and joint ventures.

THE CASE OF ANTALYA

Antalya is one of the major tourism destinations of Turkey. The city is located on the southwest coast of Turkey and hosting more than 10 million foreign visitors each year. Antalya also receives a great extent of tourism investments from governmental agencies and private institutions. There are more than 900 accommodation enterprises in the city with almost 500 thousand beds capacity on supply (AIKTM Report, 2014). The accommodation facilities also offer a high quality of services. The largest number of five star hotels of the country is found in Antalya (TurizmDataBank, 2016) which generally offers All Inclusive (AI) service for their guests with reasonable prices.

Foreign visitors of the destination are generally mass tourists visiting Antalya for sea-sand-sun (3S) tourism and preferring packaged tours provided by tour operators. It is estimated that on an average of 45 % of total visitors are clients of packaged tours (Karaboga, 2012). Further examining the figures of packaged tours, it is found that a limited number of the largest tour operators have great market shares (AKTOB, 2014a) which reflects an oligopolistic structure in the sub segment of tourism industry. Market shares of tour operators are showed in Figure 1 which represents 74 % of the total market is dominated by the largest 13 tour operators. Shares of less than 2 % are accumulated to “others” to represent other tour operators in Figure 1 which is only 26 % in total.

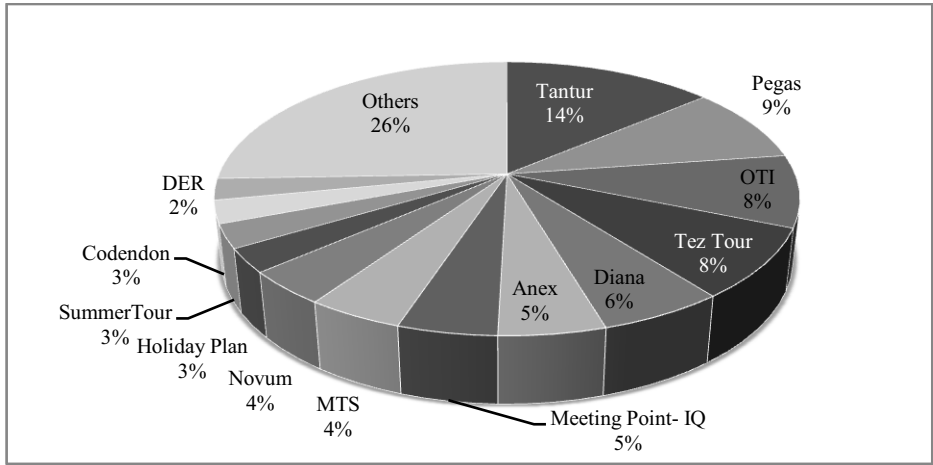


Figure 1. Market Shares of Tour Operators (AKTOB, 2014)

Russia and Germany is the main tourist sending countries to Antalya and tour operators dominating these two key countries' markets are shown in Table 1 and Table 2. Antalya hosted 3,5 million visitors from Russia which counts to 31 % and 2,8 million visitors from Germany which makes 25 % of total foreign tourists of the destination (AKTOB, 2014b).

Table 1. Tour Operators' Shares for Russian Tourists Market (Data used from AKTOB, 2014a)

Tour Operators	Market Shares
Pegas	26%
OTI Group	21%
Tez Tour	18%
Anex	18%
Tantur	7%

Table 1 shows the tour operators' shares in Russian tourists market and the largest five operators found to hold 90 % of the total market. The market for tourists from Germany shows a similar structure with 75 % of shares is hold by the largest seven tour operators (Table 2).

Table 2. Tour Operators' Shares for German Tourists Market (Data used from AKTOB, 2014a)

Tour Operators	Market Shares
Tantur	18%
Meeting Point - IQ	14%
Novum	12%
Holiday Plan	9%
Diana	8%
MTS	7%
Der	7%

DISCUSSIONS

Secondary data examined and represented above points that tour operators are one of the main buyers of hotel rooms in Antalya. As explicated by Buhalis (2000) for the Greek case, oligopsony is identified in the case of Antalya considering the numbers of hotels and tour operators. Although there is a great level of rooms supply, there are a few tour operators dominating the incoming market of foreign tourists. Hotels are also away from their clients and have limited resources to market themselves. Especially the resorts designed for 3S tourists away from city centre are extensively dependent on tour operators' sales. The segment of tour operators, on the hand, highly concentrated (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003). They also show examples of vertical integration that provides control of their environments and allows cost minimization. For example, one of the main tour operators now operates as a holding company since it is integrated by starting an incoming travel agency, buying an online distribution channel, founding its own hotels in Antalya, and having a leasing contract with aviation company. The major cost items are transport and accommodation for package tours and tour operators attempt to control these suppliers. The imbalance between the numbers of hotels and tour operators in the destination creates power asymmetries as suggested by Buhalis (2000) and Andriotisy (2003), where hotels are dependent on tour operators to reach tourists.

Tourists are the critical resources for tourism industry. Although a great number of tourists visit Antalya every year, hotels need intermediaries to obtain these resources. Receiving guests would be a source of conflict since they are competing with each other. However tour operators have the power to control tourist demand and to influence the destination image (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001).

Lastly, any single tour operator or travel agency has to be member of Association of Turkish Travel Agencies (TURSAB) in Turkey. The legal status of the association provides a certain level of power for its members. Lobby activities and applications of the association are taken into consideration by the governmental authorities. Hoteliers also have associations but they do not have such a powerful status and authority to impose sanctions. Thus the interconnectedness levels defined by Pfeffer & Salancik (2003) are also different for hotels' and tour operators' environments.

CONCLUSION

The study attempted to discuss the power asymmetries between tour operators and hotels by focusing on Antalya case. Tourist is defined as the critical resource for tourism industry as a primary requisite to be able to discuss tourism activity. Tourist could also be considered as difficult to reach since specified tourism organizations are required for transportation, accommodation of tourist and for organization of travel. From a resource dependence perspective, tourist is a critical resource. However tourist could also be considered as a scarce resource for hotels could not reach tourists directly for most of the cases. They need online distribution channels, tour operators, or travel agencies as the intermediaries by offering their commissions. Hotels of mass tourism destinations are mostly dependent on tour operators' sales and tour operators are the powerful players of the tourism industry. Additionally, hotels need to cope with limited number of alternatives because of highly concentrated structure of tour operators. Since only a few tour operators dominate the whole market, accommodation enterprises have limited control on their environments.

It is possible to suggest practical implications for hotels from the resource dependence perspective to manage their power dependencies. They need to take some organizational actions to reach the critical resources by themselves rather than adapting to the environment. One of the strategies could be vertical integration by incorporating a distribution channel or starting strategic alliances with tour operators. They could also strengthen cooperation with other accommodation enterprises and empower associations of hoteliers. The theory suggests that relatively less powerful organizations could associate and cooperate to strengthen their power against the highly concentrated suppliers or buyers. The control of the environment is significant for the survival of organizations according to resource dependence theory and hotels should endeavour to gain power to have greater control on their environments.

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**STUDY OF KAZAKH TOURISTS SATISFACTION DEGREE DOMESTIC
TOURIST SERVICES**

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Abstract: The local consumers' satisfaction with domestic tourist services determines the level of their competitive advantage. Today's dissatisfaction with local tourist services proves a lack of loyalty to it, and decreases the opportunity to be recommended to other clients. In this article, the authors aim to identify the loyalty of domestic tourists to tourist services from all regions of Kazakhstan. Questionnaire survey of the opinion of tourism services was conducted. The results show that Kazakhs prefer foreign tourist destinations, rather than domestic. Key factor of lack of demand for domestic tourist services were identified on the basis of diagnosed relation to various aspects of the tourist offer. The authors formulated measures to build consumer loyalty to domestic tourist services.

Key words: satisfaction, loyalty, consumer behavior, tourism services, destination, tourism product.

1. Introduction

The satisfaction with the product or service, its convenience or performance, or simply familiarity and comfort with it means customer loyalty means to favor one destination over all others. Customer loyalty encourages visitors to return, spend more, and feel positive about the experience, helping attract visitors to familiar destinations/hotels in the face of a competitive environment.

The need for the formation of consumer loyalty to Kazakhstan and its tourism is driven by the economic importance of tourism. The contribution of tourism to the national added value ranged between 1.2-1.4% over the past five years. The scope of services being imported by Kazakhstan is consistently higher than this figure by 385-400 mln. USD [2].

Increase in the scope of services provided by Kazakhstan to foreign visitors can be considered as a prerequisite to the formation of loyalty to the destination. However, the country residents acquire significant amount of overseas destination services each year, which indicates the existence of loyalty to these services. Formation of loyalty to Kazakhstan will increase tourism demand in Kazakhstan by domestic and international visitors which will affect the export and import indicators of tourist services.

Despite the fact that there is a positive trend in the foreign tourist flow, increasing number of Kazakhs prefer to travel abroad, and their number keep growing annually at a higher pace, which affects the import indicators of tourism services and tourism balance in Kazakhs balance of payment .

Based on economic importance of customer loyalty, we can say that Kazakhs are more loyal to a foreign destination. In particular, this is due to higher quality of tourist products abroad. The reviewed dynamics shows that the growth in outbound exceeds domestic tourism growth by 28%, accordingly, foreign destinations are more attractive to the Kazakhs travelers which ultimately reflects their loyalty.

Therefore, there is a need to survey how to improve the quality of Kazakhs tourist product.

In accordance with this purpose, the following objectives of the study were determined:

- to survey the visitation of different regions of Kazakhstan in order to survey their tourism attractiveness;
- to determine the degree of satisfaction with quality of domestic tourism product/destination.

2. Conceptual framework

Consumer behavior plays significant role in the preferences of tourist destinations, which is very interesting and challenging subject of research [1]. Consumer behavior in tourism can be defined as a set of actions, attitudes and decisions relating to the selection, purchase and consumption of tourism products and services, as well as its subsequent reaction to consumption.. Understanding of consumer behavior is essential for the development of new tourism products and services. Relevant area of research in the literature of consumer behavior is customer loyalty, which became one of the factors of competitive advantage.

Many researchers [3, 4, 5, 6, and 7] analyzed the impact of customer loyalty to the development of a company's sustainable competitive advantage. Thus, N. Terblanch and S. Boshoff believe that loyalty is a prerequisite for ensuring maximum benefits [8]. E. Yue, Ch.

Homburg and A.Giring noted that the customer loyalty initially understood as a behavioral concept that entails repeated purchases of a product or service [9, 10]. V. Zeytmal and others suggest that a loyal customer ensures not only repeat purchases, increase in value of purchases and volume over time, but also the spread of positive information through rumors that in turn bring new customers for businesses [11]. According to D. Aaker, loyalty is a key factor contributing to the large volume of sales and profits. [12] In addition, customer retention is easier and cheaper than finding new ones. S. Bargeson supports the same opinion [13]. Many investigators emphasize the psychological aspect of the loyalty, mainly factors such as the emotions and relationships [14, 15, 16, 17, and 18].

In tourism, loyalty studies tend to focus on the tourism and service brands [19, 20] and destinations [21, 22]. In this context, it is assumed that the repetition of travelers visit confirms loyalty to the tourist destinations [23].

Available numerous studies as a direct and / or indirect confirmation of loyalty determine the last satisfaction [20, 24], service quality, perceived value of past visits, satisfaction with the visit [19, 20, 25], trust [26] and reputation [27]. In many studies, satisfaction plays a mediating role in the definition of loyalty [28].

Some of the important psychological factors that influence consumer behavior are attitudes and beliefs. Beliefs and convictions representing coherent and consistent human responses to stimuli of external environment develop tourist's personality distinguishing him from other people. Consumer's beliefs are formed based on actual knowledge resulting from the experience of consuming emotional power. As Philip Kotler defines, people act on the basis of their beliefs. Attitude is defined as a person's ability to behave consistently favorable or unfavorable manner to offer a tourist product or service. It has a significant impact on the position in the tourist products market [29]. Human's attitude influences on the way he thinks, feels and behaves in some aspects of the environment and can explain and predict the behavior of consumers.

Satisfaction is regarded as the basis of consumer behavior as his level of satisfaction affects the future organizational activities in the form of profit, reputation and market share [30]. Many empirical studies of tourists' satisfaction are based on the expectations deliver [31, 32, and 33] and performance prospects [34, 35, and 36].

3. Results of studies

To survey the tourism visitation to different regions Kazakh's tourism regions stratified sampling was used 400 questionnaires containing closed questions, were sent by SurveyMonkey system covering all regions of the country.

The survey was attended by 376 respondents, including 195 - women and 184 men, ensuring the representativeness of the sampling at the 95% confidence level. The most active part in the survey was represented by respondents from 21 to 40 years old whose overall response rate was 70%; the largest share of responses accounted for respondents with higher education (300), 47 had secondary vocational education and 29 people - secondary; the largest proportion of respondents (165 people) are employees, the lowest (15 people) - unemployed.

Per Table 1, the representativeness of the regions among the respondents was as follows: The most actively participated in the survey were people born in Karaganda, Almaty, Pavlodar, South Kazakhstan, East Kazakhstan regions, while the least active - Aktobe, Zhambyl, Kyzylorda regions.

Table 1 - Regional representation of respondents

Kazakhstan region	Number of respondents
Akmola region	16
Aktobe region	7
Almaty region	36
Atyrau region	19
West-Kazakhstan region	19
Jambyl Region	9
Karaganda region	95
Kostanay region	9
Kyzylorda Region	7
Mangistau region	19

South-Kazakhstan region	30
Pavlodar region	40
North-Kazakhstan region	16
East Kazakhstan region	23
Astana city	19
Almaty city	12

Source: 37

The visitation to different regions in Kazakhstan revealed the degree of tourism attractiveness of regions to domestic visitors. According to answers of the respondents, most popular regions for visitors from Kazakhstan are Astana (297) and Almaty (243) cities, Akmola (188), Almaty (185), Karaganda (180) and South Kazakhstan (104) regions (Table 2). The lowest attendance was noted in Kyzylorda (36), North Kazakhstan (39), Aktobe (42) regions. The percentage of attendance constituted 27,66-78,99% for most popular regions, and - 9,5-11,17% for least popular regions.

Table 2- Visiting regions of Kazakhstan

Visited Kazakhstan region	Percentage of respondents in total number	Number of respondents
Akmola region	50,00	188
Aktobe region	11,17	42
Almaty region	49,20	185
Atyrau region	18,08	68
West-Kazakhstan region	15,97	60
Jambyl region	19,94	75
Karaganda region	47,87	180
Kostanay region	13,83	52
Kyzylorda region	9,57	36
Mangistau region	19,41	73
South-Kazakhstan region	27,66	104
Pavlodar region	25,53	96
North-Kazakhstan region	10,37	39
East Kazakhstan region	17,29	65
Astana city	78,99	297
Almaty city	64,62	243

Source: 37

However, since respondents pointed out all options of their visits in the last 5 years, the picture seems even less rosy, due to the likely decline of tourism activity in Kazakhstan. For example, one person could plan 5-7 visits to the regions, while other 5-7 people would not visit any region at all.

The assessment of attractiveness for different types of tourism on the basis of the integral index was determined based on analysis of the answers of respondents about tourism opportunities in Kazakhstan.

$$E = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^7 i * x_i}{100} \quad (2),$$

Where E - total evaluation, i – from 1 to 7 – assessment of attractiveness level of the destination for tourism types; xi – percentage of respondents who chose the i.

If we consider that the maximum possible total score is 7, and the evaluation group is ranked by 3-level "low-medium-high" system (see formula 1) according to domestic tourist opinion as destination, Kazakhstan has high attraction for such kinds of tourism as active, environmental and cultural tourism, young tourists was determined as the target segment (range, 4 to 7). According to citizens of Kazakhstan, all the other types of tourism are less attractive (range of 2 to 4).

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
1		Kazakhstan - is attractive for/to	Strongly Disagree						Convinced	Do not know	evaluation
2			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3	1	Active tourism	4,17	4,17	4,17	0	33,33	33,33	8,33	12,5	4,4996
4	2	Ecological tourism	4,17	0	12,5	0	29,17	33,33	12,5	8,33	4,75
5	3	Beach tourism	25	16,67	8,33	20,83	8,33	0	8,33	12,5	2,6661
6	4	Cultural tourism	0	0	8,33	16,67	20,83	29,17	16,67	8,33	4,8753
7	5	City tourism	20,83	16,67	4,17	4,17	20,83	20,83	4,17	8,33	3,4168
8	6	Sport tourism	16,67	0	16,67	8,33	25	12,5	4,17	16,67	3,2919
9	7	Family vacations	16,67	12,5	8,33	8,33	25	0	8,33	20,83	3,0828
10	8	Elderly tourists	12,5	12,5	16,67	0	16,67	16,67	8,33	16,67	3,2919
11	9	For young travelers	0	0	4,17	20,83	12,5	37,5	16,67	8,33	5,0002

Picture 1 – Evaluation of opinions about Kazakhstan as tourism destination.

At the same time, under evaluation by domestic consumers of the country's attractiveness for beach and city tourism, attractiveness for age tourists and family tourism. It makes thinking that tour operators ignoring needs of target segments and the lack of proposals for them. This requires the development of appropriate strategies for these types of tourism development on the Kazakhstani market, contributing to the rise of domestic tourism.

In accordance with data from Picture 1 evaluation of the level of tourism infrastructure development in Kazakhstan was controversial. All evaluation of the quality of placements, transport services, the price level, opportunities for shopping, entertainment, places for sports and spa facilities, health care, communications in foreign languages, quality of service was settled on a scale of 1 to 7 points, which is most likely is a sign of a lack of satisfaction with the quality and variety of provided services.

The biggest problems that consumers facing area problems related to price quotations, accommodation (scored by 1.4981 out of 7), arrangement of transport services (1,875), access to health care (1.8335).

Excessively high level of prices for accommodation in hotels, often corresponding to the level of services provided, as seen from the answers of the respondents (2.6239), thereby reducing their availability for a wide range of consumers (2.6251), pushing Kazakhstan to refuse from domestic and choice of foreign tours. Respondents noted the high price of air travel (2.6254), which significantly increase the cost of traveling to Kazakhstan, which, respectively, reduces its competitiveness. Considerable distance between regions is an essential obstacle for the development of domestic tourism, as evidenced by the low evaluation of "the organization of transport service" criterion. Therefore, most of Kazakhstan tourists are choosing rail transport as a means of transportation within the country, especially as seen in the survey, the level of prices for it quite acceptable (3,583). However, there is another problem: there are not always direct rail links between the regions of Kazakhstan, as a result, traveling may be delayed, bring great troubles and cause additional fatigue.

In addition, excessively high levels of prices for accommodation in hotels, often not corresponding to the level of provided services, as seen from the respondents' answers, push local citizens to reject domestic tours and choose foreign tours.

The overall level of tourism offerings, as studies show, is low which has a negative impact on the quality of the consumer experience and tourists.

Thus, identified problems confirm with the hypothesis 3 about dissatisfaction of tourists with the ratio "quality / price" on provided services.

A3		Unspoiled (clean) nature								
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
1		Very low						Very high	hesitated	evaluation
2	Tourist services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
3	Unspoiled (clean) nature	0	0	0	25	4,17	20,83	37,5	12,5	5,0833
4	Attractive nature	0	0	0	8,33	29,17	25	25	12,5	5,0417
5	Climatic conditions	8,33	2	12,5	8,33	25	16,67	4,17	20,83	3,3736
6	Diversity of cultural/historical attractions	0	0	8,33	16,67	16,67	25	16,67	16,67	4,4171
7	Fredliness of the local people	0	0	0	20,83	25	20,83	16,67	16,67	4,4999
8	Local cuisine offering	0	0	8,33	16,67	12,5	25	16,67	20,83	4,2086
9	The quality of accommodation services	4,17	4,17	8,33	33,3	12,5	0	4,17	33,3	2,6239
10	The availability of accommodation services	12,5	20,83	20,83	8,33	16,67	0	4,17	16,67	2,6251
11	Price offers on accommodation services	16,67	4,17	4,17	8,33	8,33	0	8,33	8	1,4981
12	Cleanliness of destinations	0	0	16,67	20,83	12,5	4,17	16,67	29,17	3,3754
13	Personal safety	0	0	16,67	20,83	12,5	8,33	20,83	20,83	3,5597
14	Organization of transportation Service	16,67	12,5	8,33	12,5	8,33	0	4,17	37,5	1,875
15	The cost of air travel	16,67	12,5	12,5	12,5	4,17	4,17	12,5	25	2,6254
16	The cost of rail tickets	12,5	8,33	12,5	8,33	20,83	20,83	4,17	25	3,583
17	The quality of the transportation services	4,17	20,83	20,83	16,67	8,33	8,33	8,33	12,5	3,2494
18	Possibilities for shopping	12,5	8,33	12,5	8,33	20,83	20,83	4,17	25	3,8329
19	Nightlife and Entertainment	16,67	4,17	0	12,5	16,67	4,17	8,33	37,5	2,4169
20	Possibility of communicating in foreign languages	4,17	16,67	12,5	12,5	12,5	4,17	12,5	25	3,3753
21	Diversity of entertainment	0	16,67	12,5	12,5	8,33	4,17	12,5	12,5	2,7501
22	Availability of sports and recreational facilities	0	16,67	12,5	12,5	8,33	4,17	12,5	12,5	2,4151
23	The cultural and event offers	0	0	12,5	20,83	12,5	20,83	12,5	20,83	3,968
24	Thermal and SPA offers	8,33	8,33	4,17	16,67	12,5	8,33	4,17	37,5	2,4585
25	The availability of health care services	8,33	4,17	12,5	8,33	8,33	4,17	4,17	50	1,8335
26	Wellness offerings	8,33	8,33	4,17	12,5	12,5	4,17	4,17	45,83	2,0421
27	Casino and gambling offerings	16,67	4,17	4,17	8,33	8,33	0	8,33	8	2,4577
28	Conference offerings	12,5	4,17	0	12,5	12,5	8,33	12,5	37,5	2,7082
29										

Picture 2 - Evaluation aspects of tourist offers in Kazakhstan on a scale from 1 to 7 (1 = very low; 7 = very high)

Conclusions

The survey showed that customer satisfaction degree domestic tourist services increases sales, revenue growth, providing competitive advantages which leads to growth of the industry. Unfortunately, today we can say that even domestic consumers are not very loyal to the services offered by the tourism industry of Kazakhstan. Main reasons for this fact is the lack of awareness of locals regarding tourism opportunities in the country; Consumer expectations are not always met due to dissatisfaction with the quality and variety of services they receive. This situation calls for urgent actions from all concerned parties (government agencies, private businesses, tourism organizations). It's necessary to develop strategies for building customer loyalty: to organize tourist offers in accordance with the interests and needs of various segments; to form stricter requirements to the services provided and pricing policy; organize active expansion of information support of the country, its history and development, its cultural values, today's opportunities through existing channels: media, internet, social networks, publications.

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INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN POST-COMMUNIST ROMANIA

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Abstract. INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN POST-COMMUNIST ROMANIA Witnessing an abruptly induced shift from a centralized political regime to a democratic system, post-communist economies suffered radical changes suggestively illustrated through institutional and policy transformations. Tourism is a particular economic sector for these reinventing destinations, with an important growth potential, as the political restrictions for circulation were eliminated and new recreational offers, meant for both incoming and domestic tourists, were promoted. Romania displayed in its post-communist period frequent major restructurations of key institutions in charge with tourism development at national level. This was a main aspect which, next to a long and difficult privatization process and a less experienced and stimulating entrepreneurial environment, discouraged major investments in the domain and consequently prevented an important growth of foreign tourist demand for both its traditional destinations (littoral, spa), many of them decaying after 1990, and the new emerging ones (rural, ecotourism areas). In this context tourism development in post-communist Romania was slow and is rather the result of spontaneous punctual private business initiatives answering international leisure consumerism trends than of a coherent, institutionally monitored, planning process.

Key words: institutional change, tourism development, post-communist, Romania

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Introduction

Tourism has been a political bet for the overall development of Romania since the early 1990s. Drawing on the exceptional natural potential, tourism has been considered together with agriculture as the engines of growth for the national economy and one of the best chances for the smooth transformation of the Romanian economy in the post-communist period. Important steps have been made towards the privatization of the former state-owned tourism infrastructure and modernization and the onset of the legislative and institutional framework design. However, according to the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC, 2006), Romania is one of the world least intensive tourism countries, ranking 162 out of 174 countries in terms of contribution to GDP. Data for 2016 show a slight improvement, Romania ranking on the 142 position out of 184 (WTTC, 2017). Furthermore, tourism in Romania is not yet well developed and depends heavily on domestic demand. International tourism flows in the country are still low, and mainly for business purposes (Eurostat, 2008). It is also mentioned the “very low contribution of tourism to the local economy” as well as the discrepancy between the spending propensity of Romanian tourists and the much higher one, specific to foreign business travelers. Romanian travel and tourism industry has a strong dependence of the other EU Member States as a source of incoming tourists.

In fact all these economic figures are to an important extent the consequences of the long phases of transition of the economic system, which occurred in the post communist period in Romania, and of the overall institutional and policy change from a centralized social orientation to a democratic market economy while facing a lot of variations and inconsistency and letting the industry actors at very different scales decide rather randomly for their strategy within the hard competing regional and worldwide tourism destinations pool.

Within this context, the paper aims to assess the institutional changes and their potential impact on the development of tourism in Romania starting from a brief literature review which addresses also the particularities of post-communist tourism destinations in general; underlining the institutional changes and the role of the national authorities for the development of tourism and finally mentioning some of the most important elements of the present national tourism industry landscape, determined to a great extent by the national authorities and their institutional frame.

Literature review

Post-communist destinations are suggestive examples for institutional and policy changes as they eliminated political restrictions for circulation and promoted themselves as available recreational areas in terms of international tourism in an attempt to reintegrate with European cultural heritage and to display a new openness or a break with the past, promoting particular national identities (Hughes and Allen, 2005, p. 175) through a selective image projection (Light, 2000). Among the countries in Central and Eastern Europe, Romania is gifted with the wealthiest and most varied tourist resources, either natural or manmade, which confers it great tourism opportunities (Nedelea, 2008). Nevertheless, tourism can turn into a real economic chance for Romania if significant quantitative and qualitative changes in the specific and general infrastructure are accompanied by changes in the managerial component (Bucur-Sabo, 2006).

Despite the promising tourism resources and certain steps made for the modernization of infrastructure, the absence of coherent and continuous tourism marketing policies and action plans or adequate legislation had rather negative consequences on tourism demand. Not implemented, monitored and evaluated national tourism strategies as well as the lack of consistent preoccupations for image reshaping and branding was a huge gap for Romania as a particular not enough emphasized and valued “neo-liberal” (Webster and Ivanov, 2016) leisure destination. These aspects should be

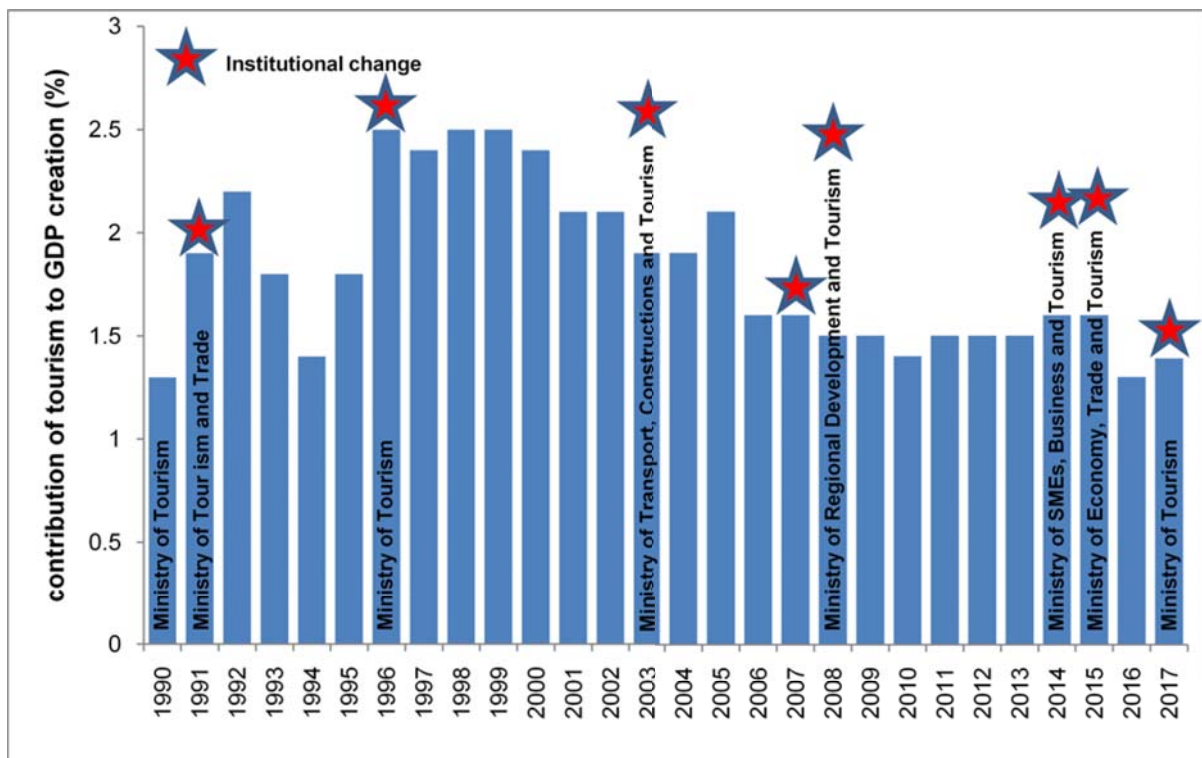
underlined on the background of the new very competitive creative economies and of particularities of tourism sector that remains very subjective as the success or the failure of a destination depends sometimes on psychological and perceptive factors (Iso-Ahola *et al.*, 1982, Dann, 1983, Snepenger *et al.*, 2006, Aschauer, 2010, Šimková and Holzner, 2014).

In this context, the relationship between politics and tourism is a very important one for ex-communist countries, like Romania, that would like to welcome an increasing number of incoming tourists and arises in image-generation potential (Hughes and Allen, 2005), being on its own generated by sector development and rebranding policies.

Institutional change

In contradiction with the hopes that tourism is going to extensively contribute to job and wealth creation, successive governments have impeded the growth of tourism as a primary economic sector. One major cause resides in the frequent institutional changes. Founded in 1990, the government tourism organization was a separate Ministry (Ministry of Tourism), with a Consultative Council of Tourism, later changing to a National Tourism Authority reporting directly to the Government. Since 2002 it has changed a number of times, - ministry, NTA under a ministry, a ministry, NTA under the Ministry of Transport, Construction and Tourism, and later as a department in the Ministry of Trade, SMEs, Tourism and Liberal Professions. The legislation re-established the National Tourism Authority (NTA) as a public institution under the Ministry of Transport, Constructions and Tourism in 2006. Frequent institutional changes have marked recent times when tourism was associated to Regional Development, to SMEs or Economy and Trade as part of different ministries, coming back to an independent statute in 2017 in one the most fragmented governmental formula of post-communist Romania which numbered 24 ministries in 2017 compared to 16 in 2013 (Figure 1).

The provisions of the legislative framework state that the main responsibilities of the NTA are among others to implement national tourism policies and strategies, to promote Romania as a tourist destination, to draft policies and annual marketing and development programs, to organize registration and certification processes as well as to license tour operators and tourist guides or to approve planning and constructions in tourist areas and resorts.



Source of data: Statistical Yearbook, WTTC Report 2017

Figure 1 Tourism's contribution to GDP creation and institutional changes

Prior to the accession of Romania to European Union, an extended assessment of the activity and role of the NTA has been outlined. Experts working at the Master Plan in 2006-2007 pointed to significant shortcomings related to the legislative provisions that regulate the functioning of NTA, mainly on its funding from very limited state funds, entirely used for licensing and classification instead of financing marketing objectives and on its inadequate responsibilities and insufficient

territorial coverage (12 regional offices). At the time of the Master Plan for Tourism design, in 2006-2007, two thirds of the personnel in the NTA had higher qualifications but few were experienced in tourism. The frequent changes in the leadership of the NTA have also contributed to the lack of support for structural strengthening and training for the NTA under the PHARE programs and of input to the planning and allocation of the Structural Funds. Frequent institutional changes determined the lack of continuity and consistency that characterize the work of NTA. Institutional change was accompanied by leadership changes with negative impact on the direction and strategy of the agency. The strategic direction for the overall development of tourism or the design and execution of the marketing and promotional campaigns was insufficiently and unclearly stated.

The negative outcomes of the successive institutional and leadership changes are reflected by the poor coordination of marketing and promotional activities, performed through a poor and unstructured website, a large number of brochures and other printed materials and low effective offices abroad in generating growing tourist flows to Romania along with the poor domestic marketing and promotion not utilized to maximum effect.

Instability of the institutional framework responsible for developing tourism strategies and policies and insufficient tourist information and promotion were mentioned in other instances too, for example by the National Development Plan (NDP) for economic and social development (National Economic Development Strategy) adopted in December 2005, in the Tourism Master Plan itself in 2006 and in World Bank reports but despite critical analyses and recommendations the institutional changes and the main shortcomings have continued to the day.

Tourism development in the context of institutional change and of policy inconsistency

The insufficient, instable and so inefficient institutional capacity is to explain further on the gaps in formulating and implementing a coherent policy for tourism development in Romania and also the low

economic performances of tourism. The contribution of tourism to GDP creation has recorded a relatively stable evolution, with a minimum of 1.3% at the beginning of the 1990s and a maximum of 2.4-2.5% at the end of the same decade. The 2000s are marked by a decline of the share at around 1.4-1.6% despite the increasing number of accommodation units and tourists flows.

In this context of institutional and policy inconstancy tourism industry in Romania had a rather fragmented and punctual development under an unplanned influence of international trends embraced by private business initiatives or spread by local stakeholders involved in the domain.

Tourism displays a growing transfer of knowledge and better practices due to its internationalization and it is subject to transformation like any other domain under the influence of the new era of knowledge and experience economy into which consumers are also co-creators of value and already virtual or e-consumers before reaching the destination. Knowledge transfer is vital for innovation and competitiveness (Weidenfeld *et al.*, 2010, p. 604) among all types of tourism destinations and especially in the case of reinventing societies like the post-communist ones.

In a post-communist context, in which not very coherent national tourism strategies have been so far rather weakly designed and implemented, tourism industries developed rather randomly in Romania and attempted to attract tourists in a high demanding and recently opened very competitive market.

The evolution of autochthonous tourism industry after 1990 shows important changes occurred in the number and types of accommodation units which appeared in the last two decades as leisure infrastructure tried to respond to the new consumer's needs (e.g. bed and breakfast units) and tastes (modern smaller cozy units replaced the huge hotels with a block structure designed during the communist period). At the end of 2016 the existing accommodation capacity registered a figure of 328,888 bed places, a level that registered a recovering from the recent recession period but which obviously decreased compared to the 1990 figure of 353,263 bed places. This happened because of the important restructuration in the types of units.

Massive hotels that could not survive the long privatization process were closed while new boarding houses and modern hotels of smaller capacities and so less important as number of places in the overall capacity on the area were opened. This is to be proven by the fact that despite its almost doubling, the number of hotel units during the post-communist period in Romania registered a very small increase especially within the spa destinations and littoral areas the same areas for which surprisingly the accommodation capacity in terms of number of bed places was reduced (from 47,323 bed places in 1993 to 35,786 bed places in 2016 in the case of spa resorts and from 126,900 bed places to 81,635 bed places between the same years in the littoral resorts). Generally characterized through mass tourism and particularly by huge uniform hotel block accommodation structures with low degrees of comfort (2 – 3 stars) built during communist period and destined to social tourism (including especially retired people and workers who continue to benefit by state supported vouchers even nowadays) the infrastructure of spa and littoral resorts in Romania was slowly privatized and benefited by low investments while missing the specific policy background which led to their continuous degradation and finally to their closure.

The lack of policy strategies and the institutional instability for tourism industries in Romania is also proven by the tourism demand and especially on its repartition by the main destinations. The evolution of the total number of arrivals in Romania shows a long and continuous decline after 1990 until 2003 and another shorter obvious decrease during the 2008 – 2010 economic recession witnessing in the most recent years a continuous increasing trend. The ratio domestic vs. international demand displays a constant important dominance of internal arrivals (over 75%) (Figure 2) and the value of the average length of stay is generally low (around 2.5 days) underlining the importance of business tourism and of itinerant leisure tourism in Romania. Tourist demand for Romania is also marked by an important seasonality rate determined by a dominant domestic demand, pretty inert in terms of tourists' preferences for holiday destinations during the warm season (Dincă and Surugiu, 2016).

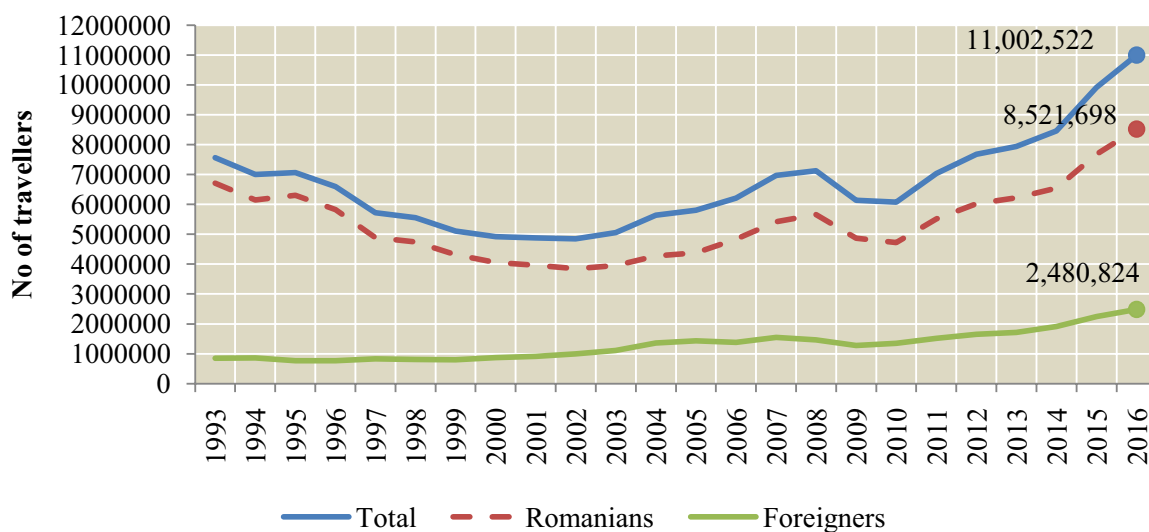


Figure 3 Evolution of the number of arrivals in Romania (1993 – 2016).

The importance of business tourism is also supported by the fact that half of the total number of arrivals at national level is registered for Bucharest and another important percentage of 15% for other tourism settlements, referring mainly to cities, while over three quarters of international arrivals are concentrated in the same destinations (Figure 3).

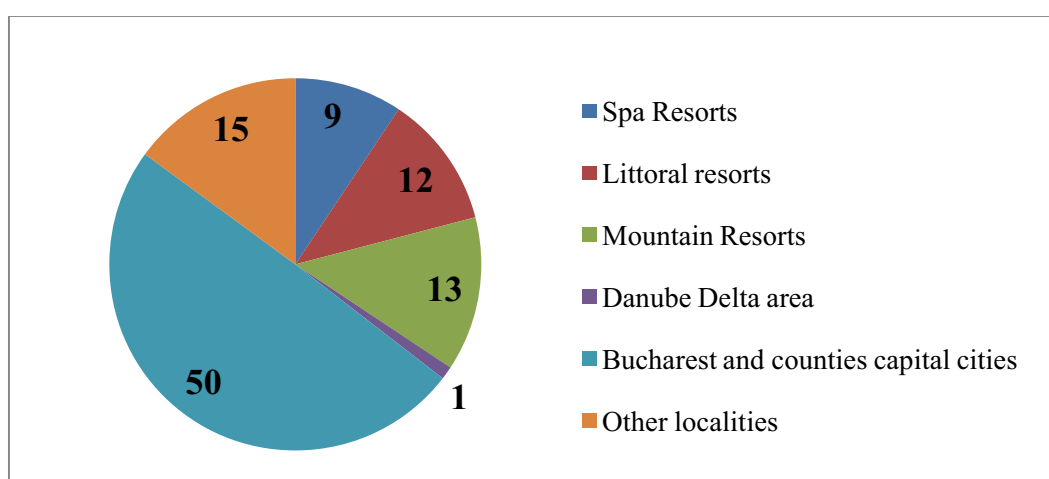


Figure 4 Repartition of arrivals in the main tourism destinations in Romania (2016).

In fact the dominance of both domestic demand and of business tourism is also a clear proof of lacking triggering vital marketing policy factors and adequate strategies to tackle sector challenges over the last few decades in Romania.

Consequently the international tourism demand attractiveness in Romania benefited more from external changes in the global leisure trends, which rejected classical mass tourism destinations and oriented leisure activities towards green and rural areas (developed rather through individual private initiatives than institutional planning) and less from the strategic framework at national level.

Conclusions

After the politic shift occurred in Romania in 1990 and its opening as a tourist destination to the international market, on the frame of sudden and frequent governmental changes, the institutional instability and incoherent policies characterized rather an unplanned development of this sector.

In this context, the transformation of the Romanian tourism market and of its adjacent infrastructure, that tried to answer tourism evolving needs and international leisure consumerism trends, was rather chaotic and the victim of missing investments and marketing strategies.

Romania illustrates so an interesting example where the frequent restructuration of key institutions and the absence of consistent, monitored and further implemented policies for tourism development, led to an obvious decline rather than a desired post-communist revitalization of its tourism industry which flourished through punctual initiatives owed to local authorities and/or private business investors.

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SMART ENVIRONMENT MANAGEMENT IN THE IMAGE OF A BEACH DESTINATION

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Abstract

The current approach in which the natural resources of the planet have been managed has led to an environmental crisis that demands drastic changes in the way humans live, towards a more responsible coexistence with the environment. Natural resources considered as the starting point for the development of the tourist activity and its proper management, allows tourist resort to develop an image as environmentally friendly. This study analyzes the national tourists' image of Acapulco, Mexico, in relation to the management of the Smart Environment and its correspondence with the results obtained in studies carried out by the Instituto Mexicano para la Competitividad. This is a quantitative, exploratory and cross-sectional study. The results show that the pollution levels at the tourist destination are within the parameters considered as dangerous for the entire population.

***Keywords:* Tourist destination, Image, Smart Environment, Marketing**

LITERATURE REVIEW

The vertiginous transition to a highly urbanized population has currently turned out into new challenges for the planning, development and functioning of cities, giving rise to new ways of thinking among the professionals and researchers whose field of action includes the social and environmental sciences, establishing a new theory in which the clear interest in improving the environment and the quality of life of those who inhabit it is conceived (Harrison & Donnelly, 2011).

The exploitation of natural systems exceeding their capacity has now become the main effect associated with an economic development based on the use of finite resources that enhance the environmental attractiveness. Within this context, tourism activity implies the use of resources that as a consequence result affected. Taking into account, at the same time, that any change in the environment may generate a positive or negative impact on human well-being. This indicates that there are limits on the adaptability of ecosystems, reflected in an irreversible reduction of ecological diversity, which is the basis of the attractiveness of a city or tourist destination (Krippendorf, 1987).

The importance of remark and going into detail about the Smart Environment as the sustainable part of tourist destinations (sustainable management of natural resources, animal protection, pollution, etc.) is essentially, because the natural resources with which they count are in the first instance the main attraction on which the development of tourism activity is based (Caragliu, Del Bo & Nijkamp, 2009). Originally, many tourist destinations, especially those in a stage of maturity, did not take into consideration a series of aspects that would allow them to use the natural patrimony safely and renewably,

leading to negative effect on the population's quality of life (Caragliu, Del Bo & Nijkamp, 2009; Cebreiros & Pérez, 2014).

On the other hand, the growth trend and the fragmentation of the demand of the travellers, fact that interests to the industry with regarding to upcoming years, is the modality of the responsible sustainable tourism, to whom the natural resources represent the main tourism attraction when choosing the resort to spend a holiday, giving those resources a responsible use that contributes to minimize the impact to the natural environment (Hosteltur, 2014). Within this context, marketing is leading a new era that recognizes more and more that consumers seek to meet their needs while keeping in view their concern to contribute in the transformation of a better world in sustainable terms (Bonacic & Hernán, 2011).

Based on the importance and relevance of sustainable development, which means the worldwide trend for tourism activities associated with nature as a new market need, tourist destinations should be aware and concerned about the management of a Smart Environment, which satisfies the recreational experience of its visitors' travel, at the same time tourism resources are managed under conditions of sustainability, considering the economic benefit, social equity and balance with the natural environment, ensuring their survival and a better position in the market (Calzati & Giudici, 2011).

It is worth mentioning that tourist destinations compete mainly on the basis of their perceived image, in relation to the destinations that compete with (Baloglu & Mangaloglu, 2001). Therefore, the image of a destination influences the behaviour of the tourist, to the extent that destinations that project a stronger

and positive image have a greater possibility of being considered and chosen by the consumer (Bigné & Sánchez, 2001).

At present, there are many resorts that compete to attract a greater flow of tourists, improving the promotion and commercialization through the image they project in an attempt to make them more attractive. In this context, tourist destinations in any of their modalities (sun and beach, rural, cultural, among others) should project an image as innovative, interactive and environmentally responsible destinations and this way captivate and motivate the choice of destination for vacations. Consequently, trends based on the sustainable use of resources should be followed, which represents the ideal strategy that will allow tourist destinations to establish a clear and positive image, as well as to achieve and maintain the positioning in the minds of the consumers and the tourism market (Anholt, 2007).

It should be borne in mind that images of tourist destinations are part of a symbolic, changing universe that can be affected by economic, political and social factors (Bigné, Andreu, Sánchez & Alvarado, 2008). That is, tourists perceive images that can weaken or enhance the tourist destination.

Acapulco is a consolidated sun and beach tourist destination, which presents the main features in the maturity stage of a tourism resort; The eventual fall of the attractiveness of the destination for its habitual tourists (mainly from abroad), due to the deterioration of the environment, excess of supply from the hotel companies, especially linked with a certain degree of obsolescence and reconversion of it (hotels and apartments fundamentally), The quality of destination services and technological maturity characterized by the absence of radical innovations in the companies (Camisón & Monfort, 1998). The

influx of tourists is concentrated mainly on weekends and holiday periods; the resort depends on tourism as the main and most important economic activity, however, according to the country's poverty indexes, the township occupies the sixth position of those that concentrate more people in extreme poverty, besides having more than 50% of the population living in poverty, without access to health, education and food services (CONEVAL, 2010).

On the other hand, in studies carried out by the Instituto Mexicano para la Competitividad, A.C. (IMCO), in 2016 the urban area of Acapulco was located in the 68th place of the seventy-four cities considered in the competitiveness index of the most important urban areas of the country, nevertheless, in regard to the management of the sustainable environment, it occupies the last site of the 74 and the indicators that are analysed are the following:

- Overexploitation of aquifers
- Water consumption
- Water treatment capacity in operation
- Air quality manage
- Adequate disposal of solid waste
- Use of landfill biogas
- Companies certified as clean
- Natural disasters
- Energy-intensive economy

- Environmental emergencies

Among some other things, the Instituto Mexicano de Competitividad has an online application that offers information about air quality regarding Acapulco:

- It is assumed that the concentration of particles of 10 micron (PM10) is equal to the average of the observations in the cities of 500 thousand to 1 million inhabitants.
- The calculation of particles of 10 micron per m³ is 53.03 (the World Health Organization recommends a maximum of 20).
- Among the consequences for the inhabitants with these concentrations of particulates, it is estimated that: it causes the death of 72 people; 96 hospitalizations; 11,996 medical consultations related to air pollution, per year, generating economic losses due to lack of productivity and health expenditures for more than \$ 56.5 MDP, which represents 3.7 times what the Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social spent in the state of Guerrero.
- The tourist destination does not have a program to improve air quality, and there are no records that one will be developed in the short term (IMCO, 2016).

Hence, Acapulco needs to be promoted through the implementation of management measures and environmental protection, without losing sight of federal, state and municipal regulations, which are fundamental to the achievement of these. The development of environmental protection plans must be taken into account, which serve as reference tools to detect weaknesses and opportunities in the environmental field to correct the weaknesses generated by the above mentioned factors, in an attempt

to order, recover and clean the current situation, reducing or neutralizing the deterioration hitherto caused. All in all, with the aim of creating greener, cleaner and more efficient environments (Cebrián, Ingelmo, Martínez, Pastor, Plascencia, Serna & Valero, 2012), allowing the destination to project an image as a vanguard destination, environmentally responsible, with the objective of expanding the possibility of maintaining its position in the national tourism market and allowing the international to be recovered (Hernández, 2012).

METHODOLOGY

The study is an exploratory one since the subject has been little studied, despite being considered as novel, there are few works on the matter and these, mostly do not show an empirical work. It is quantitative and descriptive as it is intended to make an accurate measurement of the image of a destination with respect to the environmental factor (Smart Environment) in the opinion of the national tourist that visits the destination, the data obtained in the study were collected in a single moment, (Hernández, Fernández & Baptista, 2010, Miquel, Bigné, Levy, Cuenca & Miquel, 1997). Four academic experts and professionals from the tourism sector were consulted. A pre-test of the instrument was applied on 30 tourists to verify that the instrument was completely clear and fully verbalized as they suggest (Dolnicar & Grün, 2013; Kinnear & Taylor, 1998; Miquel et al., 1997) to validate content to the instrument.

Considering the suggestions of specialists in methodology, regarding to the size of the sample for infinite populations; more than 400 national tourists were studied, who were visiting Acapulco, in the different

points of greatest concentration; of legal age, with at least three days at the destination and to ensure that the data were more reliable, a single member of the group or family was chosen. Resulting 421 valid questionnaires. The empirical work was carried out in the summer of 2015 for being a long holiday period with a greater influx of tourists into the destination.

The scale used to evaluate the Smart Environment variable is a five-way Likert type in which the national tourist indicates the degree of agreement or disagreement with the six items that make it up, where 1 = Totally disagree, 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither agree nor disagree; 4 = Agree and 5 = Totally agree. In the final part of the questionnaire questions were asked regarding the socio-demographic profile such as: age, gender, level of education, occupation, place of residence, means of transportation, type of accommodation used, days of stay, previous visits and area where stayed.

Interpretation of data

In order to measure the validity of the Smart Environment scale, Cronbach's alpha analysis was performed; The KMO index and Bartlett's sphericity test. Factor analysis was used, which allows the definitive purification of the scales, analyzing if some of the items fail to meet any of the confidence criteria; The items and their factorial loads must be above 0.40, the communalities of each item must be greater than 0.30 and Cronbach's alpha must be greater than 0.60. This results in a Cronbach alpha of the Smart Environment dimension with a value of 0.74, higher than the recommended minimum. The result of the KMO index resulted from 0.715, which is also considered good since it shows a positive trend

close to 1. The Bartlett's sphericity test in its degree of significance was less than 0.05, with a value of 0.000. Therefore, the full validity of the scale, and the relevance to working with it, is demonstrated.

It was through the exploratory factor analysis by the extraction of main axes; that the values that did not strengthen the measurement scale were identified, in this case the items SE4, SE5 and SE6 (Table 1) had to be eliminated, allowing the relationship between the attributes of the scale to be remarkable. It can be categorically stated that the instrument has the minimum conditions to obtain adequate and accurate estimates (Hogarty et al., 2005).

Table 1. Exploratory factor analysis of the scale.

Code	Item	Factor		Communalities
		1	2	
SE1	Environment Protection is adequate and sufficient in Acapulco.	0.7		0.56
SE2	Sustainable management of natural resources in Acapulco, is adequate and sufficient.	0.62		0.48
SE3	Pollution is low in Acapulco.	0.49		0.33
*SE4	In Acapulco clean energies which do not generate residues are used.	0.45		0.26
*SE5	In Acapulco there are “Green Businesses” that respect the environment.	0.4		0.28
*SE6	In Acapulco everything that has not been modified from its natural state is attractive.		0.2	0.08

Source: self-made

* Deleted Items

After applying the confirmatory factor analysis, the factor loadings and the commonalities of the Smart Environment dimension, present adequate values to work with them. (Table 2).

Table 2. Confirmatory factorial analysis of the scale.

Code	Item	Factor		Commonalities
		1	2	
IB6	Environment Protection is adequate and sufficient in Acapulco.	0.86		0.79
IB7	Sustainable management of natural resources in Acapulco, is adequate and sufficient.	0.68		0.54
IB5	Pollution is low in Acapulco.	0.52		0.31

Source: self-made

In the descriptive analysis of the sociodemographic data of the profile of the tourists surveyed, the results are described through frequencies and percentages: with regard to gender, 55% are men and 45% are women. In terms of age, 18 to 29 and 30 to 40 years of age are significantly higher with 25% each, followed by 24% from 41 to 50 years, data indicating that the demand is composed by a segment of young adults. Regarding the level of studies, the ones that have undergraduate studies are those that present the highest percentage (38%), followed by 29% by those with a high school diploma and 20% with secondary school education. This indicates that the population surveyed has a good educational level. They are employed 39%, the item with the highest frequency, followed by professionals with 22% and those who are dedicated to the home with 15%. The place of origin of the tourists showed that 76% came from the metropolitan area (Mexico City and the State of Mexico), data confirming that it is the

main segment of the demand of the national tourist market of this beach resort. It was also found that they have visited the destination 2 to 5 times (62%), 21% have been 10 times and 11% between 6 to 9 times, which ensures that national tourists visit the destination repeatedly, with an average of six previous visits.

For the descriptive analysis of this scale, it was considered to interpret the weighted median with the following categories: from 0 to 25% as the perception is low, from 26 to 50% as regular, from 51 to 75% as sufficient and from 76 to 100% as appropriate.

The results obtained were that the item "Environment Protection is adequate and sufficient in Acapulco." had a weighted average of 0.61 (highest value obtained), so it can be said that the perception by tourists is sufficient, in the sense that environmental protection is not negative, but does not reach an adequate level.

For the item " Sustainable management of natural resources in Acapulco, is adequate and sufficient.", a weighted value of 0.59 was obtained, which is also considered as a sufficient valuation, that is, tourists perceive that the sustainable management of the resort is in a situation in which efforts are made, but are not yet the most convenient.

And in the case of the item "Pollution is low in Acapulco ", the value of the weighted median resulted of 0.43, reason why it shows a valuation considered like regular, that is to say, that the tourists perceive that in Acapulco there is a moderate contamination.

Regarding the degree of disagreement or agreement with the items presented in the instrument, each one of them was evaluated through weighted median values, resulting the own value of the scale to measure the Smart Environment variable of the perceived image of Acapulco with a 1.90, which shows a tendency to a degree of agreement on each one of the items that make up this scale.

The results obtained in the empirical work, which analyses the perception of the tourist on the image of the Smart Environment of Acapulco and its correspondence with the results of IMCO (2016), in the evaluation of the main urban areas of the country, placing Acapulco in a low place in the ranking of competitiveness and sustainable management of the environment, in the last position of the cities analysed, it can be considered that under these criteria, Acapulco presents an insufficient environmental management.

The result of the study regarding the perception of pollution in Acapulco perceived by tourists and their correspondence with those obtained by IMCO (2016), regarding air quality, are aligned in the sense that the pollution in Acapulco is moderate.

CONCLUSIONS

In the image of a tourist destination coexists several types of values that condition the decision of the tourist consumer's travel, among them, the perception of a good management in the conservation of the natural resources with which the tourist destination counts. This good management allows the destination

to be at the forefront of the new needs of an increasingly growing segment made up of more informed and worried tourists about the environmental situation that is lived in the world.

Acapulco, is a sun and beach tourism resort that presents features of a tourism product in the stage of maturity, with characteristics such as the inadequate use of its natural resources and a high percentage of the hotel supply with a certain degree of obsolescence, which has given origin for several decades, to the collapse in the influx of foreign tourists, turning it into a destination of national tourism. Hence the results obtained in the survey of tourists, it leaves much to be desired, in terms of its image as a sustainable destination.

The perception of the tourists about the environmental component (Smart Environment) of the destination Acapulco, agrees with the studies carried out by the Instituto Mexicano de Competitividad, in the sense of the inability that the destiny has had to properly manage its natural resources, which are a fundamental part of their environmental capital, since it is not perceive an adequate level in their conservation.

The results obtained in the IMCO study show that pollution is not low in the destination, it is rather within the parameter considered dangerous and close to being harmful to its visitors and the local population, which shows the place that occupies, in competitiveness and sustainable management of the environment, at the national level.

Limitations of the present study, in spite of following the methodological guidelines of the scientific investigation, do not cease to exist, in part they are derived from the reduced number of empirical works,

thereupon its exploratory character. From then on, this research line of investigation is to continue in subsequent works and also reduce the knowledge gap about the topics related to the Smart Environment in tourist destinations, taking into account other environmental factors, the design of a broader instrument, considering the local population, the public and private sectors, allowing to compare their vision with that of the tourists who visit this destination and a statistical analysis in greater depth.

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A Theoretical Study on Sports Tourism which is one of Alternative Tourism Activities

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ABSTRACT

Sport has been in development and change from the first ages until today. Sports activities are very important organizational strength. Summer-winter Olympics, European-World championships and other international sporting organizations have significant impacts on the tourism sector. As international sports organizations and the number of athletes participating in these organizations increase day by day, the trips that professional athletes perform for their activities such as training and education bring a big market and travel industry with a great deal of opportunity. Particularly those countries that have contributed to the introduction of their country and realized the economic benefits of hosting large-scale sports organizations have entered into a serious competition to host these organizations. The combination of holiday and sport offers not only an opportunity to get to

know new places and cultures but also to make the body dynamic again, to break the routine, to experience new emotions and to try new activities. It is seen that the concepts of tourism and sport intersect in many ways. At this point the concept of sports tourism emerges. Sports tourism has different and unique characteristics than other tourism types. The development and implementation of the concept of sport tourism will increase the level of social welfare with the sportive organizations that provide the social context, positive change resulting from cultural changes and human pleasure at its core. The cultural integration of different nations, the fact that the countries where the organization is organized appeals to more people by increasing the number of establishments and the fact that politically speaking the country is stronger in many areas reveals the importance of sports tourism. Sporting activities can be an excellent tool for publicity on the one hand because of its popular properties, but on the other hand it can be a part of direct tourism by leading to mass travel movements. Developed and developing countries place great importance on sport tourism in recent years and see sports tourism as a means of regional development.

The purpose of this study is to put into a theoretical framework about the development of sports tourism and the interaction between sport and tourism

Keywords: Sports, Tourism, Sports Tourism

Service Charges and Tipping: A Case Study of the Chinese Hospitality Industry

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Abstract

The American hospitality industry is looking at service charges instead of gratuities. This case study looked at the tipping and service charges in the hospitality industry in China. Even though there is a ten percent service charge added to most luxury hotel and restaurant bills in China, some guests still leave an additional tip. Service charges seem to be accepted in China and foreigners are leaving less voluntary tips.

Key Words *Service Charge, Tipping, Gratuity, Hotels, Restaurants, China.*

Introduction

With the influx of foreign travelers, tipping and service charges in the Chinese hospitality industry have changed. According to tourism information websites: Tipping is acceptable in China, though it is not mandatory in tradition. But with the foreign visitors' influence in China came the practice of tipping (Shrestha, 2010).

Shanghai, Beijing, Hong Kong and Macau are some of the most important hotel markets in China. Foreign travelers and expatriates have contributed immensely to the development of the Chinese hospitality industry. This extends from serviced apartments to five-star hotels and restaurants serving great food and beverages. Although there is a ten percent service charge added to most luxury hotel and restaurant bills, some people still leave an additional tip.

Service standards in Asia are often considered superior since a higher staff/customer ratio makes this possible. However, service-oriented jobs are not highly regarded in Chinese society. Having to serve someone is to be reduced to servitude, which may ultimately lead to a person 'losing face' –

pride or respect from society (Tse, 1996). Service in Chinese is '*fu wu*', the character, '*fu*' means submission. In addition, the persons paying the bill may '*lose face*' from their fellow guests, if no tip is left.

In many parts of the world, especially the United States of America, gratuities have become an expected part of a service employee's income (Star, 1988). Tipping is an important global trend, involving about \$47 billion a year in the USA food service industry alone (Azar, 2011). Customers in United States restaurants in general do tip. Worldwide studies on tipping have identified many variables that affect tip size. Bill size seems to be the prominent variable affecting the tip amount left by the customer; according to numerous North American studies, not the quality of the service or food, but the amount of the checks dictates the amount tipped (Lynn, 2001). According to Lynn (2003), "a recent review of research on tipping found that check size was twice as powerful as all other factors combined in determining the size of tips left by different dining parties" (p. 145). As a consequence, the better salesperson will make more money, which equates the gratuity to a commission for restaurants servers in the United States of America.

Literature Review

The history of tipping is as clouded in mystery as the tacit rules that currently govern it. Some evidence suggests that tipping had its roots in the Roman Empire (Templeton, 1996). An often repeated story is that tipping became common in the coffeehouses, also known as "penny universities," of 16th century England (May, 1980). Another explanation is that horse-bound feudal lords threw "tips" of gold to the unsavory peasants in the streets as payment for safe passage. English etymology would

support this theory in its suggestion that the word was originally medieval street talk for “hand it over” (Templeton, 1996).

Although the English term "to tip" is believed to stand for "To Insure Promptness," the French “*pourboire*” and the German “*trinkgeld*” mean money given "for a drink." The idea is the same behind the Russian “*chayeviyе*”, literally "for tea" (Danilova, 2003). Hospitality patrons around the world must decide daily how much to tip their server to provide him or her with a drink.

According to Segrave (1998), “Industrial capitalism brought with it an increase in commercial eating and drinking establishments, hotels, and mass transportation, wherein those who received tips – maids, valets, waiters and so forth, were found in large numbers” (p. 5). Although tipping made vast inroads, it has not always been universally approved and has sometimes been met with hostility. One historical example occurred in the United States of America. From 1905 to 1919, a group of more than 100,000 salesmen travelling the US organized the Anti-Tipping Society of America and managed to have tipping abolished in seven states (in Fullen, 2005). This proved short-lived, as these anti-tipping laws were later found to be unconstitutional in 1919.

Research findings show that gratuities can be influenced by service quality, food quality, and likelihood of return (Azar, 2005; 2007; Bodvarsson & Gibson, 1999; Liu, 2008; Lynn, 2003; Mok & Hansen, 1999; Parrett, 2006). In theory, customers reward good service with money: the perceived quality of service received by the guest should be a reasonable prediction of the decision to tip and the amount. According to Azar (2004), “the main justification for tipping is that it promotes better service by giving the workers an incentive to do their best to satisfy the customer’s needs” (p. 761). Therefore, tipping serves as an instrument for restaurant guests to reward service quality. Bodvarsson, Luksetich, and McDermott (2003) found that “service quality significantly affects tip size and when servers expect higher tips, customers rank service higher” (p. 1659). Restaurant guests leave a gratuity based on their

impression of the level of service quality. However, because it is an intangible concept, customers have different interpretations of service quality.

Past research shows that many controllable and uncontrollable attributes affect the tip size in restaurants. In the controllable category, some factors seem to be related to service quality, such as servers introducing themselves to guests by name, smiling at guests, and repeating the food order (Lynn, 1996).

Although the contribution of the following encounters to service quality is questionable, they still resulted in increased tips. Casually touching guests not only resulted in better tips but also increased the customer's overall impression of the restaurant. The cultural aspect of touching is important here; the physical act of touch would offend Chinese customers. Squatting at the table by servers resulted in larger tips. Credit-card insignia on tip trays increased tips even when paying cash and writing "Thank You" on checks also resulted in larger tips (in Lynn, 1996).

Some actions are gender-specific. Waitress' tips increased by drawing a happy face on checks but did the opposite for waiters; flowers in a waitress' hair increased her tips, and good-looking waiters made more tips (in Lynn, 1996).

Studies relating tipping to cultural values using Hofstede's (1983) Dimensions of Cultural Divergence (Lynn, 1997) found that tipping is more common in countries with higher Power Distance, lower Uncertainty Avoidance, lower Individualism, and higher Masculinity.

What servers think of the customers' tipping behavior has been studied as well (Gatta, 2009; Lin & Namasivayam, 2011; Liu, 2008; McCall & Lynn, 2009). According to a study based on 1,189 surveys completed by United States restaurant servers, foreign customers were deemed to tip the least after teenagers, whereas whites were the biggest tippers (McCall & Lynn, 2009). Similarly, Asians,

Hispanics and African Americans were considered poor tippers, according to American restaurant servers and the food and beverage industry (Lynn, 2004; Lynn & Thomas-Haysbert, 2003).

Predictors of restaurant tip size in Hong Kong include the friendliness of the server (Dewald, 2003), and Liu (2008) and Chung and Heung (2007) emphasized the food quality as a significant predictors of the tip size in upscale Chinese Restaurants in Hong Kong.

According to Rose (2013), tipping is viewed as an insult by older Chinese workers but is accepted by youngsters, who have been influenced by social media. Many luxury hotel chains in Hong Kong and China add a ten percent service charge to the total hotel bill.

Researchers have found that restaurant patrons truly believe they use service received as a tipping guideline. However, Lynn's (2001, 2003) research found little correlation between tip size and service quality. A meta-analysis study showed that tip amounts increased with quality of service; "however, the correlation between tips and evaluations of the service or dining experience has a mean of only .11" (Lynn, 2001, p. 18). Additionally, "consumers will leave 5 percent (or less) and tips of 20 percent or more at any level of service" according to Lynn (2001, p. 18).

Consumers' decisions about whom and how to tip are largely determined by custom. However, service industry executives and managers need not passively accept the dictates of custom. They can encourage tipping by allowing employees to accept tips, placing tip jars in visible locations, and posting messages like "Gratuities appreciated" on menus, table tents, checks and/or public signs. Conversely, they can discourage tipping by prohibiting employees from accepting tips, adding automatic service charges to bills, and posting messages like "Tipping not necessary" on menus, table tents, checks and/or public signs. In fact, many cruise lines (Engle, 2004), resorts (Evans and Dinesh, 1999), and private clubs (Club Managers Association of America, 1996), as well as some hotels (Richards and Rosato, 1995) and restaurants (Ortega, 1998) have used these or similar practices to

actively manage the tipping behavior at their establishments. In 2004, for example, chef/owner Thomas Keller replaced tipping with an automatic 20 percent service charge at Per Se – a highly regarded French restaurant in New York City (Shaw, 2005). The year before that, Holland America Line abandoned its decades old tipping policy in favor of daily service charges (Engle, 2004). Danny Meyer, the man whose name is synonymous with the Union Square Hospitality Group, is eliminating all tipping at his restaurants and significantly raising prices to make up the difference, a move that will raise wages, save the hospitality industry, and forever change how diners dine (NY Eater, 2015).

Method

Because this is a case study of attitudes and practices of key people involved in the hospitality industry in China, this study employed qualitative research methods. We analyzed 34 informal conversations with hotel and restaurant managers, supervisors and staff in Shanghai, Beijing, Hong Kong and Macau regarding the tipping behavior of both local and foreign guests. The information presented here is based on those interviews, a literature review, and personal experience of the Chinese hotel and restaurant sector.

Findings

Nowadays, luxury hotels in China charge an additional ten percent service charge to the whole hotel bill' changed from the previous 10-15 percent in May, 2016. The ten percent service charge is now included in the price and a six percent tax has been added in Mainland China.

These service charges “belong” to the hotel; hence they are not shared with the hotel staff. We heard of only one five-star hotel chain that gave back one (1) percent of the service charge to its staff. However, hospitality staff in China are paid a monthly salary, compared to an hourly rate in America.

On the other hand, some hotel guests leave extra tips in addition to the service charge. Hotel staff do not “expect” nor “solicit” tips, yet it does happen. These tipping guests are mainly tourists, as most locals tend not to leave additional gratuities. These additional food and beverage tips are split according to position and ranking (following a point system), but hotel management does not get involved in this.

According to a former event coordinator from a five-star American hotel chain, 2005-06 were the good old tipping days. The positions that most likely would have tips were the concierge, bellman and the room-service servers; one of her friends who served as a bellman would be able to make more than RMB 10,000 (\$1,500) tips per month at that time (sometimes guests tipped him RMB 100 (\$15) for carrying luggage) while their salary was a little bit more than RMB 2,000 (\$300). Making the take home tips five times their base salary.

Concierge staff pooled their tips, but would often hide their tips in order not to share them with their colleagues. Most uniforms had no pockets, so hiding places were used, but money sometimes vanished.

According to our findings most of the tippers were foreign guests; even though there was a 15 percent service charge added to the hotel bill, these foreign guests still tipped as they might assume the 15 percent was some sort of tax. These foreign hotel guests were used to tipping servers in hotels and restaurants and continued while traveling.

As the event coordinator in a hotel, our interviewee received tips as well from event organizers and other clients using their meeting rooms and other venues; what she usually received were gifts/souvenirs rather than cash tips, though there were cash tips here and there. Average amount of tip or value of the gift or souvenirs was about RMB 500 (\$75) each time.

Hotel staff got used to the additional income and started to expect tips. Hotel staff focused their efforts on certain types of guests in order to maximize their tipping opportunity and amounts. They

started to judge by appearance as they preferred guests, from Europe, America, and particularly from the Middle East, countries like Saudi Arabia.

During 2007-2009, especially in 2009, there were fewer tip opportunities for servers the RMB 10,000 (\$1,500) tips per month had gone forever.

The former hotel supervisors believe more guests, particularly the foreigners, realized that the 15% service charge was instead of tipping; and they saw that other guests were not tipping. Furthermore, the hotel service level was dropping year by year due to the continuous increase of labor costs of hotel staff, and guests do not tip employees who do not know how to provide good service. Nowadays, most servers are from less developed areas in China, with little or even no hospitality education or training, this is either because they are paid less, or because some experienced local staff members were laid off due to their higher salaries.

One of the supervisors from a full service dining restaurant chain told us that one or two out of every ten local restaurant patrons would tip servers RMB 50 – 200 (\$8-30) in cash. Salary for an average server at this restaurant is RMB 2,500-2,800 (\$380-430) per month and servers would be able to get approximately RMB 500-1,000 (\$75-150) additional tips per month. At a Japanese restaurant in an expensive neighborhood, a senior server shared that best tippers were American and European diners, followed by Hong Kong and Taiwanese diners; mainland Chinese were the least likely to tip. Servers did not expect tips and their monthly salary is about RMB 3,000-4,000 (\$460-610).

One out of ten tables would tip RMB 50 (\$8) in cash in Casual dining restaurants according to the servers and supervisors we talked to.

Fast food had not tips and only the American coffee chain had an empty tipping jar. The infamous sticker "*Tipping is not a city in China*" was not seen in person.

Implications

This study looked at how automatic service charges changed the voluntary tipping and service levels of hotels and restaurants in China.

Even though the service charges in China's hotels are going directly to the bottom line and are not shared with the hotel staff, service levels have decreased over the years according to many of the hotel and restaurant managers, supervisors and staff.

However, China pays its hospitality staff monthly salaries compared to hourly rates in America, where hospitality staff do not know the number of hours they might work each week. Resulting in many hourly employees in America having to work several jobs to make end meets.

The ability to actively manage customers' tipping behavior raises questions about how tipping policy decisions should be made. What are the business functions of tipping? When should tipping be allowed and when not? If tipping is abandoned, should it be replaced with service charges or with all-inclusive prices? Unfortunately, executives and managers in the service industry have few places to go for the answers to these questions.

Some renowned fine dining restaurants in the United States of America are moving towards service charges, called "hospitality charges" by Danny Meyers, owner of several high-end restaurants in New York City, instead of voluntary tipping. Danny Meyers will be gradually introducing "hospitality charges", included within the menu prices in his high end restaurants. Thomas Keller replaced tipping with an automatic twenty percent service charge and discourages additional tipping at Per Se – a highly regarded French restaurant in New York City. The collected service charges in American restaurants; are to be divided amongst its entire staff.

Future research will show if the non-incentive of tips will lower the hospitality service levels.

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**UNDERSTANDING STREET FOOD CONSUMPTION: A THEORETICAL MODEL
INCLUDING ATMOSPHERE AND HEDONISM**

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UNDERSTANDING STREET FOOD CONSUMPTION: A THEORETICAL MODEL INCLUDING ATMOSPHERE AND HEDONISM

Abstract

This paper aims to discuss the worldwide growing phenomenon of street food with a specific reference to its consumption. Both city dwellers and visitors of certain destinations prefer street foods very often rather than restaurant food, and that attracts the scholars' attention from various fields of research such as food science, public management, nutrition and hospitality. The issues of food safety and governance of street foods are widely examined in academic studies while leaving consumer motivations for and behaviours of consuming those foodstuffs mostly overlooked. Therefore, in an attempt to explain street food consumption, this paper first reviews the relevant studies on street foods, eating out, atmosphere of eating environments and hedonic eating. Second, relying on a synthesis of those literatures, the current study proposes a theoretical model of street food consumption and develops four propositions for further empirical verification by future research. Briefly, it is suggested that atmosphere and hedonism may affect street food consumption. Finally, some theoretical and practical implications are provided in the conclusions section.

Keywords: Street Food; Consumers; Meal Experience; Atmosphere; Hedonism

INTRODUCTION

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO, 2009) defines street food as "ready-to-eat foods and beverages that are prepared and/or sold by itinerant or stationary vendors, especially on streets and in other public places." Street food constitutes a major economy and a key nutritional source for millions of people globally but it brings the concerns of food safety and informal economy in its wake. Thus the definition could read like a simple description but it refers to a complex phenomenon of today's cities and food consumption patterns of their residents.

Historically, street food is acknowledged as a phenomenon of developing countries to provide fast, convenient, and cheap food for low and middle income consumers (Tinker, 1999). Yet street food is currently prevalent in the developed countries too (Bhimji, 2010; Newman & Burnett, 2013), and it is not only considered as an option for poor but as a source for an authentic gastronomic experience for tourists (Torres-Chavarria & Phakdee-auksorn, 2017). Thus street food is beyond being cheap food but it condenses a broader sociological, philosophical, and economical scope. First, street food vending is a survival strategy for disadvantaged groups of large cities. It generates a means of living for women (Tinker, 1999), rural-urban migrants (Etzold, 2016), and transnational immigrants of modern cities (Bhimji, 2010). Second, a great variety of food is sold on the streets. Street food is mostly produced by using local foods and cooked with traditional techniques and also reflects the ethnic diversity of city residents and their cuisines (Calloni, 2013). Third, the creation of a vibrant urban space by street food vendors enables socialization for city residents and also attracts tourists to the districts of food sale (Newman & Burnett, 2013).

However, streets are characterised as insanitary food vending locations. Together with the difficulties of licensing and controlling of vendors, food safety becomes a major issue for local governments. Thus food vendors' practices of food production and service as well as their level of information and education about food safety are of great importance to majority of prior research on street food. Problems found in personal hygiene (Aluko et al., 2014; da Silva et al., 2014), in management of leftover food (Choudhury, et al., 2011), and in the preservation of raw or cooked food (Aluko et al., 2014) indicate that food vendors' practices are far from being hygienic in various

locations such as Africa, Asia, and South America. Microbiological studies employing lab tests of food samples, food preparation surfaces, and utensils also reported unsatisfactory level of bacterial counts (Mamun et al., 2013; Manguiat & Fang, 2013) and toxicological hazards (Proietti et al., 2014), all those support the idea that street food is unsafe. To overcome this problem, the initiatives and publications providing education for street vendors are on the agenda for years. Especially, FAO and World Health Organization (WHO) publish guidelines and develop tools for training with the intention of improving street food safety (e.g. FAO, 2009; WHO, 1996, 2010, 2015).

Despite the concerns of food safety, street foods stand for sufficient nutritional sources which are consumed by billions of people worldwide everyday, both in developing and developed countries. This makes the question of “*why people consume street foods?*” a current issue. Literature on street food constitutes numerous studies on vendors but only a few studies examined the consumers’ attitudes, motivations, intentions or behaviours. Although it is acceptable that street food consumption is a form of meal experience, the literature on eating out is developed in restaurants mostly, and it seems that street food has been neglected from a consumers’ perspective. Nevertheless, there is a possibility to adapt the extensive accumulated knowledge in restaurants to consumers’ street food consumption patterns. To do that, there is a strong need for theoretical model development and further empirical studies. For the first step of model development, an analysis of demand side relying on the concepts and theories developed in restaurant settings might be helpful. On these premises, this paper postulates that street foods are appealing with its features beyond being convenient and cheap, and attempts to propose a theoretical model to discuss the effects of atmosphere on hedonic consumption of street foods.

STREET FOOD CONSUMPTION

Consumer studies in the field of street foods concentrated on the reasons of consumption, the profile of consumers, the frequency of patronage, the types of foods bought, and the risk perception. In a study examining street foods consumption in Ghana, Hiamey et al. (2013) found that people buy street food because of its convenience, sensory appeal such as better taste and good smell, nutrition quality, cost saving, and social benefits attained such as being fashionable and trendy. They reported that all socio-economic groups consume street food on an average of six times in a week. In another study (Vieira-Cardoso et al., 2014) with 1004 respondents from Brazil, authors found that 1/3 of consumers buy street food at least once a day. In one of the studies discussing nutritional value of street food, Steyn and Labadarios (2011) found that fruits are the most frequently bought on streets and authors concluded with stressing the nutritional contribution of street food to the daily diet. Considering the wide range of foods served on the street, there are also studies that question whether those foodstuffs elevate body mass index (Buscemi et al., 2011) or lead to high intake of carbohydrates (Hiamey et al., 2013), but results indicate no difference between conventional restaurants goers’ and street food consumers’ values regarding disease prevalence and medication use (Buscemi et al., 2011).

The topic of food safety dominates the field of street food research. In this context, most of the research studies examined producers’ and/or vendors’ practices, but fewer of them concentrated on how consumers of street foods are aware of potential threats to food safety. By a review of existing literature, Alimi and Workneh (2016) reported that generally consumers do not know about health risks associated with street food but there are also some studies indicating a high level of consumer awareness about possible failures of safety. Interestingly, people can continue to consume street food even though they do not have confidence in its quality and they believe that food could have been contaminated (Vieira-Cardoso et al., 2014). However, it is not plausible to make a reasoning that although there are risks of safety, people still consume street food very frequently because it is

a cost-saving alternative to conventional food. This view received an empirical support from a study attempting to describe international tourists' attitudes towards street food. In that study, Torres-Chavarria and Phakdee-auksorn (2017) found that affection is the most important predictor of tourist's behavioural intentions to consume foodstuffs prepared and served on the streets. Authors identified six dimensions (hygiene, affection, food quality, service quality, satisfaction, and value) that potentially influence tourists' street food patronage. Importantly, findings revealed that hygiene has the lowest value and is not a significant predictor of tourists' attitudes towards street food (Torres-Chavarria & Phakdee-auksorn, 2017). Moreover, participants of another study by Isaacs (2014) describe street food to be "dirty but tasty" which connotes the importance of taste over health risks.

Nevertheless, it is important to keep in mind that customers cannot truly know whether the food is prepared by conforming to food safety rules. They could only observe the visible clues of the food, the vendor, and the food stand. Thus appearance of vending site becomes crucial. In a study conducted in Ghana with both customers and vendors, Rheilander et al. (2008) found that consumers rely on aesthetic appearance of food and food stand, appearance of the food vendor, and trustworthiness of the vendor as risk avoidance strategies. Authors used a Ghanaian proverb, which is frequently cited by their respondents: "If you can't see it, it does not hurt you" in order to explain how difficult it is for consumers to monitor the whole food preparation process. In addition to the discussion of food safety, findings of that study are also important to an understanding of sensorial, social, and normative dimensions of street food consumption. Consumers' trust in vendor is shaped by interpersonal factors rather than safety concerns, those including the reputation of a vendor, recommendations of friends/relatives, personal experiences or relationship with the vendor (Rheilander et al., 2008). Bhimji (2010) also observed similar interpersonal relations through site-observations and specifically mentioned that a vendor did not charge her customer immediately but agreed to receive the payment later. Thus interpersonal relations could also strengthen mutual trust between vendors and customers. Furthermore, Isaacs (2014) extends the scope of social factors and adds that food-vending streets are social spaces where parents let their children play, people meet and have their meals with friends. In such a conceptualization, street food vending locations help to generate a kind of social safety and familiarity, and can invoke nostalgic feelings, those recreate social identity and social relationships. The social space together with the palatable food presented on street could be considered as a pleasant atmosphere for eating out, those evoke sensory and emotional responses of consumers rather than being solely a rational consumption of cheap food.

ATMOSPHERE OF EATING ENVIRONMENTS

Atmosphere studies in hospitality context or in restaurant settings are frequently grounded on Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) model that explains the effect of environmental stimuli on consumers' behaviours which is mediated by emotional responses. Although it is quite an ambiguous concept, atmosphere is an aggregate of environmental stimuli in commercial settings. Furthermore, in the business literature it is mostly devoted to control of management. For instance, Kotler (1973) defined atmosphere as the quality of surroundings in a given location and suggested a conscious designing of space to direct buyers' behaviours. Basically, atmosphere includes tangible (decor, signs) or intangible (music, odours) environmental factors that are perceived by individuals who are present in that environment, and evoke their cognitive and emotional responses which consequently guide their behaviours (Heide & Gronhaug, 2006).

In the field of food and beverage management, atmosphere is mainly attributed to restaurant settings. To examine customers' perceptions of atmosphere in restaurants, Ryu and Jang (2008) developed DINESCAPE which includes six dimensions; facility aesthetics (architectural design,

interior design, decor), ambience (music, scent, temperature), lighting, layout (layout of machinery, equipment, furnishing), table setting, and service staff (employee appearance, number of employees). Additionally, Heung and Gu (2012) also considered the view from the window of the restaurant as a dimension of atmosphere. Similarly, Alonso and O'Neill (2010) found that architectural design, cleanliness, comfort, lighting, spaciousness (to move freely and to provide privacy), and decor are important elements of restaurant atmosphere, those are essential to design ideal eating out experiences for customers.

Although aforementioned studies contributed extensively to conceptualization of atmosphere in restaurant settings, their respectively narrow perspective that solely stresses the physical dimensions of environment receives significant criticisms from several authors. For instance, Stroebele and De Castro (2004) underline the role of social mechanisms such as social facilitation (the presence of an accompanying person who facilitates the selections of accompanied guest) and social modelling (the presence of an accompanying person who is referred to for food selection) in food intake and food choice, and more importantly, they considered those two mechanisms as the social components of ambience in a restaurant. More recently, Line et al. (2012) observed that the restaurant patrons attach importance to interaction with staff and with other customers of the restaurant, and in their opinion, those interactions are not exclusive of restaurant atmosphere. In their studies on meal experiences, both Gustafsson (2004) and Hansen et al. (2005) also highlighted the personal social meeting (customer-to-customer encounters and customer-to-server encounters) and company as components of atmosphere in restaurants. What is interesting in studies on meal experience is that atmosphere is an inclusive component surrounding the other components (the core product, the restaurant interior, the personal social meeting, and the company). In those studies, atmosphere is almost equated to the entire meal experience of restaurant consumers which explicitly incorporates social components. A reasonable conclusion of this on-going discussion is that social factors along with the conventional tangible and intangible elements of surroundings are essential to define the atmosphere of eating places.

In the literature on eating out, atmosphere is an important phenomenon due to its critical roles in consumers' behaviours at different stages of restaurant experiences. It is found that atmosphere influences restaurant and meal choice decisions of costumers, and also has significant impacts on post-purchase behaviours and intentions. According to Auty (1992) and Kivela (1997), atmosphere may not be considered among initial factors (food type, food quality, location, menu item variety, cleanliness, speed of service and so on) that have an effect on restaurant selection only in the first consideration. However, it is critical to the final choice among the reduced set of similar restaurants since it differentiates the competing alternatives on the basis of style and image. Chen et al. (2008) found that atmosphere in the restaurant is more important than personal health concerns for customers when selecting a meal. Heung & Gu (2012) provided empirical evidence that restaurant atmosphere can positively influence customer satisfaction while Ryu and Han (2011) found that disconfirmation, which refers to a comparison of the expectation-performance gap, mediates the relationship between atmosphere and satisfaction in restaurants. Moreover, several researchers also revealed that restaurant atmosphere is a good predictor of consumers' price (Han & Ryu, 2009) and value (Ryu et al., 2012) perceptions. All those positive effects result in consumers' positive word of mouth endorsements and re-patronage intentions (Heung & Gu, 2012; Jang et al., 2011; Ryu & Han, 2011).

As the above review of literature has revealed, atmosphere is a critical variable that influences consumers' decisions and behaviours in a series of consumption episodes. However, the previous studies mentioned here all conducted in restaurant settings and to the best of authors, none of the studies to date concentrated on the role of atmosphere in street food consumptions. Although it is not well-structured as done in restaurants, street food is also an apparent form of eating out and a

sort of meal experience for majority of consumers. Therefore, the arguments of the restaurant atmosphere studies can be extended to the atmosphere of street foods.

A THEORETICAL MODEL FOR STREET FOOD CONSUMPTION

Relying on the view that street food consumption is basically a form of eating out that specifically includes consumption of foodstuffs prepared and served on street, it is reasonable to adapt consumers' eating out behaviours, which are widely examined in restaurant settings, to the consumption of street food. This view is implicitly supported by the definition of Warde and Martens (1998) who state that eating out or eating away from home includes meals eaten either on commercial premises or in someone else's home. Intrinsically, the commercial premises involve all the forms of restaurants and also street food. Commonly in Western cultures, eating out may primarily mean a meal in a restaurant (Warde & Martens, 1998), but in some cultures like India it may traditionally mean consumption of street food (Choudhury et al., 2011). Then, the first critical question is that "what constitutes street food consumption". Referring to the definition of commercial eating out would be helpful to produce a response to that question.

Özdemir (2010) suggests a three phased model for eating out; (1) decisions (whether to eat out or home, meal choice, and restaurant choice), (2) meal experience (generally in a restaurant where interactions with food & beverages, accompanying persons, other customers, service staff, and atmosphere occur) and (3) evaluation of experience (satisfaction or dissatisfaction, and behavioural intentions such as word-of-mouth or revisit). Additionally, some researchers (Gul et al., 2003; Tan, 2010) also consider frequency of and expenditure on eating out as an important component of consumers' food-away-from-home consumptions. Similar variables are also employed for street foods, such as reasons of consumption by Hiamey et al. (2013), frequency of patronage by Hiamey et al., 2013) and Vieira-Cardoso et al. (2014), and meal choice by Steyn & Labadorios (2011) and Vieira-Cardoso et al. (2014). Consequently, it seems reasonable that decision to eat street food, food vendor choice and meal choice, frequency of patronage, expenditure, satisfaction and behavioural intentions are all critical variables that tangibly constitute street food consumption. Then, the second and third critical questions are related to why people consume street food, and whether atmosphere and hedonism are predictive variables of street food consumption.

As explicated in previous sections, atmosphere is found to influence all dimensions of eating out and stands as the potent variable to study consumer behaviour. The notion of atmosphere for street foods would have analogous and also differentiating characteristics with restaurant atmosphere. Studies on restaurant atmosphere extensively defined its dimensions including facility aesthetics, ambience, layout, table setting, appearance of service staff, and social interactions. However, for street food vending sites these dimensions should be reconsidered and revised. For example, the dimensions such as facility aesthetics, layout, and table setting that are referring to the physical surroundings would be extended to the overall streetscape. Urban fabric together with environmental, functional, economical and socio-cultural aspects of the city and the community would form and impact the atmosphere perception of street food consumers. This broad definition of atmosphere connotes a complex and unstable environment which is difficult to control and manipulate for vendors. However, streets are lively and vivid places with sounds, colours, scents, and people passing by. This may create a great ambience for street foods and a pleasant meal experience.

The food itself as the core product is another important dimension of atmosphere. Stuffs and utensils to prepare and to present foods, the process of preparation and cooking are mostly visible for street foods. Sounds from chopping food accompany the aroma from cooking stove at the vending site following a customers' order. Even the appearance of the stall and the aroma pervading

around a stand could appeal the walkers on streets. Presentation of food also differs from restaurants. Consumers could observe and order food by its appearance rather than checking a menu and food is presented to customers generally with disposable tableware. Yet the food is more accessible from the street.

The process also enables active involvement of consumers via interaction with the producer. By this interaction, consumers have an opportunity to get information about the food. Additionally, it is possible to intervene the preparation or cooking process for customers such as asking for extra ingredients or suggesting on cooking time. Thus consumers for street foods could have a more active participation than restaurant customers usually do. Together with other customers and people passing by the stall on street, a social space exists that enables social interaction. The customers vs. other customers, customers vs. other people on street, and customers vs. food producer and/or vendor relationships enable socialization, which constitute social factors as an important dimension of atmosphere for street food.

As it has been empirically revealed in conventional restaurant settings (Kivela, 1997; Hansen et al., 2005; Heung & Gu, 2012), atmosphere is a significant variable that can influence eating out decisions, meal experience and behavioural intentions. Thus, we argue that atmosphere, which consists of ambience, food, and social factors in the specific context of street food, can have a considerable effect on street food consumption. The first proposition of the current study is as follows:

Proposition 1: Consumers' perceptions of atmosphere of street food vending sites may significantly affect their street food consumption (decisions, intentions, frequency, expenditures etc.).

There is no doubt that food intake is essential for survival but an important proportion of food consumption is driven by pleasure, not just by the need of calorie intake (Lowe & Butryn, 2007). While psychologists make a distinction between homeostatic eating for the need of calorie, and hedonic eating because for wanting or liking (Lowe & Butryn, 2007), researchers from the field of restaurant marketing similarly emphasize utilitarian (eating for functional and economical reasons) and hedonic values (eating for fun, excitement, pleasure etc.) of eating out (Chung et al., 2017; Hyun et al., 2016). For instance, Park (2004) in a quick service restaurant study in Korea, found that the hedonic value of eating-out is correlated with mood, quick service, cleanliness, food taste, employee kindness, and facilities where the utilitarian value is related with reasonable price, quick service, and promotional incentives. Furthermore, studies showed that hedonism could affect customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions in restaurant settings (Wu & Liang, 2009; Ha & Jang, 2010; Ryu et al., 2010).

Similarly, street food consumption may have utilitarian and hedonic attributes. In fact, for some consumers or in some cases, street food is more convenient than other alternatives such as conventional casual, fine-dining or quick service restaurants, and could be consumed for time and cost savings (Hiamey et al., 2013), which brings utilitarian values to one's mind. However, street food can attract consumers who are characterized by novelty, fun and excitement seeking tendencies and who enjoy making discoveries despite it is sometimes seen as unsafe, uncomfortable or low-quality. Alternatively, street food has associations with local food and exotic cultures (Calloni, 2013), taste (Raghunathan et al., 2006; Isaacs, 2014), emotions (Torres-Chavarria and Phakdee-auksorn, 2017), fashions, trends, and social interactions (Hiamey et al., 2013). Those associations may trigger hedonism perceptions of consumers, and consumer who expect and perceive hedonic values of street food are more likely to consume it. Thus, the second proposition of the current study is as follows:

Proposition 2: *Consumers' perceptions of hedonism in street food vending sites may significantly affect their street food consumption (decisions, intentions, frequency, expenditures etc.).*

Areas of street food vending are generally park lots, public squares, local markets, or sidewalks of the cities, and those spaces are easily accessible in walkable neighbourhoods. Sometimes portable tables and chairs are provided for customers. Although these attributes provide convenience to some extent, in most cases consumers could only sit on a public bench or eat by standing, and this may be a little uncomfortable for consuming food especially when compared to the conventional restaurants. Since food itself and environment are important stimulus for desire and consumption of the food (Mela, 2006; Lowe & Butryn, 2007), the vivid atmosphere of street may evoke arousal and pleasure for customers and promise for an exciting and enjoyable meal experience. Newman and Burnett (2013) suggest that street food vendors significantly contribute to create vibrant urban spaces which could deliver hedonic values despite its form of uncomfortable consumption. Vieira-Cardoso et al. (2014) posit that people still continue to consume street food although they have doubts about safety and quality of the food. As stated before, atmosphere of street vending sites appears to have a direct and significant impact on this sustained patronage. But, additionally atmosphere may trigger hedonism perceptions of consumers. Supporting this view, Rheilander et al. (2008) found that consumers rely on aesthetic appearance of environment and trustworthiness of the vendor in street food consumptions. Therefore, it is plausible to state that atmosphere of street foods which consists of ambience, food, and social factors is expected to affect consumers' perception of hedonism. More specifically, vividness, liveliness and colourfulness of the atmosphere could evoke arousal, excitement and pleasure for consumers, and that could stimulate street food consumption with hedonic values. Thus, the third proposition of the current study is as follows:

Proposition 3: *Consumers' perceptions of atmosphere of street food vending sites may significantly affect their perceptions of hedonism.*

So far, the current study postulates that atmosphere and hedonism may significantly influence street food consumption. Additionally, it is also suggested that atmosphere has an impact on hedonic perceptions of street food consumption. Finally, it is possible that there might be a mediation effect of hedonism on the relation between atmosphere and street food consumption. Considering the role of atmosphere to evoke hedonic values (Park, 2004; Mela, 2006; Lowe & Butryn, 2007) and the effect of hedonism on food consumption (Park, 2004; Ryu et al., 2010), the final proposition of the current study is developed as below:

Proposition 4: *The effect of atmosphere on street food consumption may be mediated by the hedonism.*

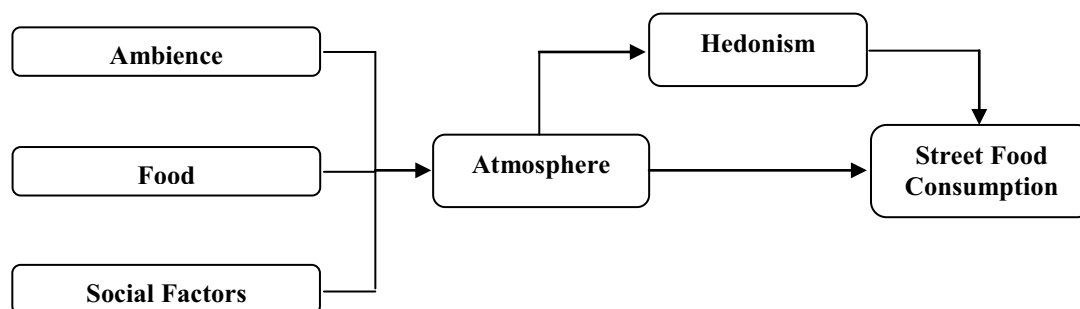


Figure 1. The theoretical model of street food consumption

Propositions of the study are summarized in a theoretical model which is presented in Figure 1. The theoretical model proposed in this study could be referred to explain the growing trend of street foods worldwide and may provide a theoretical basis for further empirical studies.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the street food consumption with a specific reference to possible effects of atmosphere and hedonism. The review of literature provides limited knowledge to explain why people consume street foods and how pleasurable the meal experience in this context. This paper draws on eating out literature since street food consumption is a form of eating out. However, street foods are largely neglected in this field. Thus theoretical discussions on street food consumption and the proposed model of this paper aim to contribute this paucity in the literature. Atmosphere of eating environments is applied in the model as the potent variable to explain consumer behaviour. Conceptualization of atmosphere in the context of street foods is also discussed. Atmosphere of street foods are considered to overcome the negative connotations of street foods such as unsafe or uncomfortable food. The paper further argues the significance of hedonism to affect street food consumption. The discussions of the study generated four propositions that could further examined in empirical studies. In addition, a theoretical model of street food consumption is proposed within the scope of this study.

Drawing some practical implications is also possible from the arguments presented here. First, street food vendors could enhance the aesthetic appearance of food stand to create a better ambiance and to give an impression of safe food to the consumers. Aroma, flavour, and appearance of the food are also important and vendors could improve these features to create a hedonic consumption setting for potential consumers. In addition, vendors could benefit from socialization. They could communicate with their customers and also facilitate the interaction between each other that provide the setting for pleasurable experience. Second, local governments could draw some inferences that street foods are important for vibrant urban places. Certain public places could be regulated and facilitated for food vending rather than banning or criminalizing street foods. Incentives could be provided for hygienic, safe, and aesthetic street foods.

This study contributes to the literature to understand street food consumption by proposing a theoretical model but propositions of the study could not be empirically tested within the scope of this paper. Empirical support could strengthen the discussions of the paper. Yet the discussions presented here are potent to guide future field studies. The variables of the theoretical model could be examined in a quantitative study and relations could be tested. The relevant scales in the literature (for atmosphere and hedonism) could be employed or adapted to the specific case of street food, and the propositions of the current study can be tested in different samples. Future studies could also examine the relevance of meal experience for street food consumers by qualitative studies. This study offered a theoretical background for street food consumption. Early thoughts developed and presented in this paper may provide a basis for consumer studies and stimulate new research questions in the field of street food consumption.

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ROMANIAN SEASIDE TOURISM AND THE COMPETITION WITH ITS BULGARIAN NEIGHBORS

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Abstract:

The Romanian seaside is at the crossroads, i.e. on the way to regain its former reputation as a tourist destination; however, it is unable to create a competitive tourism product, adapted to the tourists' needs and, at the same time, it cannot fully capitalize its natural potential. Apparently, after the fall of communism, our main competitors, i.e. the Bulgarian neighbors, understood and successfully applied the law of competitive advantage. This paper will critically analyze the status of Romanian seaside tourism and the causes that generated it, starting from the fundamental determinations of competitiveness: resources – infrastructure and capital – human resources. It will also perform a comparative analysis of the Romanian and Bulgarian seaside tourism and make several suggestions that will bring us closer to our neighbors, whose experience is a learned lesson. These suggestions also aim at returning the Romanian Black Sea seaside to the World Tourism Map.

Key words: seaside tourism, analysis, competitiveness, tourism development

1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism as a priority economic activity, increase revenues, jobs, investment and revenue budget and local governments. Tourism in Romania, as well as in other states, is characterized by a strong competition between destinations. Some of them manage to cope with competition and others fail. Ensuring competitiveness is a primary strategic objective based on strategic thinking and analysis. The incidence of tourism on the national economy is manifested both through the direct and indirect effects. Ritchie and Crouch (2000) viewed a destination's competitiveness as a country's ability to create added value and thus increase the national wealth by managing assets and processes, attractiveness, aggressiveness and proximity, and there by integrating these relationships within an economic and social model that takes into account a destination's natural capital and its preservation for future generations (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). Tourism makes felt its advantageous action on other branches of national economy, primarily through demand for goods and intended services. In this context, countries with rich tourism potential, tourism is acting as an important chapter of exports (Trandafir & Asalos, 2010).

Tourist destinations, whether we are talking about resorts or countries, are increasingly in need of a new tourism policy model that will influence their competitive position in the current globalization conditions.

Thus, the classical theories of country competitiveness in international trade, namely Adam Smith's theory of absolute advantage, David Ricardo's theory of comparative advantage, and even Heckscher-Ohlin-Samuelson's factor endowment theory (HOS) are no longer able to respond the specific issues that have emerged. Starting from this finding, modern competitiveness theories have emerged, among which Porter's theory of competitive advantage (Porter, 1998). It starts from the simple finding that some countries are more successful in exports than others. It has also revealed that some countries, whose natural potential offers them an absolute advantage, sometimes fail to exploit it fully, while others without such an advantage are successful.

According to Porter, what matters in order to get competitive advantage is not just the endowment with natural resources or factors, but the investment and capital formation efforts. Moreover, what also matters is not the amount of these efforts, but their quality. Indeed, countries with weaker inputs may find key sectors to stimulate investment and innovation, by investing in infrastructure and R&D and by creating a highly skilled labor force. This task belongs mainly to companies, but the government can also help achieving it by creating a conducive business environment and investment climate, in order to encourage companies to specialize and become world leaders.

Crouch and Ritchie (2000) stated that tourism destination competitiveness “has tremendous ramifications for the tourism industry, and is therefore of considerable interest to practitioners and policy makers.” Moreover, Enright and Newton (2005) stated that “a destination is competitive if it can attract and satisfy potential tourists, and this competitiveness is determined by both tourism specific factors and a much wider range of factors that influence the tourism service providers.”

In tourism industry, competition among territorial areas is usually not centred on the single aspects of the tourist product (environmental resources, transportation, tourism services, hospitality, etc.), but on the tourist destination as an integrated set of facilities for the tourist (Buhalis, 2000; Ritchie & Crouch, 2000). In an ever more saturated market, the fundamental task of destination management is to understand how tourism destination competitiveness can be enhanced and sustained. There is thus a strong need to identify and explore competitive (dis)advantages and to analyze the actual competitive position (Gomezelj, Mihaljić, 2008). Identifying competitors and determining the destination advantages and disadvantages relative to competitors is an integral part of successful marketing management of tourist destinations.

2. A BRIEF IMAGE OF ROMANIAN SEASIDE TOURISM

Tourism has multiple effects in any region, spreads in both periods in which there is an increase rate of tourism investment in the selected area and in which the investments generates economic effects. Tourism as an economic activity, increase revenue, jobs, investment and revenue budget and local governments.

Romanian tourism activities, especially those carried out in the Black Sea area, have a rich natural environment and a diversified tourism potential that ensures the development of a wide range of tourist services. The seaside resorts have a dual specialization, namely relaxation and medical care, offering multiple cure and treatment possibilities for a wide range of diseases, by salt water, thermal springs and sapropelic mud. The special tourist potential of the region has led to the development of several tourism activities focused on various types of tourism: health, relaxation and recreation, cultural tourism, business tourism. The therapeutic natural resources are indicated in the treatment of diseases such as inflammatory rheumatism, post-traumatic diseases of the central and peripheral muscular system, respiratory diseases, dermatological and endocrine diseases, chronic bronchitis, and metabolic disorders. Two main segments of tourists visit the Romanian seaside. The first segment is represented by passive tourists, i.e. the “sun lust” type, who prefer the sun and the beach; this is the majority segment. The second segment is the one that uses medical, treatment and therapy services. Seasonality in seaside resorts is very high and the existing treatment facilities contribute little to its decrease. Their involvement in social tourism programs is unattractive compared to other resorts in the country and this opportunity should be fully capitalized by spa partnerships. The treatment facilities require continuous modernization and upgrading, especially in the field of wellness services, with the aim of increasing the average stay time, especially for the tourists who come in the season for the “3S” (sun, sand, sea) combination.

The seaside area has many accommodation, treatment and leisure facilities, but the tour operators in the area do not have sufficient promotion and publicity means. The lack of tourism information and promotion networks in the area contributes to a limited knowledge of leisure opportunities and local tourist products. In addition, there lacks a centralized database on both the

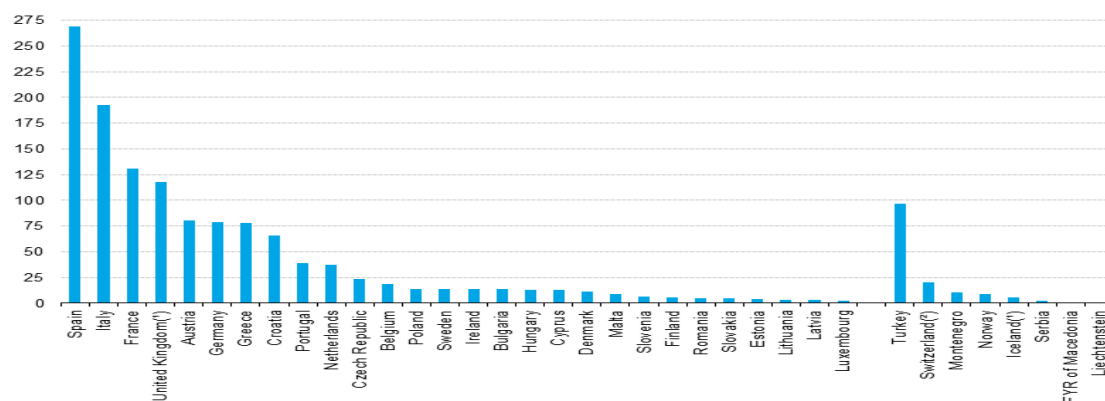
nature of the services provided and on the cultural and heritage events and objectives in the area. In the last years, Mamaia resort has hosted many events, which have been promoted more by their organizers and less by local authorities, tourism employers or hoteliers. Romania boasts extraordinary places, which, unfortunately, are not promoted. However, the lack of investments in tourism infrastructure, the low level of comfort and the lack of opportunities and recreational facilities are real, major drawbacks in the process of launching and marketing the Romanian tourist offer on the European market.

Some 1.08 million foreign tourists visited Romania from the beginning of June until the end of September, by 6% more than in the same period of 2015, according to official data provided by the National Institute of Statistics. Romania is mainly a business tourist destination. Less than a quarter of the foreigners who visited Romania from June to September went to touristic areas, such as seaside resorts, spa resorts, mountain resorts, and the Danube Delta. Only about 3% went to the seaside. Meanwhile, according to NIS data, more than 70% went to Bucharest or to other big cities. On the Romanian seaside, 95% of the tourists are Romanians. The rest, i.e. the foreigners, are just a few thousand people every year. In 2015, Romania welcomed 1.9 million foreign tourists and they spent some USD 1.83 billion in Romania according to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) data.

Situated at 200 km away from Constanta, the Bulgarian resorts receive ten times more German, Russian, Romanian and French tourists every year. Unlike Romania, on the coast of its Bulgarian neighbors, seven out of ten tourists are foreigners. Here, they have enough places to relax, given the fact that Bulgarians have more than four times as many kilometers of beach as we do. We have already lost Russia and Germany, and the Bulgarians' advance is hard to recover. The popularity of the Bulgarian Black Sea coast has been steadily rising in recent years. Bulgaria's tourism industry has also grown to become one of the main sources of revenue to the state budget. The tourist offer on Bulgaria's coastline is addressed to customers with lower holiday budgets, offering a cheap alternative to Western European resorts. However, the quality of the services provided by Bulgaria's top resorts such as Albena, Golden Sands, Sunny Beach, Duni is not far from the one provided by Western European destinations.

From the figure below, in 2015, Bulgaria is ranked 16 in the EU28 in terms of the number of overnight stays of non-residents, while Romania ranks 23 out of 28.

Both in Romania and Bulgaria, there is a fabulous natural tourism potential and the fact that we share the Black Sea seacoast makes us tourism competitors in this area. Due to the temperate continental climate, seaside tourism is predominantly seasonal, but it remains the main holiday destination for both countries. In Romania, about 29% of the hotels in the country are located on the seaside (Mamaia, Eforie Nord, Eforie Sud, Jupiter, Saturn, Venus, Neptun, Costinesti resorts). In Bulgaria, 66% of the accommodation facilities are located in the resorts from the Black Sea coast. This represents the starting point in the comparative analysis that will follow.



(*) Number of nights spent estimated using monthly data.
 (**) Excluding nights spent in holiday and other short-stay accommodation establishments.

Fig. no.1 Nights spent in EU countries by non-residents

Source:

[http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statisticsexplained/index.php/File:Tourism_destinations_%E2%80%94_nights_spent_at_tourist_accommodation_establishments,_2015_\(million_nights_spent_in_the_country_by_non-residents\).png#filelinks](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statisticsexplained/index.php/File:Tourism_destinations_%E2%80%94_nights_spent_at_tourist_accommodation_establishments,_2015_(million_nights_spent_in_the_country_by_non-residents).png#filelinks)

3. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE ROMANIAN AND BULGARIAN SEASIDE TOURISM

3.1. The relief of the Romanian/ Bulgarian seaside

Romania has 244 km of Black Sea shore, of which only about 70 km are usable for mass tourism, namely "the Romanian Black Sea Riviera", stretching from Vama Veche to Năvodari, because the rest of the shore is in the Delta area, and it is unusable for "seaside" tourism, with few exceptions (Gura Portiței).

Bulgaria's seashore measures approximately 370 km, of which no less than 130 km of sandy beaches. Bulgaria's geographical advantages do not stop at shoreline and beach length; they are also represented by its temperatures. In Bulgaria, the annual average sea temperatures are by about 3 degrees higher in winter-spring and by 1-2 degrees higher in summer-autumn, compared to the Romanian seaside. In addition, the Bulgarian seaside area stretching from Burgas to the South, to the Turkish border, enjoys a Mediterranean climate. This is due to the fact that this area is situated south of the Balkan Mountains, which stops the cold northern influences; thus, the climate is more influenced by the Aegean Sea, which is at just 100 km away from Bulgaria's southern border.

On the other hand, the temperate climate, the low salinity of water and the orientation of the beach towards the east create excellent conditions for spending a summer vacation in the best conditions on the Romanian seaside. The beaches on the Romanian seaside are covered with fine sand and have a generous width that reaches in some places 150 - 200 meters. There is, however, a noticeable difference between the northern (Navodari, Mamaia, Constanta) and the southern beaches. The northern ones are wider and keep a uniform shoreline, while the southern shores have many narrower sectors; moreover, the later are sliced by bays or bordered by high cliffs. On the Romanian seaside, the sun shines about 2,500 hours per year; this average is identical to that from the beaches of Croatia and very similar to that from the Mediterranean coasts. The Romanian seaside has 12 resorts: Navodari, Mamaia, Eforie Nord, Eforie Sud, Techirghiol, Costinesti, Olimp, Neptun, Jupiter, Cap Aurora, Venus, Saturn, Mangalia, plus 2 May and Vama Veche, unofficially. In Bulgaria, there are places where the beaches are oriented south, north or even west (with the possibility of memorable sunsets). This diversity represents a tourist advantage. The south and the southwest orientation are especially favorable to coastal tourism, for many reasons, such as permanent sun exposure.

This orientation also contributes to the protection of beaches from cooler temperatures and wind, as, in northern Bulgaria, there are groups of hills or mountain ranges. (This represents another very interesting feature of the Bulgarian seaside, as opposed to ours.) In Romania, the sea is on one side and, on the other side, there is the plain, with very few hilly places, which, obviously, are more picturesque, as the "fringed" and steep French and Italian Riviera. The more fragmented Bulgarian shore offers another great advantage in terms of water sports. The Black Sea bays, which are non-existent in Romania, but quite spread and sheltered from "storms" on the Bulgarian seashore (at Balchik, Varna, Burgas, Sozopol, Nessebar, Chernomoreț or Pomorie), also allow more pleasant and picturesque trips by boats and yachts. At the same time, they are good "natural ports" that allow anchoring a boat; they are safer for swimmers, unlike the plain Romanian seaside, where you enter the open sea from the first meters by boat or swimming.

3.2. Infrastructure of the Romanian/ Bulgarian seaside

The Bulgarian seaside hosts about two million tourists each year, of which an overwhelming proportion, i.e. 70%, is represented by foreigners. In comparison, the Romanian seaside is visited by a much smaller number, i.e. less than 1.2 million tourists, foreigners representing only about 30,000. Why? An explanation could be that the Bulgarians sold their hotels to German tour operators, who came first with their know-how and then with thousands of German tourists.

On the other hand, the Romanians gave their hotels in tenancy to *maîtres d'hotel* and to the directors of tourism companies on small prices, based on dubious auctions, during the transition to the market economy. There was a lack of vision in this tourism sector, the result being reflected in the gap between Romania and its Bulgarian neighbors, in terms of the number of tourists. They can relax in the approximately 250 hotels opened on the Romanian seaside, totaling about 120,000 accommodation places. On the Bulgarian coast, there are about 350,000 accommodation places, most of which have four and five stars. Here, there are international chains such as Iberostar, Berlin, Kempinski, Sol Melia, Royal or Golden Tulip.

In recent years, the Romanian seaside has rarely witnessed spectacular inaugurations of accommodation or leisure places. Exceptions include the construction of the Aqua Magic Aqua Park (in 2003) and the Telegondola from Mamaia (in 2004). Also, in 2007, Saturn – a five-star hotel – and, in 2008, Cleopatra Hotel (four stars) opened, both in Saturn. Bulgarians are better in terms of services, and they were "helped" by natural factors (milder climate or more spectacular relief). However, they knew how to invest massively in infrastructure and how to attract on their part international caliber investors such as TUI or Neckerman - Thomas Cook. The number of four and five star hotels is small. The Bulgarians' success could also be explained by the fact that they knew how to better manage the seaside businesses and they implemented a fruitful strategy. Specifically, they preferred not to split the old communist resorts and chose to privatize them in the block, unlike the Romanians, who were rather disordered and lent and leased a number of hotels, adjudicated by businessmen through controversial auctions. At the same time, the Bulgarians have two airports serving the seaside, in Burgas and Varna.

In comparison, we have very few charter flights arriving with foreigners, at a single airport, i.e. Mihail Kogalniceanu. There are few charter flights to the seaside. Only ten hotels offer all-inclusive services. However, none has ultra all-inclusive services. The shorter season lasts only between May and September. Some hotels require tourists to buy accommodation packages including meal services, especially in July-August. Although there are various restaurants, in most cases, their menu is standardized and contains few dishes. Few restaurants are international and even fewer are fish restaurants. The infrastructure, though criticized, can be seen as an advantage, especially since Bulgarians do not have better roads. On the contrary, some of them do not have clear road signs, besides the fact that most road signs are written in Slavic letters.

3.3. The human resources of the Romanian / Bulgarian seaside

The tourist packages on the Bulgarian seaside have better prices for the four-star segment – in Bulgaria, for a week of accommodation in a four star hotel, with all the meals included, a family pays up to 800 Euros. In Romania, the fare ranges between 600 and 700 Euros, only accommodation and breakfast. The animation in hotels is another advantage.

Unlike Romanian hotels, the Bulgarian ones are ready to entertain tourists on bad weather with various programs and shows. They also thought of the youngest tourists and made clubs for children inside hotels. They play or learn to paint or dance under the supervision of qualified staff. In Bulgaria, many hotels provide ultra all-inclusive services.

On the Romanian seaside, only ten hotels provide all-inclusive services. However, none provides ultra all-inclusive services. The difference between all-inclusive and ultra all-inclusive is given by the quality and type of drinks served. In the first case, only local drinks and few

international alcohol brands can be ordered. In ultra all-inclusive services, the menu is more complex and includes a large number of international alcohol brands. The menu of the hotels from Bulgaria is richer and the waiters serve under the all-inclusive regime, i.e. all dishes are arranged in the Swedish buffet style and the waiters only make suggestions and assist tourists.

In Romania, tourists have more fun than in Bulgaria, taking into account that many events, festivals and competitions take place on our seashore. Mamaia is known for its intense nightlife, and across time, Vama Veche has remained an example of the non-conformism that the Bulgarians do not have. The proximity to the Danube Delta is a great advantage, especially for the foreign tourists who wish to visit this reservation. The road to the Delta takes about two hours by car.

4. Romanian seaside tourism - "Cinderella" of the Black Sea coast

By analyzing the components of the tourism activity from Romania, it was revealed that our country has a valuable and varied natural tourism potential, which represents its richest resource. Moreover, it provides the opportunity to develop an activity sector that is in full ascension on a world scale, with beneficial results for the economy of the countries that promote tourism.

The Romanian Black Sea coast is one of the most important tourist areas in Romania, compared to other tourist areas of the country; this is also reflected by tourist traffic and accommodation capacity indicators. The tourist resources, natural factors of the Romanian seaside, provide for the most favorable conditions, through the presence of large beaches, favorable climatic conditions and therapeutic mud. The main factor of the natural environment is the curative action of the Black Sea.

Through its salinity and variety of mineral salts (sodium, chloride, iodine, bromine, magnesium), accompanied by a specific dynamic regime, it plays an important role in balneotherapy. As far as water temperature is concerned, it is much higher than the temperature of other seas and oceans, exhibiting a thermal constancy in terms of the ambient atmosphere.

The stretched beaches, with fine sand and eastern orientation, provide a daytime sunshine of over 11 hours per day in the summer months. The annual amount of sunshine has an average duration of 2,286 hours in Constanta and 2,426 hours in Mangalia. Other factors include therapeutic mud, meso-thermal mineral waters, marine sand and, last but not least, the marine bioclimate.

The seaside area has many accommodation and leisure facilities, but the tour operators in the area do not have enough promotion and publicity means. Unfortunately, for many years, we have been unable to capitalize this extremely valuable tourism potential and the lack of tourism information and promotion networks in the area contribute to a limited knowledge of recreational opportunities and local tourist products.

Starting from these aspects, we have developed a SWOT analysis of the Romanian seaside, in order to provide a clearer picture of the current status of this tourist destination and to identify the steps that should be made in order to ensure the performance and competitiveness of this region. The SWOT analysis could be a defining factor in assessing the situation facing the destination in its efforts to develop tourism destination. This analysis is necessary because one could enumerate several factors that can lead to development of tourism destination.

This analysis has taken into account several fields: Geography and Environment, Culture and Cultural Heritage, Infrastructure, Transport and Communications, Human Resources, Legal Framework and Organization, Marketing and Promotion.

I. Geography and Environment

Table no. 1

<i>Strengths</i>	<i>Weaknesses</i>	<i>Opportunities</i>	<i>Threats</i>
- Openness to the Black Sea; - Location of the Danube Delta near the seaside;	-The erosion level of beaches; - Water and environment	- Romania's ascension to the European Union provided it the	- Poor cross-border relationship development reduces the economic, social

- Temperate-continental climate favorable to seaside tourism from spring to autumn; - Stretched beaches with fine golden sand; - Moderate salinity and variety of mineral salts; - Therapeutic mud, meso-thermal mineral waters.	cleanness; - Garbage collection points; - Beach arrangement; - Location of the Romanian resorts near other important Black Sea resorts (e.g. the Bulgarian ones)	opportunity to participate in tourism programs/projects of international nature and to get specialized assistance.	and political benefits of such cooperation in the field of tourism. -The location of resorts near a major refinery increases the pollution level in the area.
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II. Culture and cultural heritage

Table no. 2

<i>Strengths</i>	<i>Weaknesses</i>	<i>Opportunities</i>	<i>Threats</i>
-Museums on various themes; - Monasteries; -Archaeological sites.	- Impairment of cultural and heritage objectives; - Lack of a database on the cultural events in the area; - Small number of tourism information points about cultural and heritage objectives.	- Obtaining financial resources from European funds for the restoration / modernization of cultural and cultural heritage objectives;	-

III. Infrastructure, transport and communications

Table no. 3

Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
-Mihail Kogalniceanu International Airport; - International road network; - Mobile and fixed telephone operators with national and international coverage.	- Road quality; -Obsolete infrastructure; - Poor distribution of transport facilities; -Small number of signs that guide tourists to points of interest.	- Romania's EU membership gives it the opportunity to obtain financial resources for the development of the transport infrastructure.	- The very low traffic at M. Kogalniceanu Airport and the lack of facilities to ensure the transfer from the airport to seaside resorts; - Frequent work on landscaping / refurbishment of roads, bridges, which pose great traffic difficulties during the summer season.

IV. Human resources

Table no. 4

<i>Strengths</i>	<i>Weaknesses</i>	<i>Opportunities</i>	<i>Threats</i>
-Skilled staff with linguistic abilities; the staff is skilled over the average; -In the area, there is a faculty that provides studies and the necessary skills in the field of tourism.	-Insufficient staff; - The staff working in tourism is poorly paid; - Lack of tourism training and qualification courses.	- Attracting foreign skilled staff in the field of tourism (from the EU); - Know-how and experience exchange with partners from abroad; - Obtaining European funding for qualification and training programs for the staff working in tourism (Projects included in the Human Resources Development Operational Programme).	- Migration of the qualified tourism staff in various EU countries.

V. Legal framework and organization

Table no. 5

<i>Strengths</i>	<i>Weaknesses</i>	<i>Opportunities</i>	<i>Threats</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Over 32 regulations on the performance of tourism activities in Romania; - The existence of Romania National Tourism Master Plan 2007-2026 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Insufficient customized measures and projects on area issues - Non involvement of local authorities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Uniformization of the Romanian legislation on tourism activities with the European one in terms of tourism standards, qualifications and certifications. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Poor organization of regional and local tourism activities; - There is no regional strategy to be detached from the national tourism development strategy in Romania (Romania National Tourism Master Plan 2007-2026).

VI. Marketing and promotion

Table no. 6

Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Travel and tour agencies operators with expertise in the provision of tourist services; - Participation in national and international circuits; - Participation in tourism fairs and exhibitions; - Promotional packages and other packages customized to the tourists' the needs and requirements. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Poor promotion through the media, TV, radio and the Internet, nationally and internationally; - Poorly developed database on the tourist services provided in the area. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The ability to use international promotion for tourism services; - Participation in promotion projects at European level. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Poor awareness of the benefits of the tourist potential in the area.

5. CONCLUSIONS

- ✓ The tourism activity from Romania, especially from the Black Sea area, has a rich natural environment (beach, therapeutic mud, meso-thermal mineral waters) and a diversified tourist potential that ensures the development of a wide range of tourist services.
- ✓ The development and strengthening of local tourism must be achieved by the local and national authorities' support of the specific tourism promotion and marketing activities.
- ✓ A unitary tourist information system, tourist statistics accessible to the general public and possibly the on-line access to public websites should be developed.
- ✓ There is also no centralized database on the nature of the services provided, as well as on the events and on the cultural and heritage objectives in the area.
- ✓ Romania needs a new law on tourism, with favorable tax measures for businesses in the field.
- ✓ Giving fiscal facilities to travel agencies that bring foreign tourists to Romania.
- ✓ Bulgaria's relief and climate determine national and international tourists to choose this country as a tourist destination for holidays. According to the studies carried out in connection with the tourism activity from Bulgaria, the main factors supporting tourism development are the natural environment, the promotion and marketing activities of tourist areas, as well as cultural factors (traditions, customs).

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TRADITIONAL FOODS AND THEIR IMPORTANCE ON TOURISM SECTOR

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Abstract

Traditional foods are foodstuffs shaped by geography, climate, agricultural production possibilities in all cultures and the influence of traditional lifestyle on all of them and whose production has been going on for hundreds of years. Each of these foodstuffs are highly original product, shaped by hundreds of years of experience, created without the use of modern technology, simply by artificially ingraining the key factors of food preservation with available means. Ensuring the preservation and continuity of our traditional food products, one of our important social and cultural heritage from the past; it is important that traditional food products at national and regional scales are identified, inventories are removed, hygienic conditions and modern industrial methods are used to produce food as safe food, and it is important to move to the future. Due to changes in the lifestyles of consumers, the importance of traditional foods is increasing, both nationally and internationally, due to demand for new tastes, new products, safe food, less processed and less added food. For this reason, the contribution of the gastronomy to the tourism of the countries is indisputable. Food has an important place in maintaining national identities and promoting countries. Traditional foods convey both the eating habits and cultural characteristics of societies for generations. In parallel with the development of the tourism industry, the interest in traditional food is increasing all over the world. The presence of cultural richness is very effective on traditional food products produced throughout the country. The most important way of protecting traditional foods and introducing them to the world is to record these products and produce them reliably. These foods can be protected by removing the inventories of traditional foods, determining the product characteristics, revealing, and monitoring the regional differences in the methods of preservation and processing. The geographical indication ensures that the product is recognized and protected at national and international level, maintaining its unique characteristics. In addition, the geographical indication is one of the most important guarantees of sustainability in the production of traditional foods. On the other hand, modern systems of traceability based on information and communication technologies make it easier to provide traceability of traditional foods and to provide food and water-based food preferences to tourists. The choice of food based on information strengthens the role of consumer especially in knowing the quality and quality of food, ensuring effective profit and risk management, observing environmental effect, and ensuring sustainable production in the end. The aim of this review was to introduce the food tourism, geographical indication and traceability, their importance for tourism experience and the role of cultural heritage of traditional foods in Turkey.

Keywords: Tourism, traditional foods, gastronomy, geographical indication, traceability

GASTRONOMY TOURISM AND FOODBORNE DISEASE

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Abstract

The importance of food in tourism has increased significantly over the past decades and there is a significant relationship between the food image of a place and intention to visit, as well as the increasing importance of food in the promotion of local destinations. Foods, sold and eaten on the streets, are important food source for tourists and most of the inhabitants in urban and pre-urban environments. These uncontrolled and highly contaminated foods are sources of foodborne diseases and major problem in terms of public health. In this review, the importance of gastronomy in terms of tourism, precautions for secure food production and food poisoning derived from take-home foods are discussed.

1. Introduction

The concept of gastronomy refers to a branch of science that has a long-standing background. Gastronomy tourism has an important place in travel and especially drawing attention over the last 20 years as an area that has gained new studies through different aspects of perspective. Gastronomy is one of the elements incorporated in a new concept of cultural heritage and cultural tourism, driven by growing trends of a well-being lifestyle, authenticity, environmental protection and the need to have a high-quality experience. Primary role of gastronomy in destination choice and tourist consumption resulted in increased for gastronomical offers based on high quality local products and strengthening a separated market for gastronomic tourism.

Although some foods are not officially documented, they are thought to have beneficial effect on health and these foods always have a local story. Therefore, foods play an important role in maintaining national identities and introducing countries. Local foods produced in different regions and the characteristics of these regions such as flavor, aroma and composition make gastronomic tourism important. Parallel to the development of the tourism sector, the interest in traditional food is increasing all over the world and the contribution of gastronomy to the tourism of countries is an indisputable subject.

During the 20th century, industrialization began to threaten small and local producers, thus many of them have abandoned traditional techniques. Nevertheless, in the last two decades, both the revival of tourism sector and the increase in consumer demand for safe and quality products produced by traditional methods, traditional production in situ is revived again.

Gastronomy is one of the elements incorporated into the concept of a new cultural heritage and culture tourism and driven by the trends of comfortable lifestyle, originality, environmental production, safe and high quality eating needs. Tourists have now begun to

prefer the foods which help to preserve heritage of a place or a region that has emphasize traditional agriculture and cultural heritage. Gastronomy also has an important place in the “Think globally, act locally” debate. Some consumers prefer staying away from long-distantly moving food and support local businesses or protecting the environment (Anon, 2017a). Food safety is defined as in order to meet the nutritional needs and food priorities of people, to remain healthy and being active throughout their life, accessibility to enough, healthy, reliable and nutritious food both physically and economically (Haspolat, 2015).

The topic of food safety has become, as it known, an increasingly important issue in recent years, which has gained importance in terms of all countries due to its public health and economic dimension. The emergence of foodborne illnesses effects societies in health, economic and social aspects. It is now well understood that microbiological hazards, biotoxins, chemical contaminants and mycotoxins, which may be present in foods more than permitted amounts, makes food products harmful to human health. Nowadays, in every part of the world, consumers are not sure about the safety of the food they consume due to radical changes in the food processing, production, distribution and consumption. Therefore, problems arising from food are more carefully monitoring.

Food-borne problems are not only effect human health, further to that, it effects the economic and social structures of people, families, societies, sectors and finally countries. On a global scale, besides food trade brings exchange to exporting countries, food trade brings added-value to the sector and makes important contributions to national income. However, despite all these risks, food-borne risk can lead to serious health problems in all layers of the society besides reduced work efficiency and economic loss in the society (İlbeği, 2004).

As a result of the difficulties of ensuring healthy conditions of food, regulations for this area have increased in the world. Unsafety foods are linked to deaths of about 2 million people per year. Harmful bacteria, viruses, parasites, chemical substances containing foods are responsible for more than two hundred diseases. The change in the production, distribution and consumption of food induces new threats in food safety area.

In this review, gastronomy, an important branch of the tourism sector, and food poisoning from ready-to-eat foods and safety food production and presentation, taking into consideration the supply of safety and good quality foods, are discussed.

2. Gastronomy Tourism

2.1. Gastronomy

Tourism product contains environmental values, landscape, culture, traditions, local cuisine (Gheorghe *et al.*, 2014). Gastronomy is one of the elements incorporated in a new concept of cultural heritage and cultural tourism, driven by growing trends of a well-being lifestyle, authenticity, environmental protection and the need to have a high-quality experience. Gastronomic tourism may also be a significant contributor to processes of localization as a response to increased global competition (Gajić, 2015). Gastronomy is already one of the main motivations to visit a particular place and also is configured as a key element for the development of the image of agricultural products of a certain geographical area (Lopez-Guzman *et al.*, 2014). Primary role of gastronomy in destination choice and tourist consumption resulted in increased for gastronomical offers based on high quality local products and strengthening a separated market for gastronomic tourism (Gheorghe *et al.*, 2014). The word “gastronomy” was formed by merging the Greek words “gaster” (stomach) and “nomas” (law) (Sormaz *et al.*, 2016). Gastronomy therefore refers to rules or norms in respect of eating and drinking (Santich, 2004). The idea is to contextualize “food science” in “gastronomy” through relationships in the arts and sciences (Goldfarb, 2014) and it may be defined as the practice or art of choosing, cooking, and eating good food and, furthermore, it relates to a large number of

disciplines, including biology, chemistry and physics (Vega and Ubbink, 2008). Gastronomy is a patrimony established by generations of cooks and is the result of a delicate processes, studying the physical characteristics of foods and seeks to better understand the processes that occur when food is consumed and source of inspiration and pleasure (Gheorghe *et al.*, 2014). While the study of gastronomy might have eating and drinking at its core, contemporary understanding of gastronomy extends the scope of the study to the production and preparation of food and drink and how, where, when and why they are consumed. This necessarily implicates the philosophies, beliefs and values influencing gastronomic practices (Santich, 2004). Gastronomic tours, arranged to introduce a region's dishes and food culture which play an important role in selection of and the experience tourists can have in a region, can feature a region. Some of these regions are France, Australia, South Africa, Italy, America, England, etc. where wine tourism is more developed; Canada with beer tourism, and Italy with such famous foods as pasta and pizza (Sormaz *et al.*, 2016). Molecular gastronomy has for some years been rising and is described as the most exciting development within haute cuisine (Mielby and Frøst, 2010). Molecular gastronomy is the scientific discipline that explores the phenomena occurring during culinary transformations. New products, combinations, creative methods, techniques and tools are used in the process of producing the food (Guiné *et al.*, 2012).

2.2. Importance of Gastronomy

Food has a key attraction for tourists and they spend approximately 40% of their budgets on food (Tsai and Wang, 2017). Food can create a strong and unique image, motivating a tourist's intention to visit and revisit and unique place food image can be promoted to distinguish a city from its competitors (Tsai and Wang, 2017). Food is a major component for both leisure and business segments of tourism industry and eating is the only activity that prompts all five senses; vision, tactile, auditory, taste and olfaction (Sengel *et al.*, 2015). Food has psycho-sensorial, social and symbolic meanings and is often associated with destination image and attraction. Definitions of food tourism, gastronomy tourism, culinary tourism, and gourmet tourism consider food as the primary motivational factor for these groups of tourists to travel (Lee *et al.*, 2015a). Hence, the economic benefits brought by tourist food consumption can significantly affect the economic viability and sustainable competitiveness of a destination and the hospitality businesses operating in the locality (Mak *et al.*, 2012).

Food can provide the basis for the development of tourism experiences in a number of ways: linking culture and tourism, developing the meal experience, producing distinctive foods, developing the critical infrastructure for food production and consumption (food producers, chefs, critics, other culinary trendsetters, journalists, bloggers and information providers) and supporting local culture by providing the cultural capital necessary to create and sustain cultural production and consumption (OECD, 2012), diversify rural economies with few development alternatives, extend the tourist season, create jobs, strengthen local identities and sense of community and create backward linkages, stimulating agriculture and local food production, industry, and ancillary services thus reducing economic leakage (OECD, 2012).

Among the different travel expenditures, food consumption constitutes up to one third of the total spending of tourists (Wu *et al.*, 2016). EUR 2 billion was spent on food and drink by tourists in Ireland in 2009, food and drink represents 36% of visitor expenditure outside of accommodation. This expenditure supports an estimated 163 200 employees providing food services to tourists (OECD, 2012). Cultural, social, psychological, physiological, environmental, and sensory acceptance factors influence tourist food consumption (Seo *et al.*, 2013). There are some motives for tourist food consumption: cultural and religious influences, socio-demographic factors, food-related personality traits, exposure effect and past experience, and motivational factors (exciting experience, escape from routine, health concern, learning

knowledge, authentic experience, togetherness, prestige, sensory appeal), physiological factors (food neophilia and food neophobia) (Seo *et al.*, 2013).

The importance of food in tourism has increased in significance over the past decades and there is a significant relationship between the food image of a place and intention to visit, as well as the increasing importance of food in the promotion of local destinations (Lee *et al.*, 2014). When tourists eat at a destination they not only satisfy their hunger but also experience the local culture and interact with their hosts. Tourists' demand for local food occur however in different levels of intensity. Some tourists travel solely for gastronomy in the region, some see local food as a by-product of their cultural experiences, and some others rather familiar food when they travel (Sengel *et al.*, 2015). Eating and drinking a particular local food and beverage during holidays implies partaking in the local culture of the people (Adongo *et al.*, 2015). The development of creative food places also involves the process of place branding where the aim is to promote a distinctive local identity and marketable place image to outsiders (Lee *et al.*, 2015b). National cuisine' becomes valued as a means through which to increase the tourist spend e rather than, for example, a messy, holistic and sensorial experience facilitating a myriad of classed, gendered, aged, raced (and so on) encounters (Jong and Varley, 2017). The trend to purchase local foods has strengthened in recent years. Restaurants are finding ways to capitalize on these trends. Perceived benefits of good public relations, support to the local economy, possibility of purchasing smaller quantities, fresher and safer food, high customer satisfaction, and knowledge of product sources and production methods were identified (Sharma *et al.*, 2014).

Local food can enhance the tourists' perceived authenticity of heritage by making them familiar with the historical and cultural features of the destination. (Tsai and Wang, 2017). But tourists experience new culture in an unfamiliar environment during a trip, they perceive more risk in choosing and eating local food than purchasing other tour products. In addition, many tourists tend to conflate local with strange and unfamiliar and become more concerned about hygiene (Seo *et al.*, 2013). Because of the concerns about food safety, tourists might have more unfavorable attitudes toward consuming unfamiliar local food during their travel abroad (Wu *et al.*, 2016). Among the factors that have been identified to influence tourists' perceptions, concerns, and confidence about food safety are culture, religion, sanitation perception, past experience, advice from health specialists and physicians, trust in actors in the food chain and regulators, and the neophobic and neophilic attitudes to food (Amuquandoh, 2011). Health and food safety are one of the major concerns among tourists in tourist destinations (Amuquandoh, 2011). Most of the food safety incidents rarely occur in the four or five star hotels and restaurants but the incidents often occur at street food vendors which offer low price and low standard quality of hygienic. In general, the young international tourists often have a better health and self-immunity to guard against food risks from street vendors, whereas, the senior international tourists are often in the high risk of food safety problems (Sirigunna, 2015). Vendors are often with no formal education, untrained in food hygiene, and work under crude and unsanitary conditions and have no or very little knowledge about the cause of food-borne diseases (Kharel *et al.*, 2016).

3. Foodborne Diseases and Their Importance

Food safety is essential for good nutrition and health, which is vital for sustainable development. In many parts of the world, raw materials sold at the market and consumed at home can create problems in terms of food safety during growing and preparation stages. It is reported that about 2.2 million people, consisting 1.9 million children, die annually due to diarrhea, because of the microbiological contamination in food and water. According to the

World Health Organization (WHO), 1 from 10 people is sick every year and 125.000 children, under 5 years, die from foodborne diseases (ANON, 2017b).

Despite all efforts to prevent foodborne diseases in the world, these diseases continue to be an important public health problem. Today, there are nearly 250 factors that cause foodborne diseases. One or more individuals who are exposed to one or more of these factors are faced with similar symptoms of food contaminated with microorganisms or toxins. In the case of food pathogens with *Clostridium botulinum*, *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 and other high virulence pathogens, it is inevitable to mention the epidemic diseases (Ritter and Tondo, 2014).

According to the Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), there are 48 million foodborne disease cases every year in the United States, resulting in over 12.000 hospitalizations and 3.000 deaths. In 2011, Scallan et al. reported that in the U.S.A. 58% of foodborne diseases are norovirus, followed by nontyphoidal *Salmonella* spp. (11%), *Clostridium perfringens* (10%) and *Campylobacter* spp. (9%). The European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) and the European Center for Disease Prevention and Control reported in 2010 that there were only 43.473 human cases, 4.695 hospital admissions and 5.262 foodborne outbreaks in the European Union including 25 deaths. The main food sources were eggs, mixed or buffet meals and vegetables. Among the most common causative agents, *Campylobacter* remained the most reported agent and was confirmed at 212.064, followed by *Salmonella* (99.020 cases) and *Yersinia enterocolitica* (6.776 cases) (Ritter and Tondo, 2014).

Foods, which are sold and eaten on streets, are an important food source for most of the population groups, especially tourists, in urban and pre-urban settings. Unfortunately, these foods, which are a source of foodborne disease, uncontrollable in the street and have a high risk of contamination, are a major public health issue (WHO, 2014). On the other hand, while in large food producing companies, the control measures of food safety management systems are routinely implemented, especially in small towns, restaurants, small lounges, traditional home-cooked meals, and on the streets where food is edible, food can be prepared under inadequate conditions. For this reason, food pathogens can still cause serious problems in developing countries. In addition, due to lack of safe and potable water for drinking and meal preparation, a significant part of the population may be more likely to suffer from foodborne disease. Conditions for the storage and transport of foodstuffs in such businesses are often not appropriate and can be significant mistakes in safe and hygienic food processes (Ritter and Tondo, 2014).

3. Conclusion

One of the most important goals of the tourism sector is to taking into account the dangers arising from food in the places where people travel, to take necessary precautions and to provide quality service to its customers and to enjoy the freedom of eating the traditional products of countries they will go without risking. In this regard, industry should provide accurate information to travelers from individual resources in order to reduce risk in the travel decision making process, especially in developing countries to prevent foodborne diseases, which often encountered in these countries.

Acquisition of knowledge via search engines on the internet and perceiving risks are important factors that affecting decision making process of people in gastronomy tourism. For this reason, these information sources should be used to prevent information pollution and transferring accurate information to passengers.

In the context of its global strategy to reduce foodborne diseases through education of the general population, WHO developed a set of simple and clear messages, "Five keys to safer food" that were easy to understand and could be easily adapted for different target audiences. The "Five keys" messages were: (i) keeping clean; (ii) separating raw and cooked food items;

(iii) cooking thoroughly; (iv) keeping food at safety temperatures; and (v) using safety water and raw materials. In addition to its extensive use in promoting safe food during routine food handling and preparations globally, the “Five keys” message has also been used widely in emergency situations to prevent and control disease outbreaks.

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